SOCIAL WORK AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT:

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

by

IRMA McKINLAY

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS

for the degree

DOCTOR PHILOSOPHIAE
(SOCIAL WORK)

in the

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WORK

at the

UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

PROMOTER: PROF. DR. A. LOMBARD

MAY 2004

"Inability to change the system is not necessarily one's weakness; to do nothing, however, is a sign of intellectual cowardice".   (Mohan, 1999: 133)

"Joblessness is more fundamental than homelessness. Solve the former and automatically you're on your way to solving the latter".   (Sunter, 1997: 82)

i

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My sincere appreciation to:

Prof. Dr. A. Lombard, my promoter, for her guidance, support, expertise and understanding.

My family and friends for their unwavering love and support.

Irma McKinlay

May 2004

ABSTRACT

SOCIAL WORK AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

by

IRMA M^cKINLAY

PROMOTER: PROF. DR. A. LOMBARD

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL WORK

Sustainable development aims at improving human well-being, particularly by alleviating poverty, increasing gender equality, and improving health, human resources, and stewardship of the natural environment. Sustainable development is based on three pillars, namely, environmental protection and social progress and economic development.

This study intended to contribute to sustainable development in the area of developmental social work practice by addressing the issues of new conceptualisations of social work practice, and in particular of intervention strategies, within the paradigm of sustainable social work practice.

The purpose of this study was to explore and construct a foundation of general perceptions and tentative theories with regard to sustainable development and the position and value of the social work profession within the sustainable development paradigm. The goal of this research study was to explore current social work practice with regard to sustainable development and identify new

challenges and opportunities for sustainable social work practice in the changing South Africa.

The researcher utilised focus group discussions as a method of generating data and an exploratory research purpose as little is known about the topic of investigation and the utilization of focus groups are particularly useful in its ability to explore the topic.

This study was a process of discovery and not the testing of a hypothesis. The researcher entered the realm of the participants' everyday experience and through conversation extracted detailed descriptions of their perceptions, ideas and concerns. In this qualitative research the emphasis was on understanding the experiences, attitudes, assumptions and perspectives of the participants.

The instrumental case study was used to provide insight into sustainable development as a new paradigm within the social welfare field and to discover the issues and challenges faced by the social work profession as it pertained to sustainable development. The data was organised around emerging themes and subsequently examined in relation to the literature.

Based on the findings and conclusions drawn, the following recommendations were made:

o The social work profession needs an information-sharing platform.
o Collaboration and cooperation are crucial components in the process of sustainable development.
o Social work practitioners have to become self-directed and lifelong learners who will be able to adapt to the changing circumstances in society.
o Social work practitioners need to develop creative strategies within a multidisciplinary approach to address the issues of poverty, underdevelopment and unemployment in a sustainable manner.

o Social work practitioners need to actively contribute to processes and structures that support the delivery of adult literacy and skills training efforts.

o Social work practitioners need to explore ways and means of facilitating economic opportunities by addressing the obstacles and/or regulations that prevent people from accessing available markets.

Key Terms

Sustainable development paradigm

Social work

Social development

Environmental protection

Economic growth and development

Social progress

Poverty

Underdevelopment

Unemployment

Human capital

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER ONE - GENERAL OVERVIEW

CHAPTER TWO - THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT PARADIGM

CHAPTER THREE - POVERTY, UNDERDEVELOPMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

CHAPTER FOUR - SOCIAL WORK WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF SUSTAINABLE
DEVELOPMENT

CHAPTER FIVE - EMPIRICAL STUDY AND FINDINGS

CHAPTER SIX - CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1   **Semi-structured interview schedule**
APPENDIX 2   **Invitation**
APPENDIX 3   **Informed consent/Confidentiality agreement**
APPENDIX 4   **Reminder**

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In South Africa the scale of required change and development is so great that problems of prioritizing, coordination and cooperation across political, social and economic barriers are bound to be enormous. A number of authors were of the opinion that changing social conditions need responding to without delay (Compare Roberts, 2001: 18; Mulholland, 2002; Potgieter, 1998: 66 and Department of Social Development, Strategic Plan 2002/03-2004/05, 2002: 16). Barberton, Blake and Kotze (1998: 37) articulated this challenge as follows:
"The most fundamental challenge in South Africa today is to achieve a reduction in poverty and inequality. This will require substantial changes in the distribution of incomes, wealth and economic power between men and women, between rural and urban areas, between white and black and between capital and labour. Clearly, a dramatic restructuring of the economy needs to take place. The question is: How can this be achieved?" A follow up question is required, namely: How can an enabling socio-economic environment be ensured?

Bartle (2003a: 2) defined an enabling environment as follows: "This is an environment (political, regulatory) around a community that enables the community to unite, identify its own resources, engage in self-help activities, and become self reliant". The environment around each community, not only its ecological but also its social-economic-political environment, affects its level of community empowerment. Bartle (2003a: 2) further elaborated on this concept by stating that the practices, attitudes, behaviour, rules, regulations and laws, of

1

leaders, civil servants and politicians, of central and district governments, all contribute to the degree of enablement around a community.

The present government is struggling with the task of delivering the "promised land". After the 1994 elections, expectations were high, delivery of development and services slow, and tainted by accusations of maladministration, corruption and gross inefficiency. The dilemma facing this Government, after the 2004 elections, is still one of managing to reconcile the increasing escalation of needs with the practice of responsible budget control.

The White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) was formulated with a new policy approach based on social development. This approach is generally regarded as a paradigm shift from the existing social welfare approaches namely, the residual and institutional models. It is presently regarded as a possible means of resolving these problems in a sustainable manner. It is stated emphatically in the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) that welfare should contribute to the eradication of poverty through a developmental approach (Gray, 1998: 24). The paradigm incorporated the following mission of social welfare (White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997: 15):

 "*To serve and build a self-reliant nation in partnership with all stakeholders through an integrated social welfare system which maximizes its existing potential and which is equitable, sustainable, accessible, people-centered and developmental".*

It is in this context that the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) reflected the following important issues:

- Welfare cannot function effectively in isolation from the other forces which influence the well-being of people

- a comprehensive approach is advocated with the coordination of social services, facilities, programs and social security in order to enhance social development, social justice and social functioning of all people
- addressing social problems in a sustainable manner
- acknowledgement of the important link between social development and economic growth.

It is within this framework and philosophical context of social development that the sustainable development paradigm emerges. The concept of sustainable development has received much attention and raised a great deal of controversy. Sustainable development is defined as "development that meets the needs of the present, without compromising that of future generations to meet their own needs" (World Development Report, 2003: 14). This means that a balance must be maintained between economic development and its environmental and social impacts. To this end, sustainable development is a continuous process and not an end point. MacDonald (1998: 25) contributed a well-defined description of social development. She stated the following: "Social development refers to how well societies are meeting basic human needs such as food, shelter and clothing. It also involves providing the support services that can make or break the quality of life, including health care, education, culture and human rights".

The Christian Commission for Development in Bangladesh (in Bloem, Biswas and Adhikari, 1996: 141) stated in 1991 that sustainable development is seen as a process of holistic transformation of the society for self-reliance and the well-being of all people. At the heart of this concept is the idea of ensuring a better quality of life for everyone, now and for generations to come. The process is essentially related to all spheres of human existence. As such the process of transformation will have to ensure social, cultural, economic and political sustainability together with ecological and environmental sustainability. Achieving this, will ultimately lead to a holistic development of society.

Sustainability is related to the quality of life in a country, a community, a group of people, and directly related to the quality of economic and natural resources and the functioning of social systems. An overview of the literature confirmed that sustainable development is based on three pillars, namely, environmental protection and social progress and economic development. (Compare Dixon and Pretorius, 2002: 3; The Payson Center for International Development and Technology Transfer, 2002: 4; United Kingdom, Sustainable Development Commission, 2004 and Dobriansky, 2002: 1.) Effective pursuit of sustainable development requires a balanced approach, integrating all three components. These are issues directly related to the field of social welfare and social work as a profession. It is crucial to address issues of poverty as it has a direct impact on people's access to the most basic resources, which in turn affect their social functioning. The basis for job creation and poverty eradication is sound economic policies, and solid democratic institutions that are responsive to people's needs, and improved infrastructure. Dobriansky (2002: 2) stressed the importance of an enabling domestic environment for sustainable development. She wrote as follows (2002: 2): "Freedom, peace and security, domestic stability, respect for human rights, the rule of law, gender equality, market-oriented policies and an overall commitment to just and democratic societies are also essential and mutually reinforcing. Operationally, five of the key elements that are critical to creating an enabling domestic architecture that makes sustainable development possible are: effective institutions; education, science, and technology for decision-making; access to information; stakeholder participation; and access to justice". Sound, progressive and healthy social systems support healthy economic systems. Economic activity in turn, has significant impacts on global and local human well-being.

In 2002 the World Summit on Sustainable Development was held in Johannesburg, 10 years after the Earth Summit was held in Rio de Janeiro (June 1992) and 30 years after the United Nations Conference on Human Environment in Stockholm (June 1972). Much of the attention in the build-up to this new

4

Summit has been an assessment of the global progress made since 1992. While the 1992 Rio Summit emphasized environmental protection, the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) was pursuing an integrated approach to the three pillars of sustainable development: environmental stewardship, economic development, and social development (Brackett, 2002: 61; Kakabadse, 2002: 1; Moosa, 2002: 8). MacDonald (1998: 25) emphasized the very crux of the sustainable development dilemma, namely integrating social development with wise ecological management and sustainable economic development, is vital for achieving sustainability.

The research study intended to contribute to sustainable development in the area of developmental social work practice by addressing the issues of new conceptualizations of social work practice, and in particular of intervention strategies, within the paradigm of sustainable social work practice.

1.2   MOTIVATION FOR THE CHOICE OF THE SUBJECT

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, very little has been written about the social work profession and sustainable development. This is particularly applicable to the significant role that could be played by social workers. This study was motivated by the researcher's personal interest in sustainable development coupled with a number of years of practical experience in previously disadvantaged communities. From the researcher's experience as a coordinator of various projects it was found that the sustainability of these projects was a perpetual problem. Daily newspaper reports and articles stress the dire need of millions of people in this country to make ends meet. By addressing the issues of poverty, underdevelopment and unemployment, the researcher was of the opinion that new conceptualizations of social work practice in South Africa would emerge.

Mark (1996: 2) contributed a concise motivation as to the reasons why research should be done, namely: "Why do research? Although there are many reasons for doing research, the primary one is that there is a need to further the knowledge of the profession. Thus, if research was never done, the social work profession would be based merely on guesswork and speculation. Research must continually be conducted to provide answers to complex questions related to understanding human behavior and establishing effective social work programs and practices".

The choice of the subject therefore stemmed primarily from the researcher's own experience in trying to deal with the magnitude of problems facing a community in a sustainable way that would ensure growth, progress and stability for the community. However, welfare organisations face the same challenges and social workers will therefore have to find intervention strategies that contribute to sustainable intervention and development.

The democratization of South Africa, with the increasing demand for the transformation of welfare services, coupled with an alarming social instability experienced in the whole country as a result of poverty, unemployment, crime and the legacy of apartheid in general, requires a dramatic shift in thinking and approaching intervention strategies. Welfare agencies find themselves in a situation where they are expected to cope with enormous numbers of clientele with multi-faceted problems and very limited resources, both human and material. This situation holds an enormous challenge for the social work profession. Gray (1998: 24) contributed to this debate and emphasized the following: "The central question is whether social workers are able to adapt themselves and their profession to meet the changing needs of the South African sociopolitical and economic context. The way in which social workers respond will determine the degree of confidence people will have in them in the future". A spirit of constant innovation and of adaptability to constantly changing

circumstances needs to be fostered to allow for the stimulation of new intervention strategies.

An approach where sustainable development is the key concept, strives to address the important issues of poverty and under-development. Social work as a profession is well situated to play a significant role in this effort. However, for this to be realized, social workers as part of the professionals in the social welfare field should develop a framework of South African social problems within a global context. Coates (2000: 1) was of the opinion that social work needed to become involved in the movement towards a sustainable society and therefore a paradigm shift would be required. Social work must move beyond modernity and build its interventions on a very different ideological foundation. This kind of foundation calls for new roles as it focuses on interdependence and collectivity rather than individualism, on connectedness rather than dualism, and on holism rather than reductionism (Coates, 2000: 1). Osei-Hwedie (1995: 21) contended that there were calls for the radicalization of social work practice in Africa. This was based on the argument that current social work practice in Africa was irrelevant, inappropriate or ineffective. The argument is that social work should adopt a more pragmatic approach marking a departure from traditional formulations and procedures. Osei-Hwedie further emphasized the calls for social work practice to move from remedial services to a focus on structural change, inequality and social disadvantage and thereby taking a preventative stance. This positions social work in the context of capacity building and empowerment.

In summary, the motivation for the study stemmed from personal experience and the lack of literature specifically related to sustainable social work practice within the sustainable development paradigm. It was in this area that the research study made its main contribution.

1.3   PROBLEM FORMULATION

The realities of poverty, unemployment, social maladjustment and relationship problems are relevant to the present and future social and political stability in this country. To stay relevant to the needs of the people they serve, social work has to position itself in a way that addresses poverty, unemployment and lack of basic economic resources in a most fundamental way. These issues pose a major challenge to social workers to address not only unemployment but also the hardships that is central to the lives of so many in this country. It is important that these are considered as inter-related parts of the sustainable development paradigm. In this regard the Department of Social Development emphasized the following: "Access to quality employment is critical to achieving sustainable livelihoods and thereby reducing poverty and inequality. Poor people are faced both with unemployment and the low quality of the jobs they otherwise occupy; the challenge is thus to create more and better jobs" (Department of Social Development, Executive Summary, 2002: 6).

In post-apartheid South Africa, where historically marginalized populations still face extreme poverty, the struggle to provide employment opportunities now includes other segments of the population, i.e. those not previously disadvantaged by the apartheid political system. Job losses can, to some degree, be attributed to corporate downsizing (falling formal sector employment), globalization, affirmative action, privatization and a myriad of other factors. Joblessness in South Africa affects a staggeringly high 35-47% of the economically active population, with the black majority, and women in particular, most seriously at risk. According to the Department of Social Development, poverty in South Africa was critically linked to the labour market (Department of Social Development, Consolidated Report, 2002: 70). The report continued to stress the importance of jobs for the unemployed to allow them to participate in society, to contribute financially to their families and to increase self-worth (Consolidated Report, 2002: 73).

Unemployment is more than the absence of a job. It is associated with several social problems and affects social, economic and psychological functioning. It affects life expectation and well-being. It has become a question of fundamental human rights. For this and many other compelling reasons it is a central social work issue because of its effects such as lack of income, deprivation of adequate housing, health provision and education.

Social work has a diffuse professional identity, in that it is a profession that deals with a wide range of tasks, including clinical practice, therapy, counselling, community organization and planning, social action, and administration of social service delivery systems (Feit, Ramey, Wodarski and Mann, 1995: 90). Social workers need to determine their roles within sustainable development. The researcher is of the opinion that social work is called upon to be proactive in addressing underdevelopment and poverty issues by actively becoming involved in job creation and stimulating entrepreneurial thinking. Mulholland (2002: 70) emphasized the importance of this viewpoint and stated in this regard: "Sustainable, meaningful jobs are created not by government but by the natural drive of individuals to better themselves".

One of the objectives should be to promote the conditions necessary for the growth and development of enterprises, thereby increasing the access to income-generating activities. Social work should position itself to identify small-scale operations in order to ensure lasting social and economic progress to achieve a degree of self-reliance for the client population. Assisting clients to regain initiative, choice and responsibility for own development is of the utmost importance. A new view of social work practice should be explored. This should be a view that seeks to equip the client population with the ability to contribute towards raising their standard of living, improving their day-to-day existence and finding greater fulfilment in life.

By having a clear, relevant and appropriate conceptualization of sustainable development, it is possible to identify those opportunities which could be used in social work practice to become proactively involved in the economic development of communities, groups or individuals (the client population). Social work should be instrumental in creating a supportive environment where skills development, entrepreneurship and knowledge foster sustainable income generation, job creation and social empowerment.

According to the researcher's knowledge, not much research has been done on sustainable development as a concept within South African social work, and further research will assist in establishing a sound theory base for this approach. This research study therefore sets out to clarify the concept of sustainable development as an integral part of social work practice.

1.4 PURPOSE, GOAL AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

1.4.1 Purpose of the study

According to Fouché (2002a: 107) there is some confusion about the exact meaning of the concepts "purpose", "goal" and "objective". Fouché (2002a: 107) stated the following in this regard: "The terms goal, purpose and aim are thus often used interchangeably, i.e. as synonyms for one another. Their meaning implies the broader, more abstract conception of the "end toward which effort or ambition is directed", while "objective" denotes the more concrete, measurable and more speedily attainable conception of such "end toward which effort or ambition is directed". The one (goal, purpose or aim) is the "dream"; the other (objective) is the steps one has to take, one by one, realistically at grass-rootslevel, within a certain time-span, in order to attain the dream". It is for this reason that Fouché (2002a: 109) stated that the typology of exploratory, descriptive and explanatory be regarded as objectives of professional research. Fouché (2002a: 109) further added to the previously mentioned three objectives

10

a more comprehensive list that includes research with the objective of exploring, describing, explaining, correlating or evaluating, for instance, a social or educational programme; developing an intervention; initiating participatory action; or conceptualising or utilising exegetical methodologies. According to Fouché studies may have multiple objectives, but one objective is usually dominant.

The purpose of this research study was exploratory as little was known about the position, role and function of social work practice within the sustainable development paradigm. Exploratory research is often conducted because a problem has not been clearly defined as yet, or its real scope is yet unclear. It allows the researcher to familiarize him/herself with the problem or concept to be studied, and perhaps generate hypotheses to be tested (Joppe, [sa]: 1).

The Management Decision and Research Center ([sa]: 22) described qualitative research as follows: "Qualitative research is characterized by an emphasis on describing, understanding, and explaining complex phenomena – on studying, for example, the relationships, patterns and configurations among factors; or the context in which activities occur. The focus is on understanding the full multi-dimensional, dynamic picture of the subject". Hayes (2000: 169) clarified this perspective and stated that qualitative research emphasises validity. This author (2000: 169) contributed the following in this regard: "The main goal of the researcher is not to produce results which can be replicated, but to develop a true understanding of what is going on. As a result, the emphasis is on the communications which come from research participants and the social processes which are taking place".

According to Fouché (2002a: 109) exploratory research is conducted to gain insight into a situation, phenomenon, community or individual. The need for such a study could arise out of a lack of basic information on a new area of interest, or in order to become acquainted with a situation so as to formulate a problem or develop a hypothesis. (Compare Bless and Higson-Smith, 1995: 42-43.)

11

Exploratory research does exactly what the name says, research is done in a particular field or topic in the social sciences on which no or limited research has been done. The results of exploratory research are not usually useful for decision-making by themselves, but they can provide significant insight into a given situation. Although the results of qualitative research can give some indication as to the "why" and "how" and "when" something occurs, it cannot explain the "how often" or "how many". The implication of this is that the results cannot be generalized, the reason being that they are not representative of the whole population being studied (Joppe, [sa]: 1).

Oliver and Linkon (2003: 1) added to this debate and stated in this regard that qualitative research is especially useful when a topic cannot easily be quantified and variables cannot easily be identified. In their opinion qualitative research can help to identify variables or develop theories. Merriam (2002: 5) contributed to this discussion in the following way: "In attempting to understand the meaning a phenomenon has for those involved, qualitative researchers build toward theory from observations and intuitive understandings gleaned from being in the field".

De Vos (1998: 124) further reflected the following aims of exploratory research, namely:
- To gain new insights into the phenomena,
- To undertake a preliminary investigation prior to a more structured study of the phenomena,
- To explicate the central concepts and constructs,
- To determine priorities for future research,
- To develop new hypothesis about an existing phenomenon.

According to Mouton and Marais (1990: 43), De Vos (1998: 124), Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999: 39) and Bless and Higson-Smith (1995: 42-43) the objective in exploratory studies is the exploration of a relatively unknown research area. Exploratory studies employ an open, flexible , creative and inductive approach to

12

research as they attempt to look for new insights into a particular problem. With exploratory research an inductive approach is adopted as the researcher makes a series of particular observations, and attempt to patch these together to form more general but speculative hypotheses. Inductive reasoning moves from the particular to the general, from a set of specific observations to the discovery of a pattern that represents some degree of order among all the given events (Babbie, 1998: 35). Aims in such studies may be for example to gain new insights and comprehension into the phenomenon, rather than the collection of accurate and replicable data, and

- to undertake a preliminary investigation prior to a more structured, systematic study or investigation of the phenomenon (Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 1999: 39)

- to explicate the central concepts and constructs (Mouton and Marais, in De Vos, 1998: 124)

- to determine priorities for future research (Mouton and Marais, in De Vos, 1998: 124)

- to develop various ideas, tentative theories and postulations (Babbie, 1989: 80)

- to develop new hypotheses about an existing phenomenon (hypotheses tend to develop as a result of such research rather than research being guided by hypotheses) (Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 1999: 39)

- exploratory research investigates the "what" of the matter, but seldom gives a final answer (Bailey, 1982: 38 and Babbie, 1989: 81)

- to uncover generalizations, propose research questions which can be investigated at a later stage with more precise and complex designs and data-gathering techniques (Grinnell in De Vos, 1998: 124).

In exploratory research information is obtained through questions and recommendations provide the basis for a meaningful research design so that further research can be done. Subsequent research could be more systematic and extensive in nature. It is an important approach to develop various ideas,

tentative theories and postulations. A valuable concise description of this process was obtained from CERIS ([sa]: 61): "A qualitative study is not an impressionistic off-the-cuff analysis based on a superficial look at a setting or people. It is a piece of systematic research conducted with demanding, though not necessarily standardized, procedures. The study of human behaviour is time consuming, intellectually fatiguing, and depends for its success upon the ability of the investigator". Hayes (2000: 194) echoed this sentiment and emphasized that one of the greatest advantages of qualitative analysis is that it allows researchers to recognize that the research participant isn't just a passive provider of data, but a living person, with ideas and opinions of their own. Hayes (2000: 194) stated in this regard: "As a living human being, they will be making their own sense of the situation, and acting according to their understanding of what is going on". Qualitative methods are thus used to build up a theoretical understanding of an area or topic so that the end process will result in a theoretical overview which is a reasonably thorough reflection of the data which have been collected, and which can serve as the basis for future research into the area. (Compare Hayes, 2000: 170-171 and Fossey, Harvey, McDermott and Davidson, 2002: 7.)

The purpose of this study was to explore and construct a foundation of general perceptions and tentative theories with regard to sustainable development and the position and value of the social work profession within the sustainable development paradigm, which pave the way for more in depth research processes later. Furthermore the purpose of this study was to discover the issues and challenges faced by the social work profession with regard to sustainable development and to develop guidelines and intervention strategies to address the issues of underdevelopment, poverty and unemployment. This research study involved a process of building a complex and holistic picture of sustainable development and an indication how and where social work fit into this picture.

1.4.2 Goal of the study

The goal of this research study was to explore current social work practice with regard to sustainable development and identify new challenges and opportunities for sustainable social work practice in the changing South Africa.

1.4.3 Objectives of the study

- To explore, through a literature study, the theoretical framework of the concept sustainable development and its applicability in social work.
- To explore the perceptions, attitudes, frame of reference and knowledge base of social workers and social work administrators towards the concept sustainable development and social work practice.
- To make recommendations, based on the findings of the study for sustainable social work practice, social work education and training, as well as influencing policy-making decisions and processes.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS FOR THE STUDY

An exploratory study using qualitative methods usually does not have a precisely delimited problem statement or precise hypothesis. One purpose of qualitative methods is to discover important questions, processes and relationships, not to test them (De Vos, 1998: 104; Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 1999: 39).

As a result of researcher's interest in sustainable development, exploratory discussions with a variety of professionals and extensive literature study, the following research questions were formulated for this study:

- How do social service providers, social workers and administrators address the concept of sustainable development?

- Do social workers acknowledge the need for the development of new paradigms for sustainable social work practice and reconceptualizing social work?

- Are social workers initiating processes for clients to develop knowledge and skills and therefore providing the stimulation to develop entrepreneurship to address poverty and unemployment?

- Do social workers understand the holistic concept of social development, meaning social and economic change as clearly outlined in the basic tenets of sustainable development?

- Do social workers understand and acknowledge the link between sustainable development and social work?

- Do social workers actively encourage, motivate and assist clients to explore sustainable economic activities and opportunities, and thereby proactively seek to achieve a higher level of economic functioning for client population?

- What are the perceptions of social workers with regard to a business focus in social work? Are social workers prepared to explore/extend the core areas of knowledge and skills to include business skills?

- Are social workers equipped to deal with the changes brought about by a new dispensation in South Africa?

- What are the implications for social work curricula and field practica with regard to the paradigm of sustainable development?

1.6   RESEARCH APPROACH

This research study was of a qualitative nature. Qualitative research interprets data by giving meaning to it, translating it or making it understandable. Denzin and Lincoln (1994: 2) defined qualitative research as "a multimethod in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter". The research purpose in research of a qualitative nature is to study phenomena as they unfold in real-world situations, without manipulation. Furthermore, to study phenomena as interrelated wholes rather than spilt up into discreet predetermined variables.

16

To achieve this, an inductive, qualitative approach is required. Thomas (2000: 3) explained it as follows: "The researcher's role is to gain a "holistic" (systemic, encompassing, integrated) overview of the context under study: its logic, its arrangements, its explicit and implicit rules". The Centre of Excellence for Research on Immigration and Settlement (CERIS) ([sa]: 11) expanded on this perspective: "When we reduce people's words and acts to statistical equations, we can lose sight of the human side of social life. When we study people qualitatively, we get to know them personally and experience what they experience in their daily struggles in society". CERIS ([sa]: 12) further stated that qualitative methodology is commonly used on questions such as: what is happening, what are people doing and what does it mean to them? Patton (in CERIS [sa]: 57) explained that the holistic perspective, the detailed qualitative descriptions that give attention to nuance, setting, interdependencies, complexities, idiosyncrasies, and context of programs and situations (social and political context), is essential for overall understanding.

Qualitative researchers collect data in the form of written or spoken language, or in the form of observations that are recorded in language, and analyse the data by identifying and categorizing themes. Qualitative methods allow the researcher to study selected issues in depth, openness and detail as they identify and attempt to understand the categories of information that emerge from the data. In a quantitative study one of the main objectives is to discover facts and findings which are relevant to the participants who did not participate in the study, in other words to discover facts that could be generalized.

In a qualitative study, the goal is to understand the unique and personal experience of each participant. For this reason qualitative research studies focus on fewer participants who match the characteristics of the field with less importance on being able to generalize the study findings (Grinnell, 1997: 142-147). For qualitative researchers knowing about social reality is rooted in understanding, and this understanding flows from the shared meaning generated

by experiencing social reality. The researcher starts developing concepts to describe what is experienced in the context. As these concepts develop, they are linked to each other and this forms the basis of the theory that is formulated. Qualitative researchers take the actual social context into consideration to develop an understanding of events or actions (Pope and Mays, 1995: 5; Thomas, 2000: 3-4). CERIS ([sa]: 57) stated that data collection is not constrained by predetermined categories of analysis that contributes to the depth and detail of qualitative data. The researcher searches for the unifying nature of particular settings. This holistic approach assumes that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts. Gubrium and Holstein (in CERIS [sa]: 57) explained this as a commitment to studying social life as it unfolds. Seeing people as active agents of their affairs, qualitative inquiry has traditionally focused on how purposeful actors participate in, construct, deeply experience, or imagine their lives. Pope and Mays (1995: 3) supported this viewpoint and contributed the following: "The goal of qualitative research is the development of concepts which help us to understand social phenomena in natural (rather than experimental) settings, giving due emphasis to the meanings, experiences, and views of all participants".

Schuerman (1983: 107) identified the following characteristics of qualitative research:

- It is more a process of discovery than testing hypothesis.
- As a naturalistic approach it is sensitive, holistic and ecological as it is engaged in complex interactions which are more likely to capture the rich texture of life.
- Qualitative research focuses more on understanding of social events from the point of view of persons involved rather than explaining why things happen.
- Since the world can be designed as a world of qualities, the naturalistic approach tends to emphasize description and generalization rather than statistics. (Compare Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 1999: 47; Schurink, 1998: 241-243; Rafuls, [sa]: 1 and Preissle, [sa]: 4.)

Rafuls ([sa]: 3) stated that qualitative research methods are best suited for research intended to provide an understanding of processes occurring within particular contexts and of the beliefs and perceptions of the participants involved in the processes being studied. Ruskin ([sa]: 2) contributed to this discussion by adding that qualitative research examines the patterns of meanings that emerge from the data and these are often presented in the participants' own words. The task then of the qualitative researcher is to find patterns within those words (and actions) and to present those patterns for others to inspect while at the same time staying as close to the construction of the world as the participants originally experienced it. Ruskin ([sa]: 2) concluded by emphasizing that what can be discovered by qualitative research are not sweeping generalizations but contextual findings. This process of discovery is basic to the philosophic underpinning of the qualitative approach. Thomas (2000: 3) stated that the main task of qualitative research is to explicate the ways people in particular settings come to understand, account for, take action, and otherwise manage their day-to-day situations.

In the context of this study the researcher utilized the qualitative method to discover and uncover the ideas, perceptions and frame of reference and experiences of social service providers, social workers and administrators with regard to sustainable development and the position of social work practice within the sustainable development paradigm.

1.7   TYPE OF RESEARCH

Research can be divided into categories – that is, according to what it is used for. The tendency can be either to expand on fundamental knowledge or to solve specific problems, resulting in the following two types of research:

1. Research that tends to expand on fundamental knowledge is called basic research (sometimes also called "academic research" or pure research").

2. Research that tends to solve specific problems is called applied research. Applied research is designed to solve practical problems of the modern world, rather than to acquire knowledge for knowledge's sake. The goal is to improve the human condition (National Berkely National Laboratory, [sa]: 1).

The findings derived from applied research have a practical application. Applied research aims to contribute towards practical issues of problem-solving, decision-making, policy analysis and community development (Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 1999: 41). In other words, researchers using applied research try to solve specific problems or, if necessary, try to make specific recommendations. Applied research involves problems that need to be solved in order to aid decision-making at line levels, managerial levels or policy levels. Such studies are designed to directly benefit a specific system, be it a national organization, an agency or an individual (Williams, Tutty and Grinnell, 1995: 52). Applied research generally is descriptive in nature and its main advantage is that it can be applied immediately after having obtained the results (Neuman, 1997: 21-23). Although research can be classified as either basic or applied research, these categories are not mutually exclusive. All research can be classified on a continuum between these two poles. If the tendency is to concentrate more on a contribution to knowledge, the research is more basic in nature, and if the tendency is for the research to be more practice-oriented, it is more applied in nature.

In this research study the researcher utilized applied research. Within this study the focus was on achieving a clearer understanding of the role and functions of social work practice within the sustainable development paradigm, and to use this to devise new applications for the pressing problems in communities and broader society.

1.8   THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOG Y

Ruskin ([sa]: 1) stated that the design of a research study begins with the selection of a topic and a paradigm. A paradigm is essentially a worldview, a whole framework of beliefs, values and methods within which research takes place. It is this world view within which researchers work. Leedy, Newby and Ertmer (1997: 5) described research as a systematic process where, through the support of data, the answer to a question, the resolution of a problem or a greater understanding of phenomena is sought. It is thus a process following orderly procedures for problem solving or creating new knowledge. Meulenberg-Buskens (1996: 44) added to this perspective and stated that research is a process of knowledge construction and does not take place in a vacuum but is the result of raising and trying to answer questions. This type of structure requires a specific plan of procedure. The research process is therefore the orderly procedure of solving problems or creating new knowledge.

Fouché (2002b: 271) used the term "strategy" for the equivalent of research design in the quantitative approach. Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999: 52) stated the following with regard to research design: "A research design is a plan for action that is developed by making decisions about four aspects of the research: the research paradigm, the purpose of the study, the techniques to be employed and the situation within which observation will take place". These authors (1999: 483) were of the opinion that research design was a strategic framework or plan that guided the research activities to ensure that sound conclusions are reached. They continued to stress that the research design served as a bridge between research questions and the execution or implementation of the research. The research design provided a plan that specifies how the research was going to be executed in order to provide answers to the research questions.

Schuerman (1983: 21) provided another perspective: "The design for a research project is the plan for answering the research question. It specifies what

information is needed from whom, and when it is to be gathered". The author further stated that the design specifies the unit of analysis, the sampling procedure, the variables on which information is to be obtained, the data collection and measurement procedures, and the plan for the analysis of data. The purpose of a research design is to provide a plan for answering social questions (Schuerman, 1983: 148). A research design is therefore a set plan to answer important questions about a research topic or test a hypothesis. Durrheim (1999: 30) was of the opinion that a research design should provide an explicit plan for action and should include the techniques that will be employed in the implementation or execution of the research, i.e. sampling, data collection and analysis.

According to Fouché (2002b: 272) researchers undertaking qualitative studies have a great number of choices of strategies. Fouché further stated that qualitative researchers will during the research process, create the research strategy best suited to their research, or might even design their whole research project around the strategy selected. Creswell (in Fouché, 2002b: 272) made a contribution by identifying five strategies of inquiry, which, according to him, represent different disciplines, have detailed procedures and have proved to be popular and were frequently used. (Compare Oliver and Linkon, 2003: 2.) The five strategies are as follows:

- Biography
- Phenomenology
- Grounded theory
- Ethnography
- Case study

According to Creswell (in Fouché, 2002b: 275) a case study can be regarded as an exploration or in-depth analysis of a "bounded system" (bounded by time and/or place) or a single or multiple cases, over a period of time. The case being studied can refer to a process, activity, event, programme or individual or multiple

22

individuals. Fouché (2002b: 275) stipulated that the product of this type of research is an in-depth description of a case or cases. The researcher situates this system or case within its larger context, but the focus remains on either the case or an issue that is illustrated by the case. Merriam (2002: 8) stated that the case study is a vehicle for in-depth description and analysis. The Management Decision and Research Center ([sa]: 24) added the following statement to the discussion: "Case studies are the preferred strategy when "how" or "why" are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context. The case study is especially appropriate when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident". Hayes (2000: 131) contributed to this discussion by emphasizing that case studies are an approach to psychological research, which do not try to gather information from large numbers of research participants, instead they focus on single cases and explore them. According to Hayes case studies allow a researcher to investigate a topic in far more detail than might be possible if the researcher was trying to deal with a large number of participants.

The focus in this study was on sustainable development and the contribution, place and value of the social work profession within this contemporary issue.

Babbie (in Fouché, 2002b: 275) made a valuable contribution when he stated that case study researchers, in contrast with grounded theorists, seek to enter the field with knowledge of the relevant literature before conducting the field research. Mark (in Fouché, 2002b: 275-276) referred to three types of case studies, namely: the intrinsic case study, the instrumental case study and the collective case study. For the purpose of this study, the researcher used the instrumental case study. The instrumental case study is used to elaborate on a theory or to gain a better understanding of a social issue.

Stake (in Sánchez and Chaminade, [sa]: 8) described an instrumental case study as follows: "A particular case is examined to provide an insight into an issue or to

test a theory. In this case, both the phenomenon and its context are analysed in detail". Hayes (2000: 133) elaborated on this aspect and stated the following in this regard: "Because they are so rich in information, case studies can give us insights into phenomena which we could not gain in any other way".

According to Mark (in Fouché, 2002b: 276) the instrumental case study merely serves the purpose of facilitating the researcher's gaining of knowledge about the social issue. In Stuart's opinion (2003: 1) if the researcher focuses on a specific issue, the case must illustrate that issue; this is an "instrumental case". Hannibal ([sa]: 1) contributed a description of the instrumental case study by stating that instrumental case studies constitute exemplars of a more general phenomenon. According to Hannibal they are selected to provide the researcher with an opportunity to study the phenomenon of interest. The research question identifies a phenomenon and the cases are selected in order to explore how the phenomenon exists within a particular case. Hannibal ([sa]: 1) stated in this regard: "In this design, individuals who are experiencing the phenomenon under investigation are all suitable cases for analysis". Hannibal ([sa]: 1) further added that case study research allow details of the subjective aspect, such as feelings, beliefs, impressions or interpretations.

Yin (1994) and Kingsley and Bozeman (1997) in Sánchez and Chaminade ([sa]: 7) summarised the main advantages of case study as a research method:

- Case studies provide the researcher with a high quantity of data on how and why a process is occurring.
- Although case studies are useful for any stage of the research, they are strongly recommended for the analysis of new phenomenon as well as for theory building.
- Case studies are considered to be a good tool for learning about a specific phenomenon that is to be analysed.

- Case studies are a very flexible method, as it allows the researcher to change the research procedures along the case, as a result of the interaction with the interviewed.

In this study, the instrumental case study was used to provide insight into sustainable development as a new paradigm within the social welfare field and to discover the issues and challenges faced by the social work profession with regard to sustainable development. Furthermore its purpose was to develop guidelines and intervention strategies to address the issues of poverty, underdevelopment and unemployment in a sustainable manner.

1.8.1   Data-collection method

In this research study, qualitative information (data) was collected through a series of focus group discussions and in-depth interviews with social workers from a variety of social service organizations and NGOs, as well as various local and provincial government departments. Gibbs (1997: 1) stated that focus groups are under-used in social research, although they have a long history in market research, and more recently in medical research. Gibbs (1997: 2) contributed to the description of focus group interviews by drawing on the work of a number of authors: "There are many definitions of a focus group in the literature, but features like organized discussion (Kitzinger, 1994), collective activity (Powell et al, 1996), social events (Goss and Leinbach, 1996) and interaction (Kitzinger, 1995) identify the contribution that focus groups make to social research". According to Goebert and Rosenthal (2002: ix) focus groups and qualitative research "zero in on the fuzzy, ill-conceived ideas that deserve to be tossed into the discard pile. Or they indicate which fork in the road makes the most sense". Goebert and Rosenthal (2002: ix) further elaborated that focus groups have more to do with concentrated and creative listening than with numbers and projections.

CERIS ([sa]: 24) added to the discussion and stated that in a focus group interview, participants get to hear each other's responses and to make additional

comments beyond their own original responses as they hear what other people have to say. It is not necessary for the group to reach any kind of consensus, nor is it necessary for people to disagree. The object is to get high quality data in a social context where people can consider their own views in the context of the views of others. CERIS ([sa]: 24) stressed the fact that focus group interviews are different from discussions, problem-solving sessions or decision-making groups. CERIS ([sa]: 24) claimed that focus group interviews provide some quality controls on data collection in that participants tend to provide checks and balances on each other, which weed out false or extreme views. Focus groups allow for in-depth probing and quality solutions.

A focus group can be defined as a carefully planned discussion designed to obtain perceptions, views and experiences of a defined area of interest in a permissive, non-threatening environment. (Compare Bloor, Frankland, Thomas and Robson, 2001: 90; Bless and Higson-Smith, 1995: 113; Gibbs, 1997: 1-2 and Greeff, 2002: 306.) Focus group interviewing is particularly suited for obtaining several perspectives about the same topic. It is conducted with approximately seven to ten people by a skilled interviewer. The discussion is relaxed, comfortable, and often enjoyable for participants as they share ideas and perceptions. Group members influence each other by responding to ideas and comments in the discussion (Krueger, 1988: 18).

Millward (1995: 275) added to the discussion and described the focus group as a discussion-based interview that produces a particular type of qualitative data. This author further described the purpose of the focus group as getting closer to respondents' understanding and perspective on certain issues. It allows for respondents to become aware of their own perspectives when confronted with active disagreements of others and be inspired to analyze their views more intensely than during an individual interview. Millward (1995: 276) drew attention to the fact that focus groups function on two levels, the intra-personal level and intra-group level. The intra-personal level refers to the thoughts, perceptions,

attitudes and values of the individual and the intra-group focus on the communication and interaction with each other in the group. The main purpose of focus group research is to draw upon respondents' attitudes, feelings, beliefs, experiences and reactions in a way in which would not be feasible using other methods. The opinion of Goebert and Rosenthal (2002: 3) was refreshing and valuable: "But focus groups are a qualitative research technique that lets you dig past the measurements. If you want to know how many jelly beans are in the jar, or how many are red, yellow, orange, or pink, then quantitative is your game. If you wonder how each jelly bean tastes, or how the colors may or may not relate to flavor, then qualitative is what you need". According to Goebert and Rosenthal (2002: 4) qualitative research, mainly focus groups, is where a story unfolds, a hypothesis develops, and an explanation emerges. These authors (2002: 212) emphasized that focus groups are useful to diagnose, examine, explore, think about, and directionally understand the probable success of ideas and new thinking. In their opinion the directional advice is the most important end product of focus groups.

Gibbs (1997: 3) made a particularly valuable contribution to the discussion with regard to focus group interviews. This author (1997: 3) postulated the following: "The benefits to participants of focus group research should not be underestimated. The opportunity to be involved in decision making processes (Race et al 1994), to be valued as experts, and to be given a chance to work collaboratively with researchers (Goss & Leinbach 1996) can be empowering for many participants. If a group works well, trust develops and the group may explore solutions to a particular problem as a unit (Kitzinger 1995), rather than as individuals. Not everyone will experience these benefits, as focus groups can also be intimidating at times, especially for inarticulate or shy members".

Goebert and Rosenthal (2002: 48, 72) contributed the following pertaining to focus groups:

27

- "Qualitative research (mainly focus groups) is where a story unfolds, a hypothesis develops, and an explanation emerges.
- What qualitative research does is add depth and context.
- Focus groups don't provide solutions. They help you form a picture that reveals your possibilities and limits.
- A good focus group will yield better questions, not definite answers.
- Don't go in looking for answers. Go in looking for possibilities and hints and clues about your business.
- Dig deeper and you will be rewarded with deeper truths.
- Employ creative techniques to jump-start thinking along different paths.
- You are delving into the consciousness and unearth the underlying reasons for their actions and form reasoned impressions about what's really going on".

Semi-structured interviews (guided interviews) were conducted with social workers and social service organization administrators. Greeff (2002: 302) stated that researchers use semi-structured interviews to gain a detailed picture of a participant's beliefs about, or perceptions or account of, a particular topic. In Greeff's opinion (2002: 302) this method gives the researcher and participant more flexibility. The researcher is able to follow up interesting aspects that emerge during the discussions. Greeff (2002: 302) further emphasized that with semi-structured interviews the researcher will have a set of predetermined questions on an interview schedule but the interview will be guided by the schedule rather than dictated by it. In this research study the researcher prepared an interview schedule that consisted of a set of questions. (See Appendix 1.) It enabled the researcher to pose questions regarding specific issues, while allowing participants to respond with knowledge and experiences from their own working environment, and to add whatever other issues they deemed relevant within the context of the questions raised by the guided interview schedule.

Qualitative research can provide insights into how people perceive services and their beliefs regarding different interventions. The outcome of this research study will hopefully lead to improved efficiency and effectiveness of social work interventions. The data revealed and generated new knowledge and information, leading to more flexible, effective, and acceptable solutions to the challenge of sustainable development for the social work profession.

1.8.2   Data analysis

According to Millward (1995: 288) content analysis comprises both a mechanical and an interpretative component. The mechanical aspect involves physically organizing and subdividing the data into categories while the interpretative component involves determining which categories are meaningful in terms of the questions being asked. Millward stated that the mechanical and interpretative are inextricably linked in a cycling back and forth between the transcripts and the more conceptual process of developing meaningful coding schemes.

Underlying the qualitative method is the assumption that research is based on inductive forms of logic and categories of interest emerge from informants or subjects, rather than being identified by the researcher. The goal is to uncover and discover patterns or theories that help explain a phenomenon of interest. CERIS ([sa]: 29) stated that data from qualitative methods are raw descriptive information including: direct observational descriptions of activities, behaviours, actions and the full-range of human interactions that can be part of case experiences; written notes including open-ended written responses to questionnaires, program records, data "in the head" – drawn from the researcher's personal research, and literature-reading experiences. Oliver and Linkon (2003: 1) stressed that in qualitative studies there is a need for a detailed view of the situation. Data analysis means the categorizing, ordering, manipulating and summarizing of data to obtain answers to research questions. According to De Vos, Fouché and Venter (2002: 223) the purpose of analysis is

thus to reduce data to an intelligible and interpretable form so that the relations of research problems can be studied, tested and conclusions drawn. The process of data analysis in this study was as follows:

- Focus groups were conducted and the audiotapes of the discussions were transcribed.
- The text was read through as a whole and patterns/ themes were noted that were recurring in the data.
- The data was re-read.
- A number of key themes/categories emerged from the data.

1.9 PILOT STUDY

Strydom (2002: 210) emphasized that in order to undertake scientific research on a specific problem the researcher should have thorough background knowledge with regard to the selected topic or research problem. The pilot study forms an integral part of the research process. Its function is the exact formulation of the research problem, and a tentative planning of the modus operandi and range of the investigation. (Compare Barrett, 1995: 27.) Strydom (2002: 211) suggested a broad outline of the pilot study that commences with a literature study. Thereafter, the experiences of experts are gathered, and subsequently the researcher should obtain an overview of the field of investigation and conclude with a thorough study of a few cases.

The researcher realized that apart from a literature study and interviews with experts, a picture of the real practical situation where the prospective investigation was executed had to be obtained. Strydom (2002: 213) emphasized the special importance of preliminary exploratory studies in order to plan the research project in a practical way. Strydom (2002: 214) further stated that the researcher should undertake a thorough study on a small scale of the real total community where the investigation would take place. Researchers could in this way become aware of possible unforeseen problems, which might emerge during

the main investigation. Macleod (in Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 1999: 298-299) was of the opinion that pilot studies are used to identify possible problems with proposed research, using a small sample of respondents before the main study is conducted. She continued this discussion by stating that a way of conducting the pilot study is more "free range" in style. Open-ended questions are asked and participants' opinions about the study are used to improve the research. This type of pilot study is useful in exploring the potential issues pertinent to the study prior to a more structured format being put into place. The rationale of a pilot study is to save time and money in the main study. It allows space for revision, reworking, complete overhaul or, potentially abandonment of the project.

Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2001: 4) recognized that pilot studies might also have a number of limitations. These include the possibility of making inaccurate predictions or assumptions on the basis of pilot data and problems arising from contamination where data from the pilot study are included in the main results. These authors (2001: 4) further emphasized the contamination of data that could occur where participants from the pilot study are included in the main study and "new" data are collected from such participants. Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2001: 6) concluded their discussion of pilot studies by stating how important the processes and outcomes from both successful and failed pilot studies are to other researchers. These authors (2001: 6) stated in this regard: "This is particularly important because pilot studies can be time-consuming, frustrating, and fraught with unanticipated problems, but it is better to deal with them before investing a great deal of time, money, and effort in the full study".

1.9.1   Pilot testing of data-gathering instrument

The researcher invited participants, who were not part of the main study, for a discussion with the view to testing their ideas and opinions regarding this research study, as well as testing the questions contained in the interview schedule. This was done to enable the researcher to reformulate the questions, if

31

necessary. The wording and order of the questions contained in the interview schedule were of particular significance to the researcher to prevent any misconception when collecting data during the main study. Logistical and practical issues with regard to the venue and gaining access to the participants were finalized. Furthermore, the researcher was able to develop adequate technical skills for recording the interviews.

1.9.2 Feasibility of the study

Rubin and Babbie (1993: 81) drew attention to the importance of the feasibility of a research study. Research problems should not be too narrow so that they are not worth doing, or too grandiose that they are not feasible. In Strydom's (2002: 213) opinion preliminary exploratory studies are especially important with a view to the practical planning of the research project, e.g. the transport, finance and time factors. For this research study, the researcher was occupied for many weeks compiling an extensive list of all welfare and non-governmental organizations in and around the Pretoria area. This task was necessary to ascertain the number of organizations doing developmental work, job creation and community development. This proved to be a rather costly exercise because of the number of telephone calls, electronic mail and faxed messages.

As previously mentioned the researcher invited a selected number of participants to participate in a pilot test for the focus group interview. Written permission and co-operation from organizations were obtained by contacting the management of the various organizations, clarifying the nature of the research study and the importance of securing the participation of social workers at all levels. (See Appendix 2.) Organizations were selected on grounds of their accessibility that simplified logistics for travelling and conducting the focus group interviews.

1.9.3 Literature study

Fouché and Delport (2002: 127) emphasized that a review of literature is aimed at contributing towards a clearer understanding of the nature and meaning of the problem that has been identified. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995: 23) and Berg (1995: 256) highlighted the following functions of a literature review:

- It gives a comprehensive review of previous work on the specific topic considered in the report.
- It describes to the reader the state of existing literature, limitations and research directions.
- It allows the researcher to challenge previously accepted ideas or findings, or improve the use of theory or method.
- It serves as a kind of bibliographic index and guides the reader.
- It provides a solid foundation for a researcher's report.
- It allows the researcher to study the advantages and disadvantages of the research methods used by others.
- It allows the researcher to discover connections, analogies or other relations between different research results by comparing various investigations.

The researcher supported this overview of the functions of a literature study and consulted a variety of literature sources relevant to this study. It was essential that researcher consulted sources beyond the literature of social work, since societal problems do not confine themselves neatly to the various human and social science disciplines. Literature from the fields of business and economics, agriculture, law, education, theology, psychology, gender studies, geography and natural sciences were all relevant for this research study. A literature study of the general fields as well as the focused subject was therefore done.

1.9.4 Consultation with experts

Strydom (1998: 180) recommended that a literature study background as well as the researcher's own ideas and basic knowledge on the specific research subject

should be in place before experts are approached. The researcher gained insight and information from a wide variety of experts and professionals from different disciplines over the course of the research period. Researcher selected experts from different organizations, which operated on a national, provincial and regional basis, who contributed value to the study in view of their experience, knowledge and skills.

1.10   THE RESEARCH POPULATION, SAMPLE AND SAMPLING METHOD

Bless and Higson-Smith (1995: 87) described a well-defined population as the set of elements that the research focuses upon and to which the results obtained by testing the sample should be generalized. Babbie (1989: 170) stated that the study population is the sum total of elements from which the sample is selected. Grinnell and Williams (1990: 118) described the concept "population" as "the totality of persons or objects with which the study is concerned". (Compare Fife-Schaw, 1995: 338.) The population in this respect was all social workers in and around the Pretoria area that did development work.

It was not feasible to utilize the whole social work community; therefore a sample was selected from different social work organizations and NGOs, in and around the Pretoria area.

1.10.1   Sample and sampling method

Grinnell and Williams (1990: 118) defined sampling as a process of selecting people to take part in a research study, and units or people picked out are samples. The ideal situation is to study the entire population, to give more weight to the findings. It is, however, not possible to study the entire population and the researcher has to settle for a sample. Arkava and Lane (in Strydom and Venter, 2002: 199) stated that a sample comprises the elements of the population

considered for actual inclusion in the study. The sample is included in an effort to understand the population from which it was drawn, therefore not describing the sample as an end in itself, but as a means to understanding facets of the population (Strydom and Venter, 2002: 199).

The sampling technique for this research study was purposive sampling. Babbie (1989: 207) stated that purposive sampling is a type of non-probability sampling method in which the researcher uses his or her own judgment in the selection of sample members. It is sometimes called a judgmental sample. Bailey (1982: 99) added to this by concluding that in purposive or judgmental sampling the investigator does not necessarily have a quota to fill from within various strata, as in quota sampling, but neither does he or she just pick the nearest warm bodies, as in convenience sampling. Rather, the researcher uses own judgment about which respondents to choose, and picks only those who best meet the purposes of the study.

According to Strydom and Venter (2002: 207) with this type of sampling method, the sample is composed of elements, which contain the most characteristic, representative or typical attributes of the population. Kelly (1999: 388) stated with regard to the constitution of a focus group, that it is typically a group of people who share a similar type of experience. CERIS ([sa]: 30) stated that the power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for study in depth. Information-rich cases are those from which the researcher can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research. CERIS ([sa]: 30) postulated that when using qualitative methods, the samples are relatively small, thus the heterogeneity might be considered problematic, because individual cases are so different from each other. CERIS ([sa]: 30) stated the following in this regard: "Purposive sampling turns that apparent weakness into strength by applying the following logic: any common patterns that emerge from great variation are of particular interest and value in capturing the

core experiences and central, shared aspects or impacts, as well as in outlining the range of differences".

For the purpose of this research study, the researcher consulted with the management of various social service organizations and NGOs in and around the Pretoria area, as well as various local and provincial government departments, to assist researcher in identifying those social workers meeting the following criteria: In their working experience involved in one or more of the following:

- community development,
- the development of social networks,
- income-generating projects and small business development, and
- human development programmes, namely skills development and adult basic education.

The purposive sampling method in this research study was based on the aforementioned criteria and on the researcher's judgement regarding the characteristics of a representative population.

1.11   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Bailey (1982: 427) defined ethical conduct, according to Webster's Dictionary, as conforming to accepted professional practices. Strydom (2002: 63) provided the following comprehensive definition: "Ethics is a set of moral principles that are suggested by an individual or group, are subsequently widely accepted, and offer rules and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students". According to Hayes (2000: 53) modern ethical guidelines recognize the rights of the research participant as an autonomous active individual who has chosen to participate in the study, and whose participation gives them certain rights – for example, the right to be fully informed

about the study, the right to withdraw if they so choose, and the right to make informed choices. Strydom (2002: 62) further stated that ethical issues for social researchers are pervasive and complex, since data should never be obtained at the expense of human beings. It is therefore very important for the researcher to be familiar with ethical principles such as obtaining the participant's informed consent, designing the study in an ethical manner and ensuring that the research findings would be reported in an honest way.

Gibbs (1997: 5) stressed that the ethical considerations for focus groups, as was the case for this research study, are the same as for most other methods of social research. Gibbs (1997: 5) made it clear that when selecting and involving participants, researchers must ensure that full information about the purpose and uses of participants' contributions is given. Participants in this research study were encouraged to keep confidential whatever came under discussion during the focus group interviews. The following ethical principles received particular attention in this research study:

- *Informed consent* according to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999: 479) and Strydom (2002: 65) is the process of seeking the explicit and uncoerced agreement from a subject to participate in a research project, based on their full understanding of the procedures involved and their likely efforts. For example, participants were made aware of the use of audio-recording devices and were verbally informed about this before every focus group discussion. Gaining informed consent is essential for all sorts of research. It has to reflect an awareness of what the research is all about and the level of commitment required from participants. Researcher obtained informed consent from all the organizations and the participants for the focus group discussions. (See Appendix 3.)

- *Confidentiality* implies an undertaking by the researcher to protect the anonymity of the research participants. (Compare Strydom, 2002: 67.) Few people would willingly express their most private details, opinions and emotions in public knowing that their names would be published. Thus,

confidentiality is a vital requirement for credible research (Oka and Shaw, 2000: 15). In this research study participants were given the assurance that personal names, and the identity of the social service providers would not be mentioned in the research report.

- *A confidentiality agreement* outlines all possible information on the voluntary participation of the respondent and the liberty to withdraw from the study at any time. Researcher prepared confidentiality agreements for all participants (those participating during the pilot project and the main study). The researcher and each individual participant signed these documents. (See Appendix 3.)

- *Reporting results:* Results of studies should be published with careful attention to the rights of participants. Care should be taken to protect the identities of individuals and groups, especially if anonymity was guaranteed in the consent agreement (Terre Blance and Durrheim, 1999: 70). Strydom (2002: 72) emphasized that an ethical obligation rests on the researcher to ensure at all times that the investigation proceeds correctly and that no one is deceived by the findings. In this study, research findings will be made available to respondents as a form of recognition and gratitude for their participation in the research project.

1.12   DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

The following key concepts were relevant for this research study:

Sustainable development

In coming to understand sustainable development, the starting point for most people is the definition prepared by the World Commission on Environment and Development, the Brundtland Commission, (World Development Report, 2003: 14 and Ife, 1995: 45): *"Sustainable development is development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs".*

To be sustainable, development must improve economic efficiency, protect and restore ecological systems, and enhance the well-being of all people. Sustainable development addresses three major elements: environment, economy and community. The different elements of development are brought together and stress the interconnectedness of each (they are integrally linked to each other and require a balanced approach). Sustainable development indicators measure sustainability or sustainable development performance: i.e. environmental, economic and social indicators. The concept of sustainable development goes beyond linking environmental considerations to economic growth. Sustainable development encompasses vital issues such as human development, social and economic justice, and advancement of democracy. In applying sustainable development principles the focus is on social and cultural change without which sustainable development is unattainable. The links between poverty and environment arise in terms of three vitally important dimensions of poverty reduction, i.e. livelihoods, health, and vulnerability. The poor are strongly dependent on natural resources for their livelihoods (Munro, 1995: 28, MacDonald, 1998; Fakir, 2002: 14).

For the purpose of this research study, sustainable development implies a multi-sectoral, holistic approach whereby the prevailing conditions of communities, groups and the individual are improved upon, utilizing economic, human and environmental resources in order to attain an adequate degree of health and well-being, economic security and empowerment, while maintaining the integrity of the ecological systems on which all life and production depends. Social work is closely interlinked with all of these issues.

Social work

"The social work profession promotes social change, problem solving in human relationships and the empowerment and liberation of people to enhance well-being. Utilizing theories of human behaviour and social systems, social work

intervenes at the points where people interact with their environments. Principles of human rights and social justice are fundamental to social work" (International Federation of Social Workers, 2000).

This new definition of social work, adopted by the International Federation of Social Workers, at the IFSW General Meeting in Montréal, Canada (July 2000) and in June 2001 by the International Association of Schools of Social Work (IASSW), stressed the importance of social work addressing the barriers, inequities and injustices that exist in society. The holistic focus of social work is universal, but the priorities of social work practice will vary from country to country from time to time depending on cultural, historical, and socio-economic conditions.

In this research study, the researcher focused on the role of the social work profession in addressing those barriers and difficulties preventing communities, groups and individuals from participating in all aspects of community life, in particular in relation to people who are unemployed, in poverty and homeless. Widespread economic insecurity and increasing vulnerability are obstacles to achieving sustainable development.

Social work intervention strategies

Intervention is defined as "the professional behaviour of a social worker to bring about change in the person-environment situation to achieve the objectives of the agreement of cooperation (contract) which has been entered into with the client" (New Dictionary of Social Work, 1995: 35).

Weyers (1991: 127) referred to the opinions of diverse authors in defining "strategy" as "a predetermined comprehensive course to be implemented in action, to attain a specific aim". It is furthermore stated that the formulation of a strategy is a thought process that has to be completed by the social worker before actions are executed. Strategies are always aimed at achieving the ultimate objective, aim, destination or result, which is to be reached through

bringing about change in people and/or their circumstances. (Compare Weyers, 1991: 127.) Intervention strategies could be directed at any one or at all levels, these being micro, mezzo and macro levels depending on the nature of problems experienced by the client population (Gray, 1998: 16; Sturgeon, 1998: 31). For the purpose of this research study intervention strategies imply economic restructuring, preventative educational campaigns, skills development and the strengthening of community resources.

In summary, intervention strategies with an ecological approach where the emphasis is on transactions between people and environment, stressing the importance of linking social development and economic objectives, would be most suited to alleviating poverty. Within a sustainable development paradigm a comprehensive and integrated socio-economic strategy is advocated.

1.13   CONTENTS OF THE RESEARCH REPORT

The contents of this research report are divided into six chapters. The outline of these chapters is as follows:

Chapter One provides a general introduction and orientation to the study.

Chapter Two conceptualizes and contextualizes the concept "sustainable development".

Chapter Three discusses the phenomena of underdevelopment, poverty and unemployment.

Chapter Four discusses social work within the context of the sustainable development paradigm.

Chapter Five reflects the findings and interpretation of the empirical study.

Chapter Six presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT PARADIGM

2.1 INTRODUCTION

> "Hence, sustainable development is more than a green buzz word.
> It is central to our future" (Sunter, 1998: 83).

Sustainable development, sustainable practices and sustaining economic, social and environmental policies have become common expressions of the present time. Sustainability, at least as a concept, has permeated most spheres of life, not solely because it is a political requirement but because it clearly resonates with something deep within human beings, even though many have a poor understanding of what it is. The concept of sustainable development has received much attention and raised a great deal of controversy. However, a commonly accepted view is that it embodies, as its main ethos, the premise that development must meet the needs of present generations without compromising the capability of future generations (Hunter, 1997: 235; Taylor, 1998: 10; Moosa, 2002: 3; Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 2001a: 2).

Sustainable development is jeopardized by a vast number of problems that are a common concern of all societies, namely: mass poverty, environmental degradation and climate change, migratory movements, population growth, the spreading of contagious diseases, uncontrolled nuclear potentials, aggressive religious fundamentalism, ethnic fragmentation, problems of national debt and international trade, drug trafficking and international crime. The effect of global problems is that the development and progress of societies become

interdependent. Sustainable development serves to globally secure humanity's future. In this endeavour, all countries must contribute at the local, regional, national and international levels, and must establish coherence among all fields of policy that is oriented towards this global sustainability (Burger, 1997: 4).

Sustainable development is not an easy endeavour, it posits that economic vitality, and social equity and environmental protection must be addressed comprehensively. (Compare Banerjee, 2003: 144.) Sustainable development in South Africa cannot be considered in isolation from sustainable development in other countries and in particular in Africa. Narayan and Petesch (2002: 13) were very perceptive when they remarked: "Poverty anywhere is a problem for people everywhere". The lifestyles, policies and practices of people in South Africa have an impact on the rest of the world. All people have a moral duty to help the poorest people in the world, as there is a move towards a new global society. Allowing international inequalities and environmental degradation to grow could jeopardize social stability and sustainable development worldwide. Franklin D. Roosevelt, President of the United States from 1933 to 1945 stated in 1937: "The test of our progress is not whether we add more to the abundance of those who have much, it is whether we provide enough for those who have too little" (in Halweil, 1998: 2). A substantial part of sustainable development is finding a common vision of how people would like their future to be.

The Novartis Foundation for Sustainable Development (1999: 1) presented the following view: "Sustainable development seems to be something like motherhood and apple pie – everyone finds it a good thing, there is almost universal appreciation. At first sight, this is highly positive, as this could signal the entering of a holistic and responsible thinking into the world of politics and society. But as it often happens with other catch phrases that suddenly come into vogue, like "empowerment" and "participation", it might not be more than rhetoric which fails to translate into practice, this all the more so because sustainable development can be given several different interpretations".

While the term "sustainable development" is now relatively common, the substantive content of the concept is still somewhat evasive. Sustainable development is open to a variety of interpretations. (Compare Burger, 1997: 5 and Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR), 2002: 7.) Quite often the interests of those identifying themselves with the concept guide the interpretation. The differences in perception of the term "sustainable development" have often led to different actions for the development of natural resources and the environment. Scientists, economists, sociologists and politicians all have their respective understanding of the term.

Taylor (1998: 9) emphasized that it is apparent that the concept of sustainable development will be a prevailing force over the coming decades. Swarts (1998: 1) agreed with this view and expressed the opinion that it is evident, that not only are environment and development interrelated, but they are also intertwined with political, economic and societal issues on a local, national and a global scale. The ultimate challenge will be to ensure sufficient means and resources are employed to fulfil the promise of sustainability. It is important to note that the term sustainable development implies intentional progress because "sustainable" implies a wish to sustain something.

From the viewpoint of sustainable development as a relevant concept and approach to address social, political and economic development, this chapter focuses attention on the theoretical conceptualization of the concept sustainable development and sustainable development as an interdisciplinary science. Secondly, a brief history concerning the way in which the term "sustainable development" and its conventional interpretations have entered the development discourse will be discussed.

2.2 DEFINING SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Sustainable development is an often-discussed topic by politicians, economists, anthropologists, environmental scientists and development planners and much has been written about it. The same can be said about definitions of sustainable development. Burger (1997: 5) was of the opinion that the vision of sustainable development is frequently criticized as being too vague, or is even viewed as an empty phrase. According to Burger this is because sustainable development does not exactly determine the course that development in the spheres of the economy, the environment and society should take. In his opinion this criticism is unfounded, the reason being, that a deterministic concept of sustainable development is neither possible nor purposeful. Burger (1997: 5) emphasized the following: "...a vision can, even if it is not deterministic, nonetheless most certainly guide the direction of future action".

Gladwin, Kennelly and Krause (in Banerjee, 2003: 153) in a content analysis of different definitions of sustainable development, identified several themes, including human development, inclusiveness (of ecological, economic, political, technological, and social systems), connectivity (of sociopolitical, economic, and environmental goals), equity (fair distribution of resources and property rights), prudence (avoiding irreversibility and recognizing carrying capacities), and security (achieving a safe, healthy, and high quality of life). Many of these definitions though, have been vague, inadequately capturing the environmental imperative to cease exhausting natural resources. Labonté (in Bloem, Biswas and Adhikari, 1996: 142) in an interesting essay on this subject, used the term "econology", a neologism that combined economy and ecology. Econology is the science, or rules, of managing the planet, and the human social systems that depend on the planet's resources. This would refer to the principles of sustainable development. Using this term, Labonté tried to explain that ecology and economy could not be seen as separate systems.

46

Banerjee (2003: 158) was of the opinion that sustainable development attempted to reconcile opposing interests and aims to maximize economic and environmental benefits simultaneously. He stated that this is a contradiction in terms, because sustainability and development are based on very different and often incompatible assumptions. To sustain means to support from below, to supply with nourishment; it is about care and concern, a concept that is far removed from development. Banerjee (2003: 158) postulated that development is an act of control, often a program of violence, organized and managed by nation states, international institutions, and business corporations operating under the tenets of modern Western science.

Bloem, *et al*. (1996: 142) on the other hand, were very clear in their opinion, when these authors stated that sustainable development is a matter of balancing environmental protection with sustainable growth. Engel (in DuBose, 1997: 2), in a comprehensive explanation of the concept "sustainable development", contributed the following: " 'Sustainable', by definition, means not only indefinitely prolonged, but nourishing for the self-actualizing of persons and communities. The word 'development' need not be restricted to economic activity, much less to the kind of economic activity that now dominates the world, but can mean the evolution, unfolding, growth, and fulfilment of any and all aspects of life. Thus 'sustainable development', in the broadest sense, may be defined as the kind of human activity that nourishes and perpetuates the historical fulfilment of the whole community of life on Earth".

In the opinion of Lélé (1991: 607) and Lalumière (2001: 2) sustainability and sustainable development were merely catchphrases in the media and international policy for a number of decades. As a concept sustainability has captured people's imaginations and aspirations. Unfortunately, as a tangible and identifiable goal it has for many remained elusive. (Compare Fricker, 1998: 4; Hoff, 1998: 11 and Lélé, 1991: 607.) Solow (in Lalumière, 2001: 1) had the following comment to make: "Sustainability is an essentially vague concept, and

it would be wrong to think of it as being precise, or even capable of being precise." He indicated it to be: "at best, a general guide to policies that have to do with investment, conservation and resource use. And we shouldn't pretend that it is anything other than that." Banerjee (2003: 144) took up this argument and stated the following: "The concept sustainable development has emerged in recent years in an effort to address environmental problems caused by economic growth. There are several different interpretations of sustainable development, but its broad aim is to describe a process of economic growth without environmental destruction. Exactly what is being sustained (economic growth or the global ecosystem, or both) is currently at the root of several debates, although many scholars argue that the apparent reconciliation of economic growth and the environment is simply a green sleight-of-hand that fails to address genuine environmental problems". (Compare Anand and Sen, 1994: 8.)

Teferra ([sa]: 1) was of the opinion that in spite of the fact that many conferences and summits have been held on the theme of sustainable development in an effort to narrow the gap and eliminate disparities of understandings, it still remains a widely debatable concept. (Compare Neefjes, 2000: 201.) It means different things under different circumstances encompassing a wide range of concepts from environmental security to community participation, social justice and democratic governance. For many people it started to mean almost anything they want it to mean. The very ambiguity, not to say contradiction of the term allows interests from many walks of life to debate it and to seek to achieve it. It is beginning to adopt the mantle of a new renaissance idea that covers the whole human endeavour and planetary survival.

Lélé (1991: 607) maintained that to some extent, the value of the phrase lies in its broad vagueness. It allows people with hitherto irreconcilable positions in the environment-development debate to search for common ground without appearing to compromise their positions. There are others like Solow (in Lalumière, 2001) and Banerjee (2003) who had similar views. Too many

economists, political scientists, scenario planners and journalists from different perspectives have in opposition to this view, been able to pinpoint those basic elements and approaches crucial for sustainable development. (Compare Davis, 1991; Kinsley, 2001 and Trzyna, 1995.)

It is now accepted that although sustainable development had its origins in the environmental sector, discussions about the concept underwent a significant change during the last decade, and now it brings together the different elements of development: social, economic and environmental and stresses the interconnectedness of each. (Compare Hart, 1998e, 1; Thin, 2002: 1; Novartis Foundation for Sustainable Development, 1999; Boersema and Bertels, 2000: 92.) Sustainability however is more than just the interconnectedness of the economy, society and the environment. For development to be sustainable, it must continue, or its benefits must be maintained, indefinitely. This means that there must be nothing inherent in the process or activity concerned, or in the circumstances in which it takes place, that would limit the time it can endure. The process or activity must be worthwhile and it must meet social and economic objectives. To characterize an activity as sustainable, or refer to sustainability, is to predict the future – an activity that is risky at best. In this regard it becomes evident that development is any and all kinds of activities or processes that increase the capacity of people or the environment to meet human needs and improve the quality of life. The product of such development is people who are healthy, well-nourished, clothed and housed; engaged in productive work for which they are well-trained; and are able to enjoy the leisure and recreation all people need. Thus development includes not only the extraction and processing of resources, the establishment of infrastructure, the buying and selling of products, but also of equal importance, activities such as health care, social security, education, nature conservation, and supporting the arts. Dixon and Pretorius (2002: 3) emphasized the perspective that sustainable development is a complex of activities, some with social, some with economic resources, some on intellectual resources, all enabling people to reach their full potential and

enjoy a productive, satisfying life. (Compare Dalal-Clayton and Bass, 1995; Dubois, Mahieu and Poussard, 2002: 12.) It is a continuous process, through and throughout which experience in managing complex systems is accumulated, assessed, and applied. All stakeholders are forced to look at various dimensions of a situation, in other words, at the total picture over a long term. (Compare Munro, 1995: 28; OECD, 2001b: 5-8.) Fricker (1998: 2) was of the opinion that sustainability therefore, may be "something more grand and noble, a dynamic, a state of collective grace, and a facet of Gaia, even of Spirit". Rather than ask how humanity can measure sustainability, it may be more appropriate to ask how humanity measures up to sustainability.

The Secretary-General of the United Nations, Kofi Annan, presented the following statement during a lecture at the London School of Economics and Political Science on the 25th February 2002: "Far from being a burden, sustainable development is an exceptional opportunity – economically, to build markets and create jobs; socially, to bring people in from the margins; and politically, to reduce tensions over resources that could lead to violence and to give every man and woman a voice, and a choice, in deciding their own future".

Sustainable development is thus seen as a process of holistic transformation of the society for self-reliance and the well-being of all. Hoff (1998: 17) contributed to this discussion and postulated that sustainable development is a process derived from a new vision of a society based in humanistic values, democratic politics, respect for the natural world, and a harmonization of wealth-generation goals with human welfare and socio-cultural goals. It has become evident that at all levels; politicians, administrators, managers and all members of society should realize that economic development, social development and environmental protection are interdependent and mutually reinforcing components of sustainable development. This should serve as the framework for all efforts to achieve a higher quality of life for all people. Political and social objectives are integral components of strategies of sustainable development. The

50

process involves questioning and changing the ways in which society deals with its natural and economic resources and the ways in which individuals in society deal with each other. It follows from the above discussion that sustainable development is primarily a political and social process. (Compare Burger, 1997:1.)

It is evident from the literature that there may be as many definitions of sustainable development and sustainability as there are different sectors within societies trying to define it. It is clear though that most of the definitions emphasised that sustainable development has to do with:

❑ Living within the natural resource limits.

❑ Understanding the connections and relatedness between economy, society and the environment, and

❑ Equitable distribution of resources and opportunities (Hart, 1998f: 1).

Dixon and Pretorius (2002: 3) contributed to this perspective and in their opinion the core objective of sustainable development is to optimize human welfare. Furthermore, sustainable development encompasses income and material consumption, the availability and accessibility of education and health facilities, equality of opportunity and human rights.

2.3 THE SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT TIMELINE

The concept "sustainable development" did not make an appearance overnight. There have been a number of key landmarks in its development.

1962

In 1962 Rachel Carson's *Silent Spring* was published, a book many consider a turning point in understanding the interconnections between the environment, economy and social well-being, and the catalyst for worldwide acknowledgement

of environmental problems. It brought together research on toxicology, ecology and epidemiology to suggest that agricultural pesticides were building to catastrophic levels. These toxic substances were found to be persistent in the environment and to accumulate in the body tissues of mammals and birds. It shattered the assumption that the environment had an infinite capacity to absorb pollutants. In the decades that have followed, many milestones have marked the journey toward sustainable development (Banerjee, 2003: 161 and International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD), 2002: 1). Banerjee (2003: 144) emphasized this perspective quite clearly by stating the following: "Progress has come at a price: global warming, ozone depletion, loss of biodiversity, soil erosion, air and water pollution are all global problems with wide-ranging impacts on human populations, impacts that are significantly more harmful for the rural poor in Third World countries, and for people who derive their sustenance from the land".

1963

The International Biological programme was initiated by nations around the world. This ten-tear study analyzed environmental damage and the biological and ecological mechanisms through which it occurs. In creating a large body of data, it laid the foundation for a science-based environmentalism (IISD, 2002: 1).

1968

Paul Ehrlich published "Population Bomb" on the connection between human population, resource exploitation and the environment (IISD, 2002: 1; Sagoff, 2000: 117).

1972

René Dubos and Barbara Ward wrote "Only One Earth". The book sounded an urgent alarm about the impact of human activity on the biosphere but also expressed optimism that a shared concern for the future of the planet could lead humankind to create a common future (IISD, 2002: 1).

Dahl (2001: 1) stated that the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment, held in Stockholm in 1972, under the leadership of Maurice Strong, was the first major discussion of environmental issues at the global level. The agenda touched on virtually all aspects of natural resource use, but the focus was primarily on the threat to the natural environment posed by economic growth and industrial pollution. The conference led to the establishment of numerous national environmental protection agencies and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP). Thirty-six European economists and scientists established the Club of Rome, led by Italian industrialist Aurrelio Peccei and Scottish scientist Alexander King. Its goal was to pursue a holistic understanding of and solutions to the "world problematique". It commissioned a study of global proportions to model and analyze the dynamic interactions between industrial production, population, environmental damage, food consumption and natural resource usage. According to Elkington and Trisoglio (1995: 3) this study, "Limits to Growth", became an extremely controversial report. It predicted dire consequences if growth continued without consideration for environmental concerns. Northern countries criticized the report for not including technological solutions while Southern countries were incensed because it advocated abandonment of economic development. The debate that followed this publication heightened the awareness of the interconnections between several well-known global problems. (Compare IISD, 2002.)

In the following years, it became increasingly apparent that economic development and the environment condition, endangered each other in a diverse

and global fashion. Environmental concepts on the one hand and economic and social development concepts on the other should not be understood as alternatives. What should happen is that the concepts of sparing use of natural resources within the limits of their regenerative capacity, meaning, ecological sustainability – need to be put in harmony with the concepts of economic and social development. It was for this new, no longer one-dimensional but now three-dimensional notion of development that the term "sustainable development" was coined (Burger, 1997: 2). Elkington and Trisoglio (1995: 2) stated that Barbara Ward, a founder of the International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED), is the person generally recognized as coining the phrase, "sustainable development", and introducing it at the 1972 UN Stockholm Conference on the Human Environment. While the World Conservation Strategy first promoted the term "sustainable development", several key events contributed to the development of the concept. (Compare CSIR, 2002: 8.)

1974

The United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP) and the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, held a seminar on Patterns of Resource Use, Environment and Development Strategies. This conference strengthened the international debate on the relationship between economic growth and the natural resource base (CSIR, 2002: 8).

1976

The first Habitat Conference took place in Vancouver, Canada in 1976. The Vancouver Conference focused on problems of urban and rural human settlements and the problems being faced due to an increase in the population (IISD, 2002: 1). The Vancouver Declaration on Human Settlements, 1976 issued the following declaration: "Human settlements mean the totality of the human

community – whether city, town or village – with all the social, material, organizational, spiritual and cultural elements that sustain it" (CSIR, 2002: 12). The sustainability of settlements is a multidimensional problem, dealing with spatial characteristics, geographical location, settlement dimensions, environmental conditions, economic viability, institutional ability and structure, human development, social relationships, and values and aspirations. Sustainable human settlements are those cities, towns, villages and their communities which:

- enable societies to live in a manner that supports the state of sustainability and the principles of sustainable development, and
- have institutional, social and economic systems that will ensure the continued existence of those settlements (CSIR, 2002: 13).

The Habitat Agenda offered, within a framework of goals, principles and commitments, a positive vision of sustainable human settlements where all people have adequate shelter, a healthy and safe environment, basic services, and productive employment.

1980

The International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN), the World Wildlife Fund (WWF) and the United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP), produced the World Conservation Strategy. This is recognized as the first global attempt to link environment and development. The phrase "sustainable development" was brought into the international debate. According to Atkinson (2000: 2) the International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) – through the World Conservation Strategy of 1980 – brought the term "sustainable development" into the development discourse. Atkinson (2000: 2) stated that the concern of the IUCN was the evident deterioration of the ecological and resource base that was a consequence of "conventional" approaches to development. Their focus was on the physical environment rather than on showing a concern for the human side of achieving sustainable

development and the potential social impacts of the management regimes that might be employed to achieve sustainable development in the way they understood it. In the report, the section "Towards Sustainable Development" identified the main agents of habitat destruction as poverty, population pressure, social inequity and the terms of trade. It called for a new international development strategy with aims of redressing inequities, achieving a more dynamic and stable world economy, stimulating economic growth and countering the worst impacts of poverty. (Compare IISD, 2002: 2.)

The United Nations Secretary General called for an independent commission to investigate the rate and irreversibility with which the earth's environmental resources were being used. Between 1983 and 1986, the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) studied and debated these issues and held public hearings. The Norwegian Prime Minister Gro Harlem Brundtland, chaired the commission. The commission, after a number of years, produced a report on social, environmental, economic and cultural issues. (Compare IISD, 2000.)

1987

According to McNeill (2000: 10) the Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development (the Brundtland Report), published in 1987, put the term "sustainable development" on the map. The World Commission on Environment and Development's work led to the publishing of the report "Our Common Future", which set out a global agenda for action and called for changes in the perceptions of individuals, nations and institutions. The opening paragraph of this report starts with the following proposition: "*In the middle of the 20th century, we saw our planet from space for the first time. Historians may eventually find that this vision had a greater impact on thought than did the Copernican revolution of the 16th century, which upset the human self-image by revealing that the earth is not the center of the universe. From space, we saw a*

small and fragile ball dominated not by human activity and edifice, but by a pattern of clouds, oceans, greenery, and soils. Humanity's inability to fit its doings into that pattern is changing planetary systems, fundamentally. Many such changes are accompanied by life-threatening hazards. This new reality, from which there is no escape, must be recognized – and managed" (Warburton, 1998).

The definition of sustainable development used in the report, namely – "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" – is now widely used and accepted. This definition is often referred to as the Brundtland definition, named after Gro Harlem Brundtland who was, at the time chairman of the World Commission on Environment and Development and Prime Minister of Norway (McNeill, 2000: 11). The IISD and The Earth Council [sa], stated that this definition contains within it two key concepts:

- The concept of "needs", in particular the essential needs of the world's poor, to which overriding priority should be given; and
- The idea of limitations imposed by the state of technology and social organization on the environment's ability to meet present and future needs. (Compare McNeill, 2000: 11.)

Dalal-Clayton and Bass (1995: 3) provided a comprehensive explanation of this definition, and according to these authors, a commitment to meet the needs of present and future generations has various implications. These authors wrote that "meeting the needs of the present" means satisfying:

- Economic needs – including access to an adequate livelihood or productive assets; also economic security when unemployed, ill, disabled or otherwise unable to secure a livelihood.
- Social, cultural and health needs – including a shelter which is healthy, safe, affordable and secure, within a neighbourhood with provision for piped water, drainage, transport, health care, education and child development, and

protection from environmental hazards. Services must meet specific needs of children and of adults responsible for children (mostly women). Achieving this implies a more equitable distribution of income between nations and, in most cases, within nations.

❑ Political needs – including freedom to participate in national and local politics and in decisions regarding management and development of one's home and neighbourhood, within a broader framework which ensures respect for civil and political rights and the implementation of environmental legislation.

Meeting such needs "without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" means:

❑ Minimising use or waste of non-renewable resources – including minimising the consumption of fossil fuels and substituting with renewable sources where feasible. Also, minimising the waste of scarce mineral resources (reduce use, re-use, recycle, reclaim).

❑ Sustainable use of renewable resources – including using freshwater, soils and forests in ways that ensure a natural rate of recharge.

❑ Keeping within the absorptive capacity of local and global sinks for wastes – including the capacity of rivers to break down biodegradable wastes as well as the capacity of global environmental systems, such as climate, to absorb greenhouse gases.

The report set out the concept of "sustainable development", as an integrated approach to policy- and decision-making in which environmental protection and long-term economic growth is seen as complementary and mutually dependent. (Compare Fricker, 1998; Atkinson, 2000.) According to the report sustainable development requires:

▪ a political system securing citizen participation in decision making,

▪ an economic system that is able to generate surpluses and technical knowledge on a self-reliant and sustained basis,

▪ a social system that provides for solutions for the tensions arising from disharmonious development,

- a production system that respects the obligation to preserve the ecological base for development,
- a technological system that can search continuously for new solutions,
- and an international system that fosters sustainable patterns of trade and finance, and a flexible and self correcting administrative system.

The World Commission on Environment and Development (McNeill, 2000) concluded in the publication "Our Common Future", that a new development path was required. It is a path that should lead to sustained human progress for the entire planet, into the future.

1990

The International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD) was established in Canada, with the objective to encourage innovation to facilitate sustainable societies. It began publishing the "Earth Negotiations Bulletin" in 1992 (IISD, 2002: 3).

In 1990 the United Nations Summit for Children took place. It was an important recognition of the impact of the environment on future generations (IISD, 2002: 3). According to White (2002: 31) more than 180 countries took part and signed a final declaration and plan of action. Following the summit, 155 countries drew up national programmes to ensure the survival, protection and development of children.

1992

According to the CSIR (2002: 11) during the 1990s, the concept of community "sustainability" gained interest and support. The concept moved in two directions. The first is the "critical limits" view of sustainability, which focuses on the earth's carrying capacity and the speed with which limited resources are used. (Compare

Hart, 1998i.) A second view of sustainability, the "competing objectives" view, focuses on whether a community is able to balance its economic, social, and environmental goals. In order to be sustainable, a community has to balance these competing goals.

The Brundtland Report set in motion a process, which culminated in the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), held in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil in June 1992. It brought together representatives of 180 countries, including 108 heads of State. This is often referred to as the "Rio Conference". Burger (1997: 3) emphasized that it was an important milestone in the promotion of the idea of sustainable development. The Earth Summit highlighted that sustainable development is a wide-ranging concept concerned not only with protecting the environment and living within the carrying capacity of the Earth's support systems but also with people's quality of life, with equity within and between generations and with social justice. It brought together economic, environmental, social, political, cultural, ethical and health considerations that required new and integrated thinking and action. (Compare CSIR, 2002: 8; Dahl, 2001: 2; Hart, 1998i: 1; World Health Organization (WHO), 1999.)

The Rio Conference adopted a Programme of Action for Sustainable Development, referred to as Agenda 21. It set a global plan for sustainable development that has since become the basis for many national and local plans worldwide (CSIR, 2002: 9). This document clarified the growing environmental problems experienced in the process of global development. A range of solutions to these problems, including the allocation of responsibility between a wide range of actors, from international agencies, national and local governments and the private sector as well as of a variety of "civil society" actors, was proposed. According to Atkinson (2000: 3) Agenda 21 started with a focus on economic disparities and poverty, but promoted the same solutions of free-market economics and economic growth, as had the Brundtland Report. Much of the rest of the document was on problems and solutions of a technical nature, rather than

60

on addressing the social and political issues that underlay many of the problems identified. The United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development (UNCSD) monitors implementation and meets annually to review progress. (Compare Dalal-Clayton and Bass, 1995; Todaro, 1997: 676; Atkinson, 2000; IISD, 2002.)

The Rio Declaration and Agenda 21 were the fundamental documents at an international level underlying sustainable development. Together they defined "sustainable development". Fundamental to this definition is the integration of environment and development. The environment is seen as both physical and social (Appleby, Colon and Hamilton, 2001: 55). According to the World Bank Group environment is the complex set of physical, geographic, biological, social, cultural and political conditions that surround an individual or organism and that ultimately determines its form and nature of its survival.

Agenda 21 was a wide-ranging assessment of social and economic sectors with goals for improving the environmental and developmental impact of each. Agenda 21 stressed the importance of integrated policy development, citizen participation in decision-making including the full participation of women, institutional capacity-building and global partnerships involving many stakeholders (United Nations Economic and Social Council, 2001: 1).

In the preamble of Agenda 21, paragraph 1.1 (United Nations Economic and Social Council, 2001: 1) the following statement was made:

Agenda 21 is derived from an international recognition that "we are confronted with a perpetuation of disparities between and within nations, a worsening of poverty, hunger, ill health and illiteracy, and the continuing deterioration of the ecosystems on which we depend for our well-being. However, integration of environment and development concerns and greater attention to them will lead to the fulfilment of basic needs, improved living standards for all, better protected and managed ecosystems and a safer, more prosperous future. No nation can

61

achieve this on its own; but together we can - in a global partnership for sustainable development".

While Rio emphasized integration, the link between economic development and environmental stewardship (the focus was solely on environmental issues) were better articulated than the link with social equity (or social well being). Agenda 21 was motivated by perceptions of a deteriorating world environment and the need for humankind to reconsider its actions. However, like all compromises engineered by the United Nation system, and despite the best efforts of the able people involved, Agenda 21 was a version of everything. For the developing world, as the initial chapters of Agenda 21 made quite clear, the priority remained economic development and the alleviation of poverty and its worst manifestations – hunger, disease, and illiteracy. In this document poverty alleviation and underdevelopment was often mentioned. The People's Movement for Human Rights Education ([sa]: 4-5) highlighted a number of principles and commitments pertaining to specifically the eradication of poverty contained in various declarations made at the Earth Summit in Rio and the World Conference on Women in Beijing. The following were of particular relevance to this research study:

- "All States and all people shall cooperate in the essential task of eradicating poverty as an indispensable requirement for sustainable development…" – (Rio Declaration, Principle 5).

- "A specific anti-poverty strategy is …one of the basic conditions for ensuring sustainable development. An effective strategy for tackling the problems of poverty, development and environment simultaneously should begin by focusing on resources, production and people and should cover demographic issues, enhanced health care and education, the rights of women, the role of youth and of indigenous people and local communities and a democratic participation process…" (Agenda 21, chapter 3, paragraph 2).

- "More than one billion people in the world today, the great majority of whom are women, live in unacceptable conditions of poverty….Women's poverty is directly related o the absence of economic opportunities and autonomy, lack of access to economic resources…lack of access to education and support services and their minimal participation in the decision-making process…" (Beijing Platform for Action, paragraphs 47 and 51).

- "We are determined to… eradicate the persistent and increasing burden of poverty on women by addressing the structural causes of poverty through changes in economic structures, ensuring equal access for all women … as vital development agents, to productive resources, opportunities and public services …" (Beijing Platform for Action, paragraph 26).

For the developed world the priorities are rather different. Poverty is not really much of an issue, except at the margins of society. The developed world has the time to look at what it is doing to its natural surroundings, its environment, and to feel an overriding sense of concern about it (Dodds, 2001: 3 and Atkinson, 2000).

In 1992 The Earth Council was established in Costa Rica as a focal point for facilitating follow-up and implementation of the agreements reached at the Earth Summit and linking sustainable development councils (IISD, 2002: 3).

1993

On 25 June 1993, representatives of 171 States adopted by consensus the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action of the World Conference on Human Rights. They presented to the international community a common plan for the strengthening of human rights work around the world. The most important aspect of this plan was the recognition of interdependence between democracy, development and human rights (Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, 1995: 1-3).

1994

The United Nations International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) was held in September 1994 in Cairo, Egypt. World leaders, government officials, representatives of non-governmental organizations, and United Nations agencies gathered to negotiate a Programme of Action. This document recommended to the international community a set of important population and development objectives, including:

- sustained economic growth in the context of sustainable development;
- education, especially for girls;
- gender equity and equality;
- infant, child, and maternal mortality reduction; and
- the provision of universal access to reproductive health services, including family planning and sexual health care (United Nations Population Information Network, 1994).

The Conference recognized that population policy should be oriented toward improving social conditions and expanding choices for individuals. The key aspect was that focusing on people – their rights, capabilities, and opportunities – would have multiple benefits for individuals, for society, and for their sustainable relationship with the environment (Global Science Panel, [sa]). Mellor (2000: 149) stated that the Cairo summit offered some hope for women in particular when it was agreed that encouraging women's economic and social progress (and in particular education) was the most effective way of encouraging birth control.

March 1995

The World Summit for Social Development was held in March 1995 in Copenhagen, Denmark. Governments adopted a Declaration and Programme of Action, which represented a new consensus on the need to put people at the centre of development (IISD, 2002: 3). According to the United Nations Division

for Social Policy and Development (1999: 1) among the groundbreaking agreements made by the world's leaders in the Declaration were ten commitments, namely to:

- eradicate absolute poverty by a target date to be set by each country;
- support full employment as a basic policy goal;
- promote social integration based on the enhancement and protection of all human rights;
- achieve equality and equity between men and women;
- accelerate the development of Africa and the least developed countries;
- ensure that structural adjustment programmes include social development goals;
- increase resources allocated to social development;
- create an economic, political, social, cultural and legal environment that will enable people to achieve social development;
- attain universal and equitable access to education and primary health care; and
- strengthen cooperation for social development through the United Nations.

September 1995

The Fourth World Conference on Women (FWCW) met in Beijing, China in September 1995. The Beijing Declaration recognized that the status of women had advanced but that inequalities and obstacles remained (IISD, 2002: 3). It reaffirmed commitments to equal rights; ensuring the full implementation of human rights of women and girl children; empowerment and advancement of women, including the right to freedom of thought, conscience, religion and belief. Delegates stated their conviction that: women's empowerment and full participation are fundamental to equality, development and peace; equal rights and responsibilities are critical to families; women's involvement is required to eradicate poverty; peace is linked to the advancement of women; and gender-sensitive policies are essential to foster women's empowerment and

advancement. Governments were determined to eliminate discrimination and remove obstacles to equality; encourage men to participate in actions towards equality; promote women's economic independence; promote sustainable development and education; prevent and eliminate violence against women and girls; ensure full participation; and ensure equal access to economic resources (Earth Negotiations Bulletin, 1995: 1-11).

1996

The Second United Nations Conference on Human Settlements (Habitat ⊃), meeting in Istanbul, Turkey in June 1996, allowed the participants to consider the issue of sustainable human settlements through a variety of forums. The objectives of the Second United Nations Conference on Human Settlements were: (1) in the long term, to arrest the deterioration of global human settlement conditions and ultimately create the conditions for achieving improvements in the living environment of all people on a sustainable basis, with special attention to the needs and contributions of women and vulnerable social groups; and (2) to adopt a general statement of principles and commitments and formulate a related Global Plan of Action capable of guiding national and international efforts through the first two decades of the next century (Earth Negotiations Bulletin, 1996: 1-2).

June 1997

The Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD) was created to monitor and report on implementation of the Earth Summit agreements. It was agreed that a five-year review of the Earth Summit progress would be made in 1997 by the United Nations General Assembly meeting in a special session. This special session of the United Nations General Assembly took stock of how well countries, international organizations and sectors of civil society have responded to the challenge of the Earth Summit (IISD, 2002: 4). The Earth Summit +5 objectives were:

- To revitalize and energize commitments to sustainable development.
- To frankly recognize failures and identify reasons why.
- To recognize achievements and identify actions that will boost them.
- To define priorities for the post-97 period.
- To raise the profile of issues addressed insufficiently by the Rio Summit (United Nations: Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 1997: 1).

The General Assembly, in its 1997 Programme for the Further Implementation of Agenda 21 accepted poverty eradication as the overriding theme of sustainable development for the future. Priority actions included the following:

- Improving access to sustainable livelihoods, entrepreneurial opportunities and productive resources.
- Providing universal access to basic social services.
- Progressively developing social protection systems to support those who cannot support themselves.
- Empowering people living in poverty and their organizations.
- Addressing the disproportionate impact of poverty on women.
- Working with interested donors and recipients to allocate increased shares of ODA to poverty eradication.
- Intensifying international cooperation for poverty eradication.
  (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2003: 1).

December 1997

In December 1997, the Climate Change Conference, in Kyoto, Japan took place. 159 Nations attended the conference. This conference strengthened commitments under the Climate Change Convention and adopted legally binding emission targets, namely that developed countries will be legally bound to reduce their greenhouse gas emissions by at least 5% on average relative to 1990 levels, by the years 2008-2012. There was also agreement to consider the use of carbon sinks, carbon trading and joint implementation projects to meet the

targets – details and methodologies are now to be finalized at a later stage. Developing countries, that is countries which are in the process of becoming industrialized but have constrained resources with which to combat their environmental problems, which include China and India, have no formal binding targets, but have the option to set voluntary reduction targets (IISD, 2002: 4).

1999

The Third World Trade Organization Ministerial Conference was held in Seattle, Washington, United States, in 1999. Thousands of demonstrators took to the streets, protesting the negative effects of globalization and the growth of global corporations. Conflict existed among the delegates and this affected the negotiations. As the first of many such anti-globalization protests, it signalled a new era of confrontation between disaffected stakeholders and those in power (IISD, 2002: 4).

2000

The United Nations Millennium Summit, in September 2000, was the largest-ever gathering of world leaders. It was called "The Role of the United Nations in the twenty-first century". One hundred and forty-seven world leaders agreed to a set of time-bound development goals central to the objectives in Agenda 21. They adopted the United Nations World Summit Declaration, which spells out values and principles, as well as goals in key priority areas. World leaders agreed that the UN's first priority was the eradication of extreme poverty and highlighted the importance of a fairer world economy in an era of globalization. The leaders declared that the central challenge of today is to ensure that globalization become a positive force for all people (IISD, 2002: 3; United Nations Press Release, 2000: 1-2).

Noble (2001: 1) stated that at the 2000 World Economic Forum (WEF) in Davos, Switzerland, the business and government leaders in attendance were polled about the greatest challenge facing the world at the dawn of the new century. Global climate change was voted as the number one concern. According to the International Centre for Trade and Sustainable Development (2003: 3-4) the WEF brought together world leaders and corporate representatives to address global citizenship under the heading of "building trust".

2001

The World Trade Organization, at its fourth Ministerial meeting in Doha, Qatar, in November 2001, adopted a declaration stating: "We are convinced that the aims of upholding and safeguarding an open and non-discriminatory multi-lateral trading system, and acting for the protection of the environment and the promotion of sustainable development can and must be mutually supportive" (World Trade Organization, 2001: 1-2; IISD, 2002: 4).

March 2002

At the International Conference on Financing for Development, held in Monterrey, Mexico in March 2002, governments reaffirmed the commitment to sustainable development, and donor countries promised a total of $30billion in additional resources through 2006 (United Nations International Conference on Financing for Development, 2003: 1).

2.4 SUMMIT 2002, JOHANNESBURG, SOUTH AFRICA

2.4.1 An overview

The World Summit on Sustainable Development, held in Johannesburg from August, 26 to the 4th September 2002, marked the tenth anniversary of the

ground-breaking Rio Earth Summit. The slogan used for the World Summit 2002 was "People, Planet, Prosperity".

Björn Stigson, president of the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (2002: 32) confirmed that the Johannesburg Summit presented a platform for business, and with that a new dimension to sustainable development was added to the debate. Sustainable development was now linked to poverty eradication, economic development and a better quality of life for all people. The focus of the Rio Earth Summit in 1992 was on environment and development, a shift from solely environment at the 1972 United Nations Stockholm Summit. The World Summit 2002 reflected a shift in emphasis from purely environmental issues to the importance of sustainable social and economic development within the context of environmental stewardship. The intention was not to renegotiate Agenda 21, but to review the progress on its implementation. (Compare Singh, 2002: 2.)

David Brackett (2002: 61) chairperson of the International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources Species Survival Commission stated that the 1992 Rio Summit emphasized environmental protection. In comparison the World Summit 2002 (WSSD) pursued an integrated approach to the three pillars of sustainable development, namely: environmental stewardship, economic development and social development. WSSD reflected an increasing concern with devising and promoting approaches that treat issues of poverty, equity and environmental protection together, probing causal relationships and complex connections, and searching for synergistic solutions. It was a positive trend, as it represented a departure from the polarized positions of the Rio conference that pitted Northern preoccupations with the environment against a Southern focus on poverty alleviation.

Valli Moosa, South Africa's Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, (2002: 3) discussed the importance of understanding the concept sustainable

development as a holistic approach to development. In his opinion it means different things to different people and has in the past wrongly been characterized as an environment issue. This view is supported by Porritt (in Warburton, 1998: xi) stating in this regard: "In a remarkably short period of time, 'sustainable development' has become one of those protean concepts that means a hundred different things to a hundred different people". Minister Moosa (2002: 3) reiterated that unless sustainable development is understood as "development" that meets social, economic, health, environmental and political needs without compromising the very basis on which these human needs depends, sustainable development will remain a "green" concept. Minister Moosa emphasized that in Rio a set of principles encapsulated by Agenda 21 were agreed upon. While these principles and the Agenda 21 framework laid the basis for sustainable development, it did not provide the consensus and commitment needed to implement sustainable development. Ten years down the road the reality of the world today is that 2.4 billion people live in poverty. The gap between rich and poor countries is widening. All over the world workers are facing increased hardship due to retrenchments and a reduction in formal employment opportunities. There is widespread food insecurity and cultural destruction affecting indigenous people globally. Many countries carry heavy economic debt. Human rights abuses are widespread and there is an alarming increase in crime and violence.

The United Nations General Assembly mandated the Summit 2002 to assess progress on interrelated economic, environmental and social issues, to identify gaps and new challenges (such as globalization) since Rio, and agreed to action-orientated measures to deliver real improvements in the quality of life for people around the world. Mr. Tony Blair, Prime Minister of Britain (United Kingdom Government, 2003: 5), presented the following point of view: "We know the problems. A child in Africa dies every three seconds from famine, disease or conflict. We know that if climate change is not stopped, all parts of the world will suffer. Some will even be destroyed, and we know the solution – sustainable

71

development. So the issue for this summit is the political will...Rio of course did not deliver everything, neither will Johannesburg, no summit can, but this summit can and will make our world change for the better...".

In this regard, the question remains, what is the paradigm of sustainable development? What has changed since Rio? The challenge of the summit is to place the world economy on a sustainable path. For poor nations, there is the implication to focus on small business and subsistence or semi-subsistence agriculture, rather than the large-scale, high-input commercial farming. It implies a shift, with set targets and timetables, towards renewable energy resources. For the developed nations, the message appears to be one of transcending nationalism and acknowledging their responsibilities. There is a further implication that corporate environmental practice has to be subjected to international scrutiny. The core of the problem in essence is, what and how people produce and consume. This is a complex issue, because it encroaches on the fundamental doctrines of economic development, and on the aspirations that everyone has a chance of a better life through increased economic means. Banerjee (2003: 162) added to this discussion and stated that there were substantial efforts to broaden the scope of "green issues" to include social sustainability. The "triple bottom line" approach assesses the social and environmental impacts of business, as distinct from its economic impact. The theoretical perspectives of the triple bottom line approach focus on maximizing sustainability opportunities (corporate social responsibility, stakeholder relations, and corporate governance) while minimizing sustainability-related risks (corporate risk management, environmental, health and safety-audits). The "triple bottom line" approach thus acknowledges that economic, environmental and social issues are the components of an overall sustainable development paradigm.

Dodds (2000: 6) was of the opinion that poverty must be addressed and not only for moral reasons. Economic desperation is a direct spur to unsustainable energy

production, water use, agriculture and fishing. According to the OECD (2001b: 12) there are important synergies between the goals of poverty reduction and better environmental protection. Rural populations depend directly on their surrounding ecosystems – pastures, forests, wetlands and coastal fisheries – to meet their needs for food, fuel, shelter, fodder and medical plants. The poor are most vulnerable to the effects of environmentally unsound practices. It is increasingly understood that the paradigm for sustainable development implies changes in culture, in patterns of development, production and consumption. Raising awareness and understanding of the implications of current production and consumption levels could facilitate these changes. It is clear that it will require substantive transformation in attitudes and social behaviour. The OECD (2001b: 13) made it very clear that environmental sustainability can only be achieved within a broad development strategy, encompassing sustained economic growth, financial solvency, institutional development, improved governance, effective investment in education and health, and poverty reduction.

2.4.2 Key commitments, targets and timetables - Summit 2002

More than 180 countries attended the Summit. Strong contingents were present from parliaments, local governments, business and NGOs. In summary the Summit produced the following:
- a statement by world leaders underlining their commitment to global sustainable development;
- a Plan for Implementation, which was the main focus of negotiations, setting out the priority actions needed to achieve global sustainable development;
- a wide range of partnerships (known as "Type 2 partnerships") for action involving governments, businesses, NGOs and other stakeholders and focused on the Plan of Implementation.

The Summit forged close links between development and environment policy, in the service of sustainable development. Agreements on poverty eradication

highlighted the importance of good environmental and natural resource management to sustainable livelihoods and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). As well as reaffirming the importance of delivering the existing MDGs and reinforcing the importance of the Monterrey (International Conference, Monterrey, Mexico, February 2002) Consensus on Financing for Development, the Summit agreed on new commitments on access to water, sanitation and energy:

- Sanitation – a new target was set to halve by 2015 the proportion of people living without basic sanitation, adding to the MDGs. This should save millions of lives in developing countries, and support existing goals on safe drinking water and health.
- Water – a commitment to a programme of actions to help meet the new sanitation target and the associated MDG on safe water. Countries should also develop integrated water resource management and water efficiency plans by 2005.
- Energy – an agreement to take joint actions to provide reliable and affordable energy for the poor, to underpin achievement of the MDGs.

In addition to the abovementioned commitments the following main issues were addressed, namely:

- Negotiations on **trade** proved to be particularly difficult as countries had differing expectations on what the WSSD could achieve.
- For industrialized countries, a priority will be to elaborate on the agreement to develop a global framework for action programmes to make **patterns of consumption and production** more sustainable, and to bring development within the carrying capacity of ecosystems (Hart, 1998i: 1-2). Work should focus on de-coupling economic growth from environmental degradation. Industrialized countries are tasked with leading the way. Specific terminology, for example, eco-efficiency came to the fore. The term eco-efficiency is a contraction of ecological and economic efficiency. It advocates *doing more*

with less. Companies benefit from eco-efficiency by reducing the energy and material requirements of production.

- The current trend **in natural resources degradation** should be reversed as soon as possible by implementing strategies to protect ecosystems and achieving integrated management of land, water and living resources.

- The pace of **globalization** since Rio was recognized as a new challenge, offering both opportunities and risks for sustainable development. In this context, **corporate social responsibility** should be actively encouraged and promoted, including through the full development and effective implementation of intergovernmental agreements and measures, international initiatives, private-public partnerships and appropriate national regulations.

- Countries agreed to significantly reduce the current rate of loss of **biodiversity** by 2010. Action will include strengthening efforts to control invasive alien species, one of the main causes of biodiversity loss, promoting the development and implementation of the ecosystem approach, which is a strategy for the integrated management of land, water and living resources, and the integration of biodiversity objectives into all policy areas.

- **Marine protection and fisheries** figured heavily at the Summit. A new target has been set to restore depleted fish stocks urgently and where possible by 2015, with enhanced action against illegal fishing. Governments agreed to establish networks of Marine Protected Areas by 2012 and produce a new Global Marine Assessment by 2004.

- The Summit agreed to urgently and substantially increase the **global share of renewable energy sources**, recognizing the role of national and regional targets. Every effort should be made to develop cleaner and more efficient energy technologies and taking action, where appropriate, to phase out energy subsidies that inhibit sustainable development.

- A new target tasks nations to use and produce **chemicals** in ways that lead to the minimization of significant adverse effects of human health and the environment by 2020 and help developing countries deal with chemicals management and hazardous wastes.

Existing commitments on human rights and good national governance were reconfirmed as a cornerstone of sustainable development, with expansion at the Summit of the Rio commitments on public participation and access to justice.

The Summit also agreed to strengthen the way the United Nations deals with sustainable development issues. The outcomes of Monterrey and Johannesburg should be followed up in a coordinated manner.

The following were highlighted as key outcomes of the Summit 2002 as cited by the United Nations in 2002 (INPECO, 2002: 6):

- The Summit reaffirmed sustainable development as a central element of the international agenda and gave new impetus to global action to fight poverty and protect the environment.

- The understanding of sustainable development was broadened and strengthened as a result of the Summit, particularly the important linkages between poverty, the environment and the use of natural resources.

- Governments agreed to and reaffirmed a wide range of concrete commitments and targets for action to achieve more effective implementation of sustainable development objectives.

- Support for the establishment of a world solidarity fund for the eradication of poverty was a positive step forward.

- Africa and NEPAD were identified for special attention and supported by international community to better focus efforts to address the development needs of Africa.

- The views of civil society were given prominence at the Summit in recognition of the key role of civil society in implementing the outcomes and in promoting partnership initiatives.

- The concept of partnerships between governments, business and civil society was given a large boost by the Summit and the Plan of Implementation. Over 220 partnerships were identified in advance of the Summit and around 60 partnerships were announced during the Summit by a variety of countries. (Compare World Resources Institute, 2003; INPECO, 2002.)

More than ten years after Rio, the third link of the sustainability triangle, the social interface, is receiving increasing attention. Issues of equity, of poverty eradication, and of social exclusion have been highlighted, particularly in the transition to a market economy in Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia, and by the perceived effects of globalization almost everywhere.

In summary, sustainable development may be regarded as the progressive and balanced achievement of sustained economic development, improved social equity and environmental sustainability. Sustainability is therefore a holistic concept, which includes environmental, social and economic issues. Sustainable development encompasses vital issues such as human development, social and economic justice and the advancement of democracy. The social and economic components as integral parts of the sustainable development paradigm are of particula r relevance to this study.

2.5 CONCEPTUALIZING SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Sustainability is a concept with several dimensions. Trzyna (1995: 16) stated that a complicating factor in conceptualizing sustainable development is that it is not a precise goal, but a criterion for attitudes and practices. Over the years and through the exploration by various disciplines, numerous other definitions and or comprehensive explanations have emerged, but they all resolve around the interconnectedness of society, economy and environment. (Compare Anand and Sen, 1994, 12-13; The Sustainable Living Network [sa]; International Federation of Social Workers, 2002; Hasegawa, 2001; Bartelmus, 1999.)

According to Hart (1998d: 1) a sustainable community is one in which the economic, social and environmental systems that make up the community provide a healthy, productive, meaningful life for all community members, present and future. Sustainable communities acknowledge that there are limits to the natural, social and built systems upon which they depend. Many organizations

are supporting the philosophy that poverty cannot be eliminated in the long term, without protecting the environment and that the environment cannot be protected without tackling poverty. As noted earlier, sustainability is a concept with several dimensions and it is clear that the link between conservation and social and economic development works in both directions. Kinsley (1997: 1) made a valuable contribution by emphasizing that when placed in front of the word "development", the word "sustainable" offers both opportunities and constraints. It offers opportunities because its new perspective reveals development options that previously weren't obvious. It offers constraints because, when proposals are considered in light of their long-term effects, some options that might otherwise appear attractive are seen to be unworkable, or not worth their negative effects.

The International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN), United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the World Wildlife Federation (WWF) developed "Principles of a sustainable society" in preparation for the Earth Charter Project (Rockefeller, 1996: 1-4). These organizations stated that living sustainably depended on accepting a duty to seek harmony with other people and with nature. The guiding rules stipulate that people must share with each other and care for the Earth. Humanity has to monitor what is taken from nature and that should be in line with what nature can replenish. This in turn means adopting lifestyles and development paths that respect and work within nature's limits. Rockefeller stated that this could be done without rejecting the many benefits that modern technology has brought, provided that technology also works within those limits.

2.5.1 Principles of a sustainable society

The principles of sustainable society are interrelated and mutually supporting. The IUCN, UNEP and the WWF indicated the following as principles (Rockefeller, 1996). Of those listed below, the first is the founding principle providing the ethical base for the others. The next four define the criteria that should be met,

and the last four indicate the directions to be taken in working towards a sustainable society at the individual, local, national and international levels. The principles are:

Respect and care for the community life

This principle reflects the duty and care for other people and other forms of life, now and in the future. It is an ethical principle and means that development should not be at the expense of other groups or later generations. All life on earth is part of one great interdependent system, which influences and depends on the non-living components of the planet – rocks, soils, waters and air. Disturbing one part of this biosphere can affect the whole. Human societies are interdependent and future generations are affected by present actions. The world of nature is increasingly dominated by human behaviour. It is a matter of ethics as well as practicality to manage development so that it does not threaten the survival of other species or eliminate their habitats (Rockefeller, 1996: 2).

Improve the quality of life

The real aim of development is to improve the quality of human life. It is a process that enables human beings to realize their potential, build self-confidence and lead lives of dignity and fulfilment. Economic growth is an important component of development, but it cannot be a goal in itself, nor can it go on indefinitely. Although people differ in the goals that they would set for development, some are universal. These include a long and healthy life, education, access to the resources needed for a decent standard of living, political freedom, guaranteed human rights, and freedom from violence. Development is real only if it ensures a better life for all (Rockefeller, 1996: 2).

Conserve the earth's vitality and diversity

Conservation-based development needs to include deliberate action to protect the structure, functions and diversity of the world's natural systems, on which all species utterly depends. Human beings need to conserve life-support systems.

These include all the ecological processes that keep the planet fit for life. They share climate, cleanse air and water, regulate water flow, recycle essential elements, create and regenerate soil, and enable ecosystems to renew themselves. Human beings need to conserve biodiversity, including all species of plants, animals and other organisms, the range of genetic stocks within each species, and the variety of ecosystems. Human beings need to ensure that uses of renewable resources are sustainable. (Compare Boersema and Bertels, 2000: 87.) Renewable resources include soil, wild and domesticated organisms, forests, rangelands, cultivated land, and the marine and freshwater ecosystems that support fisheries (Rockefeller, 1996: 3).

Minimize the depletion of non-renewable resources

Non-renewable resources, meaning, gas, oil, minerals and coal cannot be used sustainably and should receive special care and attention. However, their "life" can be extended, for example, by recycling, by using less of a resource to make a particular product, or by switching to renewable substitutes where possible. Widespread adoption of such practices is essential if the Earth is to sustain billions more people in future, and ensure a decent quality of life (Rockefeller, 1996: 3).

Keep within the earth's carrying capacity

There are finite limits to the "carrying capacity" of the Earth's ecosystems – to the impacts that they and the biosphere as a whole can withstand without dangerous deterioration. The limits vary from region to region, and the impacts depend on how many people there are and how much food, water, energy and raw materials each uses and wastes (Rockefeller, 1996: 3; Hart, 1998i: 1-2).

Change personal attitudes and practices

Values and behaviour need to be examined. Society must promote values that support the new ethnic for living sustainably, and discourage those that are incompatible with a sustainable way of life. Information must be disseminated

80

through formal and informal educational systems so that the policies and actions needed for the survival and well-being of the world's societies can be explained and understood (Rockefeller, 1996: 3).

Enable communities to care for their own environments

Most of the creative and productive activities of individuals or groups take place in communities. Communities and citizens' groups provide the most readily accessible means for people to take socially valuable action as well as to express their concerns. Properly mandated, empowered and informed, communities can contribute to decisions that affect them and play an indispensable part in creating a securely-based sustainable society (Rockefeller, 1996: 3-4).

Provide a national framework for integrating development and conservation

All societies need a foundation of information and knowledge, a framework of law and institutions, and consistent economic and social policies if they are to advance in a rational way. A national programme for achieving sustainability should involve all stakeholders, and identify and prevent problems before they appear. It must be adaptive, continually redirecting its course in response to experience and to new needs. National measures should:

- treat each region as an integrated system, taking account of the interactions among land, air, water, organisms and human activities;
- recognize that each system influences and is influenced by larger and smaller systems – whether ecological, economic, social or political;
- consider people as the central element in the system, evaluating the social, economic, technical and political factors that affect how they use natural resources;
- relate economic policy to environmental carrying capacity;
- increase the benefits obtained from each stock of resources;
- promote technologies that use resources more efficiently;

- ensure that resource users pay the full social costs of the benefits they enjoy (Rockefeller, 1996: 4).

Create a global alliance

No nation today is self-sufficient. If humanity is to achieve global sustainability, a form of alliance must be established. The levels of development in the world are unequal, and the lower-income countries must be helped to develop sustainably and protect their environments. Global and shared resources, especially the atmosphere, oceans and shared ecosystems, can be managed only on the basis of common purpose and resolve (Rockefeller, 1996: 4).

Mustafa Tolba (in Murcott, 1997: 3; Mngoma, 1997 and FitzGerald, Mc Lennan and Munslow, 1996: 4) emphasized that in broad terms the concept "sustainable development" encompasses the following:

- Help for the very poor as they have no option but to destroy the environment. When people lack the basic amenities or when essential needs are not met, they are forced to damage the natural resources. Deforestation for example, presents a major problem; the reason being that trees are important to prevent soil erosion. Contaminated water and polluted air are responsible for an increase in water-borne and respiratory diseases. The result is an overburdened health care system. People not having access to immunization and disease eradication programs place excessive demands on healthcare and social services;

- The idea of self-reliant development, within natural resources constraints.

- The idea of cost effective development using differing economic criteria to the traditional approach, meaning that development should not degrade environmental quality and should not reduce productivity;

- The issues of health control, appropriate technologies, food self-reliance, clean water and shelter for all;

- The notion that people-centered initiatives are needed; human beings are the resources in the concept.

2.5.2 Sustainable development: A holistic approach to sustainable living

The importance of a focus on human development is clear from the following extract: *Sustainable Development is a process which enables people to realise their potential and improve their quality of life in ways which protect and enhance the earth's life support system* (Sustainable Lifestyles Conference, 1999 in Department for Environment; Food and Rural Affairs (DEFRA), 2000: 1). From the same source (2000: 1) the following extract stressed a holistic approach to sustainable living: *Sustainable Development is about liveability. It is about creating and maintaining healthy communities and economies, which can lead to a healthy environment and enhanced qualities of life. Communities working towards the goal of Sustainable Development commit themselves to examining the links, and trade-offs of the choices they face.*

The Forum for the Future (Annual Report, 2000) supported the notion that sustainable development is a dynamic process that enables all people to maximize their potential, thereby improving the quality of their lives without harming the environment (United Kingdom Government, 2001: 3). Barbier (in Tacconi and Tisdell, 1992: 270) suggested the following: "sustainable development should be seen as the maximization of the human ascribed goals across the biological, economic and social systems through a process of dynamic trade-offs".

A number of authors (compare Walsh, 1993; Cook, 1997: 275; Hunter, 1997: 233 and Fricker, 1998) were of the opinion that an improved definition of "sustainable development" must also embody the following concepts:

- the place of human beings in the environment, and the relationship between both;
- the nature of human, social, cultural and economic development, their current imbalances and inequities, and their future course;
- the healing of existing injury to the natural environment.

83

In this regard The Sustainable Living Network ([sa]: 1) explained the scope of the concept "sustainable living": "Sustainable living is an approach to social and economic, indeed, all activities, for all societies, rich and poor, which is compatible with the preservation of the environment. It is based on a philosophy of interdependence, of respect for life as well as non-living parts of Nature, and of responsibility for future generations". Walsh (1993: 1) made a valuable contribution and cautioned that: "...development is different things to different people: it is people, society, and time specific; it is something which requires vision, deferred gratification and hard work, it cannot be achieved without cooperation; it is dependent on the favourable interaction of political, social and economic forces at local, national and global levels, it is not inevitable, and it can so easily come unstuck". Achieving progress toward sustainability thus implies maintaining and improving, both human and ecosystem well-being. The interdependence between people and the surrounding world is clear.

Many unanswered questions remain. How does society get beyond the semantics and rhetoric? What measures are being implemented to ensure a lasting progress on a social, economic and environmental front? Has society adequately defined the multiple dimensions of sustainable development? The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2001: 1-3) had put considerable effort into describing the various aspects of the sustainable development paradigm, namely:

- Sustainable development is perhaps more a moral precept, in other words, a rule of conduct, than a scientific concept, linked as much with notions of fairness as with theories of global warming.
- Sustainable development involves the natural sciences and economics, but is primarily a matter of culture. It is connected with values people cherish and with the ways in which they perceive their relationship with others.
- Sustainable development is a response to the unavoidable need to develop a new approach to relations between peoples and a new understanding of habitat – the foundation and nourishing source of human existence.

84

- Sustainable development occurs when humanity acknowledge the relationship between human needs and the natural environment. The independence of humans and the environment necessitates a refusal of the obsessive pursuit of any single development or environmental objective to the detriment of others. The environment cannot be protected in a way that leaves half of humanity in poverty.

- Linking social, economic and environmental concerns is a crucial aspect of sustainable development. Creating such links demands a deeper, more ambitious way of thinking about education, one that retains a commitment to critical analysis while fostering creativity and innovation. It demands an ethic and value system sensitive to the value of cultural identity and multicultural dialogue.

- To avoid false dilemmas, there has to be an understanding of sustainable development as a new and viable long-term relationship between human beings and their habitat, one that places humanity at the forefront.
  From the methodological point of view, an affirmation of what sustainable development should be, can be achieved by formulating its opposite:

- Sustainable development does not embody a new, fully formed theory of human existence. Sustainable development incarnates a plea for integral thinking – thinking responsive to the complexity of the real systems of everyday life.

- Sustainable development is not a magic answer; it is a new vision of the future. It requires, on the one hand, that the countries of the North take radical steps to address problems related to consumption, production and their impact. Developing countries must promote fairness, alleviate poverty, reinforce justice and democracy, adopt development strategies that benefit all strata of society, and address the serious environmental problems of the present time.

- Sustainable development is not a new method of analysis. It is a new way of looking at reality. It requires that people reject four features of contemporary life that put the future of the world in jeopardy: (a) inequality, caused by

85

excessive confidence in the distribution of savings revenue in times of crisis; (b) instability, brought about by an excess of State intervention, lax monetary policies and inflationary processes; (c) inefficiency, caused by countries turning in on themselves, accompanied by market shifts that seriously affect the rural areas; and finally, (d) exclusion and inequality which are still very much in evidence and wrongly accepted as inevitable.

▪ Sustainable development is not an end in itself but a way of managing possible scenarios for the future and fostering new approaches to social dialogue. It is about searching for ways of promoting new priorities, options and possibilities, while maintaining harmony in all things.

▪ The idea of sustainable development brings about nothing new. It is an invitation to goodwill in fostering prevention, risk control and harmony. It contributes to the creation of new synergy among social actors and of strategies that promote more efficient and transparent governance.

▪ Sustainable development is not a new way of dividing society into sectors. It reflects and promotes a quest for unity, a respect for all cultures, acceptance of diversity and integrative responses to the complex problems humanity are obliged to face.

▪ Sustainable development does not imply the affirmation of a neo-liberal economic model; rather, it proposes a world of solidarity that would accompany profound changes in existing economic arrangements and a reassurance of democratic procedures.

▪ Sustainable development is not a new utopian vision. It is in fact an alarm bell set off by the lack of respect for humane values in everyday life.

▪ Sustainable development is not an abstraction. It is rooted in common sense and practical values, stressing what is important, therefore placing it at the service of new ways of living.

▪ A commitment to sustainable development is not a search for new forms of government that ensure the continued exercise of power by minorities in ways that reflect a disregard for human security, freedom and autonomy.

Todaro (1997: 341) was of the opinion that environmentalists have used the term sustainability in an attempt to clarify the desired balance between economic growth and progress on the one hand and environmental preservation on the other. The same author (1997: 343) stressed the fact that much of the concern over environmental issues stemmed from the perception that humanity may reach a limit to the number of people whose needs can be met by the earth's finite resources.

It is evident that continuing on the present path of accelerating environmental degradation, the ability of present and future generations to meet their needs, would be in jeopardy. The importance of addressing the process of sustainable development, as an interdisciplinary concept is evident from the above discussion and for the purpose of this research study will be discussed in more depth.

2.6 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT AS AN INTERDISCIPLINARY SCIENCE

Thyer (2002: 110) supported the importance of sustainable development as an interdisciplinary science. He emphasized the following perspective: "Since human behavior is unlikely to be guided by one set of principles in economic matters, another distinct and unique set of laws in politics, and another in social activities, it is unrealistic to expect that ultimately, meaningful differences will emerge in coherent accounts to explain human conduct in diverse areas. Perhaps in time, disciplinary divisions will break down to be replaced by more inter-disciplinary programs of study related to human affairs". Sustainable development is by nature an interdisciplinary concept, drawing on social and physical sciences, as well as law, management and politics.

From the reviewed literature (Encyclopaedia of Life Support Systems, 2001: 3; McNeill, 2000: 15) it is clear that the subject matter of sustainable development is composed of contributions from ecology, biology, physics, chemistry, geology,

economics, anthropology, sociology, psychology, and computer science. Its repertoire is bolstered by other interdisciplinary work such as system science and nonlinear dynamics; chaos, catastrophe, and complexity theory are showing up regularly in literature. So far sustainable development does not have a core theory from which everything else proceeds. Rather, it lives by an open-textured definition, and is defined by the topics researchers have an opportunity to delve into. McNeill (2000: 15) for example, selected three disciplines, namely, economics, anthropology and ecology, to explain the interdisciplinary nature of sustainable development. McNeill stated that economics is concerned with the interactions of individuals as rational, self-interested, autonomous, maximizing decision-makers. According to McNeill it treats nature typically as a material/ resource constraint. McNeill (2000: 15) further stated that Anthropology regards human beings interacting with one another not only as decision-makers but also as meaning-makers, with the emphasis on the collective. Nature is both a resource and constraint as a locus of meaning. Ecology is concerned with human beings as a species, interacting as biological beings, both with their own and other species and with the inorganic environment; the emphasis is on the whole as a system. Trzyna (1995: 19) emphasized that sustainable development requires cutting across many professions and disciplines: it is therefore a crosscutting concept and people are forced to think beyond compartmented thinking. To understand sustainable development the importance of fully comprehending the interconnections between environment, economy and social well-being, are all important. It requires bringing together people who have very different backgrounds, mindsets and agendas. Trzyna (1995: 20) further postulated that sustainable development is a social and political process and the ultimate challenge is not only scientific or technical, but more importantly, the changing of human behaviour.

One example that is most important, as far as the economic sector is concerned is that the goal of sustainable development is to improve living standards and quality of people's lives, both now and for future generations. The goal is

therefore, to maximize human welfare within the constraints of existing capital stock and technologies.

It is clear in this regard that economic issues are linked with social concerns. A classic example would be that inadequate investment in education and training of workers limits the potential for economic growth. Rapid population growth may limit the economic system's ability to meet people's basic needs and provide jobs for everyone. Social sector issues are closely linked to economic issues such as poverty (The World Bank Group, 1998a: 1). In any society, it is the poor who are least likely to receive adequate health care, education, and family planning services. Higher birth rates may result, making it difficult for these families to meet their basic needs and break out of the cycle of poverty. All people in a society must have access to certain basic goods and services in order to lead healthy, fulfilling and productive lives. Education and training must be available, so that everyone has the chance to earn a decent living and learn new skills. Education is crucial if a society is to reproduce itself and maintain a level of achievement essential for the welfare of its members. Social concerns in one country can have an impact that reach beyond national borders. Unequal access to education or lack of job opportunities can lead people to migrate. This may cause profound changes in the country they leave, as it adjusts to the loss of certain groups.

Social issues are also linked with environmental concerns. In many countries, contaminated water and polluted air are responsible for an increase in water-borne diseases and respiratory problems, all of which place an extra burden on the local health care system. Economic, social and environmental issues are all important pieces of the development "puzzle" (The World Bank Group, 1998b: 1).

Fakir (2002: 14) stated very clearly that the linkages between crucial issues in the environmental/underdevelopment debate could only be understood in terms of risk and vulnerability that poor communities face when trying to secure

sustainable livelihoods. Risks and vulnerabilities emanate fro m changes in the international and domestic socio-economic environment. Fakir further postulated that the entire strategy for sustainable development is premised on the idea that the linkages between political governance and social and economic programmes are intertwined with environmental considerations. In developing countries the reality of the linkages are much more obvious. Fakir (2002: 14) stated that most urban environmental problems, particularly the ones in developing countries, could be attributed to weak local government capacity. This implies that there is little capital to invest in infrastructure improvements, and the weak monitoring of compliance to various regulations. This ultimately leads to more impoverishment and squalid living conditions .

As previously mentioned, several knowledge resources are essential for an integrated and comprehensive understanding of the sustainable development paradigm. Often scholars from diverse fields of specialization tend to use different terminology to characterize this knowledge. The following broad framework has received wide acceptance (Encyclopaedia of Life Support Systems, 2001: 3):
➢ Natural resources or natural capital (The environmental dimension)
➢ Economic resources or built capital (The economic dime nsion)
➢ Social resources or social capital (The social dimension)
➢ Institutional resources or institutional capital (The institutional dimension)
Community capital is needed to ensure the survival and maintenance of communities. Within the context of sustainability, human, social, natural and built capitals are the components of community capital and absolutely necessary for continued existence (Hart, 1998g: 1).

Among the different dimensions of sustainable development there exist complex interactions (Encyclopaedia of Life Support Systems, 2001: 4). Figure 1 shows the various fundamental dimensions of the sustainable development paradigm, which rely on a wide spectrum of disciplines as indicated below. According to the

90

Encyclopaedia of Life Support Systems (2001: 3) the knowledge needed for the understanding of the subsystems for their sustainability is highly interdisciplinary. For example to understand the sustainability of the Natural Capital (or Environmental Dimension), knowledge of the disciplines such as Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Geology as well as Mathematical Sciences in addition to the use of technological tools such as Computer Systems, Remote Sensing and Global Information Systems are necessary.
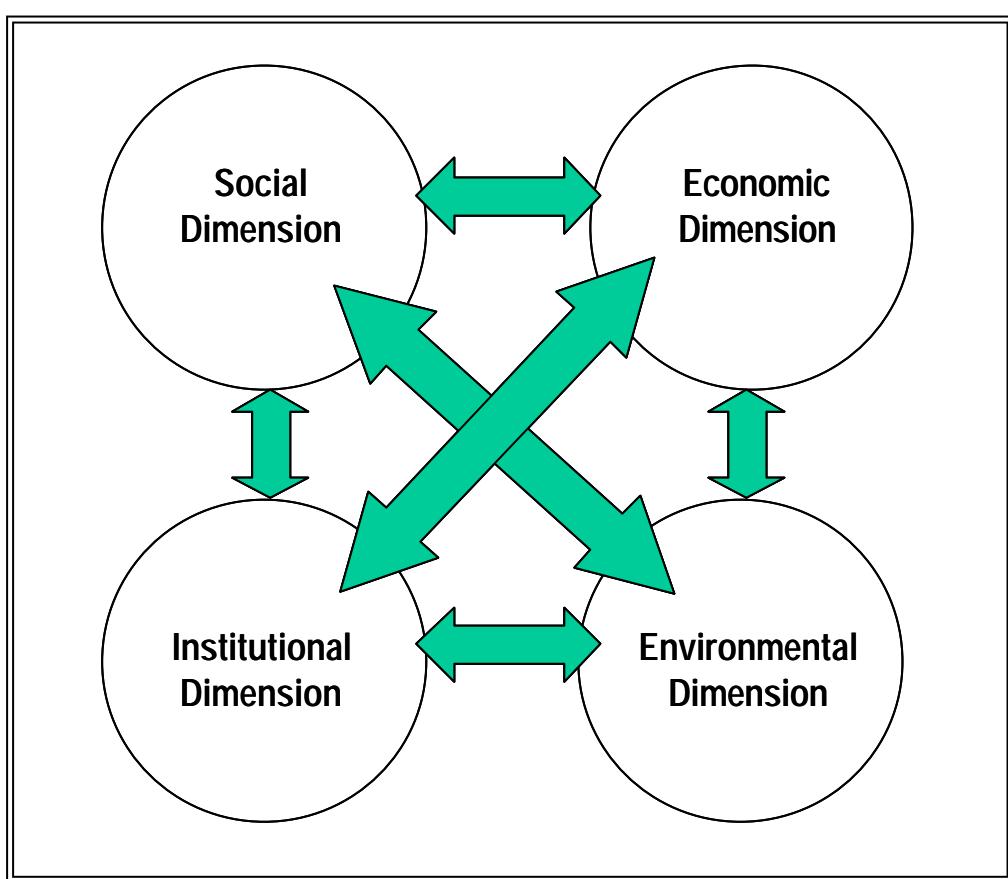
Figure 1:   Fundamental dimensions of the sustainable development paradigm (Adapted from Encyclopaedia of Life Support Systems, 2001: 4)

These dimensions as indicated in figure 1 will be discussed next.

2.6.1 The environmental dimension of sustainable development

People are dependent on the natural environment for meeting all their needs, and therefore the interactions between people and the environment cannot be separated (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1999: 1). Natural capital or natural resources constitute the environmental dimension of sustainable development. It encapsulates agriculture, mining, industry and forestry. It encompasses living systems, plants and animals, water, metal, wood, energy and fossil fuels (coal, gas and oil) and minerals (many of them being non-renewable). All of these are deteriorating worldwide at an unprecedented rate. (Compare Lélé, 1991: 612; Hart, 1998g: 1-2; OECD, 2001b: 8.) Within these ecological communities are the fungi, ponds, mammals, humus, amphibians, bacteria, trees, flagellated, insects, songbirds, ferns, starfish and flowers that make life possible and worth living on this planet. These ecosystem services facilitate economic activity and the immense value thereof cannot be overestimated (Hawken, Lovins and Lovins, 2000: 2). Ecosystem resources that form part of natural capital are: farmlands, wetlands, estuaries, fisheries, fertile soil, sun, wind and tides. Important concepts within this paradigm are "carrying capacity" meaning, the population that an area will support without undergoing environmental deterioration (Hart, 1998i: 1-2). Development becomes sustainable when the need to maintain the ecological balance is taken seriously. All forms of environmental destruction are harmful to human development.

The transboundary nature of many environmental problems comes to the fore when the environmental dimension of sustainable development is under discussion (Hawken, *et al.,* 2000: 4). The main examples of transnational environmental problems are global warming, ozone depletion, air pollution (acid rain), the declining variety of species and the loss of biodiversity. Sustainability implies that present levels of consumption and lifestyles should not threaten the survival needs of future generations (Dobson, 2000: 49; Rodenburg, 1995: 78; O'Connor, 1995: 92).

Mayfield (1997: 421) in his discussion on the significance of the environmental dimension of sustainable development, emphasized the importance of protecting the natural resources needed for food production and cooking fuels – from soils to woodlots to fisheries – while simultaneously providing enough for the needs of growing populations. Mayfield (1997: 421) in his assessment of the environmental dimension made it quite clear that these are potentially conflicting goals. He was adamant that failure to conserve the natural resources on which agriculture depends would ensure future shortages of food. Therefore, sustainable development means more efficient use of arable lands and water supplies, as well as the development and adoption of improved agricultural practices and technologies to increase yields. (Compare Hart, 1998g: 1-4.) Mayfield (1997: 422) further postulated that sustainable environmental management meant avoiding overuse of chemical fertilizers and pesticides, so that they do not degrade rivers and lakes, threaten wildlife, and contaminate human food and water supplies. Mayfield elaborated on this discussion and emphasized that the careful use of irrigation, to avoid salinization or water logging of cropland had to be taken into consideration. The expansion of agriculture onto steep hillsides or marginal soils that would rapidly erode should be avoided.

An important concept within the environmental dimension of sustainable development is eco-efficiency. According to Wolfe (1999: 11) eco-efficiency is a measure of the relative amount of pollution or resource use required to produce a unit of product or service. Wolfe further stated that improving eco-efficiency means producing more of the goods and service desired with fewer resources and less waste. The example given by Wolfe is that by investing in energy efficiency and renewable energy communities are solving environmental problems and building stronger economies. Wolfe further added to this discussion by emphasizing that a key component of sustainability is to adjust economic and accounting calculations by including the effect on the environment. It is thus clear that sustainability recognizes that the economy is a particular

subsystem of the ecosystem. As such, it is dependent on the environment, both as a source for inputs (raw materials) and as a sink for outputs (waste).

The sustainability of the Earth's ecosystems is threatened by human conduct. Sustainability of biodiversity depends on preservation of the delicate balance among them. The Earth's existence itself will be jeopardized by the continued exploitation of natural resources and manufacturing and industrial activities, already affecting negatively the delicate balance that exists in the ecosystem. (Compare Lélé, 1991: 609-611; Wolfe, 1999: 5.) Mayfield (1997: 425) emphasized that economic development and care for the environment are compatible, interdependent, and necessary. A greater emphasis on environmental ethics is needed. Economics and the environment are inextricably linked. Natural resources form the basis of production, manufacturing and waste disposal. Human beings have to consider the conduct of affairs to realize sustainable human development, while at the same time, preserving the integrity of the Earth (Hawken, *et al.,* 2000). The economy depends on the sustainable use of renewable sources. Overuse of these resources for short-term gain may undercut a country's long-term economic future. (Compare Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1999: 1-2.) Lélé (1991: 614) stated in this regard that a basic premise of sustainable development is that poverty is largely responsible for environmental degradation. According to the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (1999: 3) the impacts of poverty on the environment include amongst others, deforestation from excessive collection of wood for fuel, soil degradation through the cultivation of unsuitable soils, and exploitation of rare and endangered species to supplement incomes. The Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism further emphasized that an inability to adequately provide for the basic needs of the population will lead to collapse of the natural ecosystem services and deterioration in quality of life. Lélé (1991: 614) stressed that removal of poverty through development is necessary for environmental sustainability. This, it is argued, implies that economic growth is absolutely necessary for sustainable development. What needs to be done is to

"change the quality of [this] growth" to ensure that it does not lead to environmental destruction. (Compare World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987.)

For the purpose of this research study, the ecological perspective is of particular importance. People and the environment should be seen as a whole ecosystem. Ecological oriented social work practitioners prefer to use an integrated method of practice which is "based on a more extended knowledge base" and is able to study, analyze, explain and clarify people on their psychological level, group and community level (Lombard, 1991: 17-18). Mamburu (2000: 64) concluded by emphasizing that this perspective enables practitioners to intervene on the wholeness between people and environment.

According to Ife (1995: 43) the ecological perspective uses as unifying theme four basic principles of ecology, namely holism, sustainability, diversity and equilibrium – these are fundamental to any ecological approach and apply both to the natural world and to the social, economic, and political order. Ife (1995: 44) stated that the principle of holism requires that every occurrence or phenomenon be seen as part of a whole, and that it can only be properly understood with reference to every other part of the larger system. Ife further explained that the basic premise of this principle is that problems do not have simple or linear solutions but must be understood as manifestations of a wider system. The interdependence between phenomena is of extreme importance and therefore everything must be understood in terms of its relationship and interaction with everything else. Ife stated clearly that phenomena (both physical and social) must be seen as part of a seamless web of complex interconnecting relationships. Holism values generalist rather than specialist approaches to problems and their solutions. It values organic change and change should proceed in small steps but on the broad front. Ife (1995: 45) further emphasized that the holistic perspective requires integrative links to be made between phenomena that have been regarded as distinct.

According to Ife (1995: 45) the second principle, namely sustainability, implies that systems must be able to be maintained in the long term; that resources should be used only at the rate at which they can be replenished; that renewable energy sources should be utilized; that output to the environment should be limited to the level at which it can adequately be absorbed, and that consumption should be minimized rather than maximized.

The third ecological principle, namely, diversity, maintains that there is not necessarily just one answer, or one right way of doing things, and so encourages a range of responses (Ife, 1995: 46). Diversity encourages a variety of different ways of doing things, so that people can learn from the experience of others, and change can proceed on the basis of a variety of accumulated wisdom. According to Ife (1995: 47) difference rather than uniformity is valued.

The fourth ecological principle is equilibrium that emphasizes the importance of the relationship between systems, and the need to maintain a balance between them (Ife, 1995: 48). This perspective values balance, harmony and the capacity to incorporate opposing positions, and dialectical relationships – thus dualisms such as male and female, yin and yang, competition and co-operation, central and local, theory and practice, mind and body, personal and political, fact and value, subjective and objective. According to Ife (1995: 48) these are not seen in "all or nothing" terms, but rather are integrated within a perspective of dynamic tension. It is the balance between them which is important and which must be maintained. The emphasis is on management of the environment in order to maintain the integrity of ecological systems and resources. (Compare Lélé, 1991: 610.) Anand and Sen (1994) supported the principle of preserving productive capacity, or society's broad "stock of capital". Anand and Sen (1994: 10) emphasized the following basic premise: "We may enjoy the fruits of the accumulated capital and environmental resources that we inherit (in the form of the income and amenities to which they give rise), but we may not deplete the total stock. This principle requires us to pass on to future generations what we

96

have inherited from past generations –since we did not accumulate or produce it ourselves".

As previously mentioned the ecological perspective stresses the importance of biodiversity, meaning the variability among living organisms from all sources, including land -based and aquatic ecosystems, and the ecosystems of which they are part. These include diversity within species, between species, and of ecosystems. Diversity is the key to ensuring the continuance of life on earth. It is also a fundamental requirement for adaptation and survival and continued evolution of species. (Compare De Leo and Levin, 1997: 2.)

The above discussion has centered on the various ecological aspects of the sustainable development paradigm. As indicated the environmental aspects of sustainable development require that a balance be found between protecting the physical environment and its resources, and using these resources in a way that will allow the earth to continue supporting an acceptable quality of life for present and future generations of human and animal life.

2.6.2   The economic dimension of sustainable development

The economic dimension of sustainable development encapsulates economic resources, or as it is sometimes referred to, the built or physical capital in a community. Human-made material, buildings, equipment (including machinery, tools and furniture), information, infrastructure (roads, railways, schools and hospitals) are all built or physical capital (Hart, 1998g: 3). It refers to the monetary value of any form of financial asset, money holdings, credit facilities, loans, subsidies, dividends, donations, pensions and grants. Property and capital stock used for production, are part of built capital (Attanasio and Szekely, 1999: 8). It further includes the various ways and means of production and allocation of scarce and useful goods and services (wealth), whether that is through gift

giving, obligations, barter, market trade, transfer payments, lottery winning (gambling) or state allocations in a community.

Bartelmus (1999) wrote that sustainable development is the globally embraced paradigm for integrating environment and development policies and two basic concepts of sustainability can therefore be distinguished. Bartelmus (1999: 3) further emphasized that the long-term preservation of produced and natural capital, income or consumption is the focus of economic sustainability. According to Bartelmus, on the other end of the sustainability scale, ecological sustainability is demanding the full preservation of vital environmental assets and their services. In this author's opinion, economists see the role of the environment as a scarce requisite for economic growth, whereas environmentalists stress nature's provision of life support and other essential facilities.

The World Development Report (1999-2000) stated the following: "Fifty years of development experience have yielded four critical lessons. First, macroeconomic stability is an essential prerequisite for achieving the growth needed for development. Second, growth does not trickle down; development must address human needs directly. Third, no one policy will trigger development: a comprehensive approach is needed. Fourth, institutions matter; sustained development should be rooted in processes that are socially inclusive and responsive to changing circumstances" (The World Bank, 2000: 57). From the same report (The World Bank, 2000: 58) it is emphasized that sustainable development has many objectives. Raising per capita income is only one among many development objectives. Improving quality of life involves more specific goals, namely: better health services and educational opportunities, greater participation in public life, a clean and safe environment and intergenerational equity.

Mayfield (1997: 419) emphasized that economic development does not necessarily mean economic growth; the type of economic activity can change

without increasing the quantity of goods and services. In Mayfield's opinion, many authors argue that not only is economic growth compatible with sustainable development – as long as it is the right kind of growth – it is in fact greatly needed to alleviate poverty and supply the necessary resources for development and therefore prevent further environmental degradation. Mayfield was adamant that the issue is both the quality of the growth and how its benefits are distributed, not growth for the sake of expansion. Mayfield (1997: 419) further stated that some argue, however, that "sustainable growth" is a contradiction in terms, and that a more equitable redistribution of wealth, not growth, is the way to combat poverty. Mayfield concluded that sustainable development related to greater equity is defined as development that improves health care, education, and social well-being. This kind of human development is now recognized as critical to economic development.

The Human Development Report 1991 of the UNDP (in Mayfield, 1997: 419) stated: "Men, women and children must be the center of attention – with development woven around people, not people around development". Development is not about economic performance alone, but about people, communities and well-being. (Compare Jahan, 2001: 1.) According to Mayfield (1997: 419) definitions of sustainable development stress that development must be participatory and must involve local people in decisions that affect their lives. Mayfield further commented on the fact that some authors have expanded the definition of sustainable development still further to include a rapid transformation of the technological base of industrial civilization. In Mayfield's opinion these authors pointed out that new technology is needed that is cleaner, more efficient, and more sparing of natural resources to facilitate a reduction in pollution, and accommodate growth in population and economic activity. From the above discussions it is evident that definitions of sustainable development attempt to encompass several dimensions, namely: economic, human, environmental, and technological.

The above discussion has centered on the economic dimension of sustainable development. The economic aspects of sustainable development require the development of an economic system that facilitates equitable access to resources and opportunities. It implies the fair sharing of ecological resources that enables sustainable livelihoods and establishes viable businesses and industries based on sound ethical principles. The focus is on attempting to create prosperity for all, not just profits for a few, and to do this within the bounds of the ecologically possible and by protecting basic human rights. (Compare CSIR, 2002; OECD, 2001b: 5.) The long-term sustainability of economic growth and progress depends on maintaining the overall ecosystem resources, a healthy environment and cohesive societies.

2.6.3   The social dimension of sustainable development

As already mentioned in chapter one of this study, sustainable development has been defined as a process whereby future generations receive as much or more capital per capita as the current generation has available (Grootaert, 1998:1). Anand and Sen (1994: 12) emphasised the following: "The moral obligation underlying sustainability is an injunction to preserve the capacity for future people to be as well off as we are". Traditionally, this has included natural capital, physical or produced capital, and human capital as the wealth of nations on which economic development and growth are based. It is now recognized that these three types of capital determine only partially the process of economic growth because they overlook the way in which the economic actors interact and organize themselves to generate growth and development. The missing link was social capital (Grootaert, 1998: 1; Hart, 1998g: 2). Banerjee (2003: 162) contributed to this discussion and stated the following in this regard: "Efforts to broaden the scope of greening to include social sustainability are also under way. This "triple bottom line" approach assesses the social and environmental aspects of business, as distinct from its economic impact".

100

An overview of the literature (compare Anand and Sen, 1994: 12; Midgley, 1995; Grootaert, 1998; Hart, 1998g; Falk and Kilpatrick, 1999: 20; Dubois, *et al.*, 2002; Ikerd, 2000: 4; and Grootaert and van Bastelaer; 2001) supported the following description of the different capitals. Human capital refers to the development of knowledge and skills. Within the concept of human capital there is support for ongoing education and lifelong learning to achieve personal empowerment. Economic capital entails all income generating activities and the development of business infrastructure on micro and macro levels, which will, in turn, empower individuals on socio-economic and political levels. Social capital includes the development of social networks and support systems, relationships and infrastructure that will facilitate empowerment on an interpersonal level. Grootaert (1998: 3) emphasized that social capital also includes the social and political environment that enables norms to develop and shapes social structure. In the context of this research study the social dimension and therefore the development of social capital was of particular importance.

Martin (2001: 3) emphasized the general agreement that the social dimension is one of the three integral pillars of the concept sustainable development and is much broader than just the interface between environmental and social policies. Martin (2001: 4) further highlighted the importance of the intergenerational dimensions of the concept of socially sustainable development and irreversible social problems –such as poverty and social exclusion should receive the highest priority. Thin (2002: 4) added to this discussion and contributed the following: "Today, everyone seems to agree that it is important to pay more attention to the "social" dimensions of development. This is to complement the "economic" dimensions (which have often been so dominant in development analysis that "development" is used as shorthand for "economic development") and the "environmental" dimensions (which have dominated sustainability analysis)". Dubois, *et al.* (2002: 1) contributed a valuable description of the social dimension. These authors stated the following: "… the social dimension focuses on the reinforcement of human and social capital and social sustainability

101

becomes a key component for a sustainable human development. Social sustainability means that no social imbalance would be generated by economic growth. For such imbalance, by destroying human and social capital, could in turn jeopardize the long-term growth and the improvement in the living conditions". These authors (2002: 8) postulated that social sustainability refers to two particular forms of capital: human capital and social capital. In their opinion (2002: 9) human capital is the result of years of continued education and professional experience, of regular good health care and adequate food and nutrition. Dubois, *et al*. stressed that situations such as unemployment, poverty, and social exclusion contribute to the lack of development of human capital. Slowing down the access to health and education services further hampers this, and therefore the accumulation of human capital is limited. This decreases the value of individual as well as collective human capital. (Compare Ikerd, 2000: 5.)

According to the OECD (2001c: 4), different researchers have defined social capital variously. The OECD (2001c: 4) defined this concept to include the networks, norms, values and understandings that facilitate co-operation within or among group. The OECD (2001c: 4) stated that social capital is to be distinguished from the more formal political, institutional and legal arrangements that have a complementary role in this process. Dubois, *et al*. (2002: 9) confirmed that social capital is connected to the relationships and interactions that exist between individuals through families, neighbours, networks and associations, as the sharing of standards and common values. In their opinion this capital allows the individual to obtain social advantages, for example, transfers of money or personal help, granting of loans, and access to information and jobs. (Compare Attanasio and Székely, 1999: 8.) Grootaert (1998: 4) stated that the information-sharing role of social capital is of key importance for poverty alleviation. Grootaert cited the case of mutual credit groups as an important example of information-sharing. These groups permit the poor to overcome one of their main constraints, namely access to credit.

Grootaert and van Bastelaer (2001: 6) also provided the following explanation of social capital: "The social capital of a society includes the institutions, the relationships, the attitudes and values that govern interactions among people and contribute to economic and social development". According to these authors the notion that social relations, networks, norms, and values matter in the functioning and development of society has long been present in the economics, sociology, anthropology, and political science literature. The idea of social capital as a unifying concept, embodying multidisciplinary views, came to the fore in the last ten years. These authors mentioned that the concept had been greatly stimulated by the writings of scholars such as James Coleman, (1988 and 1990); Robert Putnam, (1993); Portes, (1998); Narayan, (1999) and Serageldin, (2000).

Portes (in Falk and Kilpatrick, 1999: 2) observed that, "Whereas economic capital is in people's bank accounts and human capital is inside their heads, social capital inheres in the structure of their relationships". The focus in the social dimension of sustainable development is thus on the structure and outcomes of relationships and social interactions. Every community contains enormous resources of human potential and capability – even those communities that seem to have severe problems – such as poverty, crime, drug and alcohol addiction, environmental degradation, ill health and sub-standard housing. Every community has untapped potential that can create decent-wage paying employment. Social capital must ultimately be seen in the context of the contribution it makes to sustainable development (Grootaert and van Bastelaer, 2001: 6).

Robinson (in Byrne, 1999: 5) linked the concepts of social cohesion and social capital by arguing that social capital is a contributing factor to a cohesive society. He stressed that social capital should not be confused with other non-economic forms of capital (specifically human and cultural capital). Robinson suggested that the collective impact of all three could be encompassed in the term "community capital". Byrne (1999: 5) added to this discussion and in her

perspective social capital is one of the three key requirements of a strong civil society – alongside active citizenship and effective interactions between communities and their organizations.

Boody and Krinke (2001: 10) referred to social capital in a community as being the mutual reciprocity and mutual trust that exists among its citizens, collective identity, a shared vision and working together. These authors stated that social capital contributes to the formation of financial and human capital. Boody and Krinke stipulated that social capital that forms between like people or groups, is called "bonding" social capital. Social capital that forms between or among groups with different interests is called "bridging" social capital. (Compare Boody and Krinke, 2001: 10; Stocker in Byrne, 1999: 6.) Putnam (in Byrne, 1999: 5) referred to social capital being: "...feature of social organization, such as networks, norms, and trust, that facilitate co-ordination and co-operation for mutual benefit. Social capital enhances the benefits of investment in financial and manufactured and human capital". Grootaert and van Bastelaer (2001: 7) emphasized that social capital could be horizontal, vertical or non-existent. Vertical social capital refers to strong hierarchical structures and relationships, where the receivers of favours are indebted to the "patron". Non-existence or the absence of social capital is characterized by isolation, high levels of conflict, and in poorer communities, there are often high levels of crime. In communities with low levels of social capital, there are lower levels of government efficiency, lower levels of satisfaction with government, and slower rates of economic development than in communities with high levels of social capital. Dubois, *et al*. (2002: 9) confirmed this viewpoint and added that the stock of social capital could be affected by a decrease in the social cohesion, a loss of confidence, religious or ethnic group conflicts, which could degenerate into civil war or genocide.

According to Putnam (in Byrne, 1999: 5), social capital is a public good, self-reinforcing and cumulative – those who possess it tend to accumulate more. It is also a moral resource, "that is, a resource whose supply increases rather than

decreases through use and which (unlike physical capital) becomes depleted if not used". Trust emerged in Putnam's work as an important dimension of social capital. (Compare Falk and Kilpatrick, 1999: 3.) Putnam (in Byrne, 1999: 6) also emphasized the risks of destroying social capital: "Precisely because social capital is a public good, the costs of closing factories and destroying communities go beyond the personal trauma borne by individuals...The fact that these collective costs are not well measured by our current accounting schemes does not mean that they are not real. Shred enough of the social fabric and we all pay". Reid (in Byrne, 1999: 11) confirmed that social capital is generated in the relationships and connections between people and therefore primarily constructed at a community level (Compare Bynner, 2002: 3.) A community builds social capital from individual to group levels through the learning interactions of its members. It is produced and used in everyday interactions between individuals and between communities. Learning is a mechanism for building social capital and is an important determinant of economic growth and political stability (Compare Falk and Kilpatrick, 1999: 7.)

According to Ife (1995: 84) the concept of sustainability, fundamental to the ecological perspective, has been developed primarily from the study of biological and physical systems. Within this particular paradigm it focused on population, species survival, pollution, energy and a vast array of environmental problems. Ife (1995: 84) stated that it was subsequently applied to economic systems, the result being the original and exciting work of Green economists such as Paul Ekins (1986), Manfred Max-Neef (1991) and Hazel Henderson (1988, 1991). An integration of an ecological and social justice perspective leads to a further extension of the concept to incorporate an understanding of social sustainability. According to Ife (1995: 84) this suggests that social systems and institutions, such as the family, the community, bureaucracies, educational institutions and voluntary organizations, need to be evaluated from the point of view of their sustainability. Ife contributed further to explain that the principle of sustainability applied to social systems, implies that they must be evaluated not simply in terms

of their immediate role and function, but also in terms of their long-term viability, their impact on other systems, the energy they extract from their environment, and their output.

In the context of this research study and in agreement with the abovementioned viewpoint of Ife, the contribution made by Dubois (2003: 4) is of particular importance, namely: " Social sustainability refers to the social dimension of sustainable development. It implies that the various economic, social and ecological policies being implemented in the context of development should not generate negative consequences or social dysfunctionings that destroy the social cohesion, jeopardize human and social capital and reduce people's capability of improving their well-being presently or in the future".

Ife (1995: 89) was of the opinion that the ecological and social justice perspectives, taken together, form the basis of a vision of a future society. Ife further suggested that the social justice perspective provided a vision of what is socially desirable: a society based on equity, empowerment, the overcoming of structural disadvantage, freedom to define needs and have them met, and the definition and guaranteeing of rights. (Compare Hart, 1998h: 1.) This author (1995: 89) further stated that the ecological perspective provides a vision of what is feasible, that is the kind of society, which will be viable in the long term, one that is based on the principles of holism, sustainability, diversity and balance. In this regard Ife (1995: 89) contributed the following: "Taken together they represent a powerful vision of the future, and an important component of that vision is the concept of community, which is inevitably a fundamental concept for any "community development" perspective".

Wolfe (1999: 8) added another dimension to this discussion, namely, that a truly sustainable community must concern itself with the deeper issues of social justice and environmental racism. Wolfe's concern was that sustainability could easily deteriorate into ecological efficiency for the rich. Wolfe (1999: 9) further

106

expanded on this discussion and stated that environmental racism is the term for the thesis that in certain countries, people of colour and other minority groups are more likely to live in districts with a shortage of green space and parks, and are exposed to polluting industries, contaminated waste sites, noisy and noxious highways. Society must concern itself with the geographic and social location of its efforts, avoiding locating polluting-generating activities in impoverished areas or neighbourhoods, and appropriately locating remediation and prevention efforts. There is a need to go beyond local community and consider the impacts of energy, financial and material flows in the community. A global view of community means that there is serious consideration whether the use of resources is exploitative and unfair to other people. Wolfe (1999: 9) postulated that a healthy community is one where everyone enjoys a high quality of life, including environmental, social, political, economic, behavioural, biological and medical factors. (Compare Mamburu, 2000: 63.)

According to Wolfe (1999: 9) equity is a subjective perception that things are just and fair. Wolfe mentioned that it is not synonymous with equality, but rather emphasizes that the distribution of wealth, opportunity, and power is seen to be fair. Thin (2002: 6) was of the opinion that the issue of equity has become emphatically linked with sustainability issues, reason being that the promotion of equity is a pragmatic issue, since sustainability of development depends on the reduction of poverty and insecurity everywhere. In this regard the UNDP (in Thin, 2002: 6) stated: "Development that perpetuates today's inequalities is neither sustainable nor worth sustaining". The alleviation of poverty is fundamental to the achievement of sustainable development. For poor countries that means the commitment of resources toward continued improvement in living standards. Hart (1998h: 1) added to the discussion with regard to equity (or inequity) and emphasized the following: "The preservation (or acquisition) of basic human rights and the fulfilment of basic human needs are the fundamental driving forces behind economic transactions, social interactions, and resource consumption. When people are operating under duress in any of these areas, concern for

immediate needs overwhelms any consideration for long term needs, thereby undermining the whole principle of planning for the future".

Alleviating absolute poverty also has important practical consequences for sustainable development, since there are close links between poverty, environmental degradation, and rapid population growth. People whose basic needs are unmet and whose survival may be in doubt perceive no stake in the future of the planet and have no reason to consider the sustainability of their actions. Hvid and Lund (2002: 2) with reference to the abovementioned UNDP Report stated that sustainability has both an environmental and a social dimension, and these two dimensions are clearly related. It has very little meaning to ask poor peasants in the third world, living in hunger and having a high mortality rate, to act sustainably. Survival is their first priority. The links between poverty and environment arise in terms of three vitally important dimensions of poverty reduction – livelihoods, health, and vulnerability.

The World Bank (2002: 1) stated that the poor are strongly dependent on natural resources for their livelihoods. A polluted environment, particularly unclean water and indoor pollution, affects the poor adversely. The World Bank emphasized that the poor are particularly vulnerable to environmental stress and disasters such as droughts and floods. It is of the utmost importance that in the search for solutions there are decisive indications to go beyond a narrow focus on "environmental management" in order to tackle the root causes of degradation. The OECD (2001b: 12) indicated the importance of international co-operation to address economic priorities and how difficult this can be when a large number of people – mainly in developing countries – cannot satisfy their fundamental needs because of poverty, malnutrition, illiteracy and inadequate access to basic services. The consequences of poverty often persist over time, and spread across countries in the form of conflicts, migration and disease. The OECD (2001b: 12) stated clearly that poverty reduction is therefore integral to the pursuit of sustainable development worldwide.

108

Within the context of the social dimension of sustainable development, an important contribution is that of Valli Moosa, South Africa's Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism. In his opinion (2002: 8-9) sustainable development refers to a kind of development that aims for equity within and between generations. This approach implies that the economic, social and environmental aspects of development are considered in a holistic manner. According to Minister Moosa, it is useful to think of the three pillars of sustainable development as a tripod with three legs corresponding with economic, social and environmental pillars. A weakening of one leg will weaken the whole structure and without one leg the structure cannot stand. A country's governance framework constitutes the glue that holds the different legs together. Sustainable development according to Moosa (2002) is not a contradiction in terms. It is essential to understand that environment and development is interlinked and that poverty is the major threat to sustainable development. It would therefore appear to be vital to recognize that it is not just about the environment. People want a clean environment, but they also need jobs, health care and a good education. It was for that reason that South Africa argued in favour of poverty eradication as the over-arching theme for the World Summit in Johannesburg in 2002. Poor people are more vulnerable to the effects of environmental destruction. If natural resources are depleted, those communities making a living from the land or from the fruits of the sea, rivers and dams, will undoubtedly suffer. Sustainable development is not possible without focusing on the social dimension and the related social issues that form an integral part of this very important dimension. Ikerd (2000: 6) contributed the following in this regard: "Admittedly, the most difficult challenges in developing a sustainable economy are likely to arise from the integration of its economic, social and ecological dimensions – in maintaining a positive, dynamic balance or harmony among the three".

An important aspect of a comprehensive sustainable development approach is equity. When different groups of people are denied the opportunity to fully participate in all activities, benefits and decision-making in a society, it will

109

undermine their capacity to make informed choices and contributions to their communities. The message appears to be that fairness, whether all people have similar rights, opportunities and access to all forms of community capital, is vital for sustaining development. The protection of human rights and the fulfilment of basic human needs are the fundamental driving forces behind economic transactions, social interactions, and resource consumption.

The social dimension of sustainable development encapsulates human development, and that is equally about fair distribution of resources and opportunities. A distinction has to be made between equity and equality. All people must have an equal opportunity to maximize their full potential, and have adequate access to the basic necessities of life. If this is compromised, tensions will develop within communities and broader society. Within this context social sustainability means maintaining social capital, meaning the investments and services that comprises the basic framework for society to function effectively. (Compare Monaheng, 1998: 36.)

Njiro (2002: 3) was in support of the abovementioned view and stated the following in this regard: "It is clear that sustainable development is a complex process. The earth's environment constitutes many ecosystems, terrains and diverse cultures that determine survival mechanisms for people. Who determines what is sustainable development and what indicators are used to measure it? Is it possible to prescribe uniform solutions or make agreements at world conferences that adequately address major issues facing the earth's environment? To what extent are policy-makers prepared to address the fact that environmental problems are intricately linked to economic conditions? Are they prepared to challenge forms of political-economic and social justice in the world? How do we address poverty and the poor living standards caused by weak national economies that force people to over-consume natural resources?"

110

The journalist Niki Moore (2002: 30) contributed a valuable perspective to this debate: "The Lake St Lucia World Heritage Site in Zululand might have one of the world's most valuable wetland systems, but the rural women living nearby who have to walk 2km every day to fetch water don't really care about that. The Ukhahlamba Drakensberg World Heritage Site might have some irreplaceable San rock paintings, but the neighbouring herdsmen don't give a hoot about that either. The malnourished teenager living on the border of the Mkuze game reserve doesn't know that the animal he is eyeing through the electric fence might be the last of its species – all he knows is that barbed wire stands between him and dinner".

Mayfield (1997: 420) added another dimension to the debate when it is stated that poor families tend to have more children in an effort to increase the family labour force and to provide security for their old age. With regard to this perspective of Mayfield, sustainable development means significant progress toward stable populations. Mayfield (1997: 420) emphasized that this is clearly important because rapid growth puts severe strains on natural resources and on the ability of governments to provide services. In this regard vigorous rural development is crucial to help slow migration to cities. Mayfield (1997: 421) further stressed that policy measures and the development of technologies are important to minimize the detrimental environmental consequences of urbanization.

Mayfield (1997: 421) discussed the important role of women in development by stressing the magnitude of tasks and roles they perform. He emphasized the fact that in many developing countries, women and children grow the subsistence crops, graze animals, gather wood and water, use most of the household's energy in cooking, and care for the household's immediate environment. Women are the primary resource and environmental managers in the household, as well as the primary caregivers for children. Unfortunately their health and education are often neglected in comparison to those of men. The importance of education

111

is highlighted when it becomes evident that better educated women have greater access to contraception and, on average, lower fertility rates, as well as healthier babies. Mayfield (1997: 421) was very clear when he stated that the investment in the health and education of women could have significant benefits for sustainability. According to Mayfield (1997: 340) education and training that improves literacy, leadership, technical skills, and functional knowledge have been instrumental in increasing the economic strength of the family unit and that of the community.

A valuable opinion is that of Ramphele (2002: 161) when she expressed the following view: "It is the strength of black, especially African, women in situations such as these ravaged areas like New Crossroads that has kept a semblance of normality in families under siege from the legacy of racism, sexism and poverty. A lot more appreciation of this fact is needed to ensure that the implementation of social policies and the provision of services builds on, and supports, the strengths in women. Development that undermines women is bound to fail for this and many other reasons. There is fortunately growing recognition among people in development agencies that eliminating gender inequity is essential to sustainable development. Women are better managers of scarce resources, so enhancing their participation in socioeconomic and political decision-making is essential to the promotion of greater efficiency and effectiveness of public resources". It would therefore appear to be of the utmost importance to invest in the education, health and development of women, as they are the caregivers and often, the primary providers for not only their own families but also those of friends, extended families and neighbours.

As previously stated social capital refers to the institutions, relationships, networks and norms that shape the quality and quantity of a society's social interactions. It is an integral component of social and economic development on micro and macro level (Grootaert, 1998; Falk and Kilpatrick, 1999; Grootaert and van Bastelaer, 2001). It refers to connections in a community – the ways in which

people interact and relate to each other, between family, neighbours and the wider community. Local and provincial government, volunteer organizations, clubs, community action groups; information sources all form part of social capital. Social capital is an integral part of community existence, needed to create goods and services to satisfy the needs of community.

Attanasio and Székely (1999: 8) added to this discussion and adopted a conventional definition by Putman, which referred to the set of norms and social networks that facilitate collective action among individuals. Unlike other forms of capital, social capital inheres in the structure of relations between persons and among persons, so it is the most difficult to quantify. The NGO, Ecotrust ([sa]: 1) contributed to the description of social capital by stating that it includes education (schools, colleges, universities, libraries and knowledge archives), health clinics and legal and police systems. Ecotrust ([sa]: 1) further emphasized that social capital, like natural capital, suffers from chronic underinvestment because its stream of benefits, including safety and security, friendship and community and a sense of civic identity, access to knowledge and many others, is hard to quantify in economic terms. As previously mentioned, in practice, the concept of social capital is difficult to make operational and to measure. The OECD (2001b: 14) also referred to Putnam who developed proxy measures based on statistics of the following dimensions of community life:

i.   the amount of involvement in community and organizational life;

ii.   public engagement (e.g. voting);

iii.   volunteer community activities

iv.   informal sociability (e.g. visiting friends); and

v.   reported levels of interpersonal trust

Social capital represents people's ability and willingness to create and sustain voluntary associations, based on the idea that a healthy community is essential to economic prosperity. It also represents people's ability to work together to solve their own problems through collective action (Carmen and Sobrado, 2000:

113

162). Social capital can be accumulated when people interact with others in families, workplaces, neighbourhoods, local associations and a range of informal and formal meeting places. It constitutes those networks, together with shared norms, values and understandings that facilitate cooperation within or among groups. Mamburu (2000: 65) and Midgley and Livermore (1998: 29) contributed to the discussion and referred to the contribution made by individuals, families or communities to their community organizations as "social capital", and defined the concept as it "is widely used to connote the importance of local community networks and associations in society".

Of particular importance to this research study is the fact that social capital also refers to the interactions and relationships between community workers, community members, consultants and funding agencies. Higher levels of mutual trust, reciprocity, unwritten and unspoken agreement about societal rules, and social cohesion characterize communities or societies with high social capital. Such societies may also be more effective at achieving collective goals – including those for environmental protection. In developing countries, where the role of formal institutions is less developed, informal arrangements provided by families, friends and local communities might be crucial in ensuring well-being and, indeed, survival. While the notion of social capital is relevant for both developed and developing countries, it seems especially important in the context of development and poverty eradication, and has been given much prominence in recent World Bank work (OECD, 2001b: 14).

A collaborative relationship is the one that ensures community development. It is social capital that enhances social well-being and promotes economic capital of the community. Midgley and Livermore, (1998: 32) added their voice to the discussion with regard to social capital and stated that it may be defined as a "social infrastructure in which individuals develop a relationship that are aimed at common goals and objectives". Mamburu (2000: 65) postulated that social capital formation is a process supported by the community worker that has as its aim

bringing together members of the community with common interest, to identify and define their problem, plan interventions, take action to redress the problem and evaluate the outcome of interventions taken. Mamburu further emphasized that social capital influences and is in turn influenced by the economic capital, e.g. there would be poor investments in areas where there is social disintegration and high incidence of crime. Social capital, however, is not simply the sum of the institutions, which underpin society; it is also the glue that holds them together. Without a degree of common identification with forms of governance, cultural norms, and social rules, it is difficult to imagine a functioning society (The World Bank, 1998: 1).

The level of social capital in societies, and individual access to such capital, is often measured through participation rates in different types of associational life, and self-reported levels of trust. Research (OECD, 2001c: 4) links social capital, and access to such capital, with:

- improved health – for example, one study shows that social connectedness is associated with a reduced risk of Alzheimer's disease;
- greater well-being according to self-reported survey measures;
- better care for children; for example, the social connectedness of mothers has been shown to reduce the risk of child abuse and social problems among children and teenagers;
- lower crime; neighbourhood trust is associated with lower crime rates;
- improved government – regions or states with higher levels of trust and engagement tend to have better-quality government.

The OECD (2001c: 5) further suggested that it appears that particular aspects of social capital are positively linked to economic activity. For example, the evidence suggested that:

- social networks help people to find jobs;
- trust encourages more effective use of credit;
- co-operative attitudes within firms re-linked to output and profitability; and

- regional clusters of innovative industries depend on local social networks to spread and share tacit knowledge. (Compare Schuller, 2000.)

Within the sustainable development paradigm, from the social dimension point of view, the emphasis is on human actors, and the importance of their relationships and patterns of social organization. Kleinman (in Schuller, 2000) was of the opinion that social capital is as important to economic development as economic capital. Some kinds of human capital – like teamwork and communication skills – act to support social capital, and investment in those skills will therefore represent a contribution to both types of capital. The OECD (2001c: 6) stated in this regard that given the strong role, which human capital, and access to social capital, has in determining the life-chances of individuals, they would have an equally powerful impact on social exclusion and equity. Human capital is an integral part of the creation of social capital and refers to people with their skills, interests, capabilities, intellectual abilities, self-esteem, courage, perseverance, creativity and physical and mental health. It includes education and training and life experiences. The ability of people to obtain and process information is influenced by human capital. Human capital is the building of assets and self-reliance and includes the set of skills that are needed to produce products or services. It would include organizations with people and their ability to be economically productive. Education, training and health care can help increase human capital (Boody and Krinke, 2001: 10). Banerjee (2003: 173) added another dimension to the discussion with regard to the development of social and human capital as integral parts of the social dimension of sustainable development. Banerjee postulated the following: "The literature on sustainable development has virtually no discussion on the empowerment of local communities, except for some passing references to "consulting" with communities or "ensuring their participation", without providing any framework for how this is to be achieved (Derman 1995)".

In the context of this research study the concept of social justice as extensively defined by Ife is of particular importance. According to Ife (1995: 51) the **social justice perspective** is based on six principles, namely: structural disadvantage, empowerment, needs, rights, peace and non-violence and participatory democracy. For the purpose of this study a short summary of the main issues of each of the principles will be discussed.

❑ **The principle of structural disadvantage**

 According to Ife (1995: 53) structural accounts of social issues state the problem as caused by oppressive and inequitable social structures. Ife stated that this approach might be termed "blaming the system", as it concentrates on issues such as patriarchy, capitalism, institutional racism or income distribution, and identifies oppression or structural disadvantage as the major issue to be addressed. Its prescriptions for change require major restructuring of society, in that it sees social problems as embedded in the oppressive structures of that society, whether seen in terms of class, race or gender.

❑ **The principle of empowerment**

Ife stated that the notion of empowerment is central to a social justice strategy. According to Ife (1995: 56) a simple working definition of empowerment is as follows: "empowerment aims to increase the power of the disadvantaged". In Ife's opinion (1995: 60) there are seven kinds of power as being involved in community-based empowerment strategies, these overlap and often in complex ways, namely:

▪ **Personal choices and life chances:** Ife (1995: 60) stated that many people have little power to determine the course of their own lives. This refers to making decisions about their lifestyle, where they will live and the occupation that they choose to follow. Ife (1995: 60) further stated that very often patriarchal structures restrict the power of women in making personal choices. Cultural norms and values come into play. An empowerment strategy

would seek to maximize people's effective choices, to increase their power over decisions involving their personal futures.

- **The definition of need:** Often needs are not determined or defined by the person who is supposedly experiencing them. In socialist regimes the state has taken on responsibility for defining people's needs. In other cases, it is professionals such as doctors, social workers, and psychologists, and teachers who have become the experts in definition of need. This is seen as disempowering, and an empowerment perspective would require that people are given the power of defining their own needs. Ife stated (1995: 61) that need definition requires relevant knowledge and expertise and such an empowerment process requires education and access to information.
- **Ideas:** Ife (1995: 61) postulated that an empowerment process should incorporate the power to think autonomously and not have one's worldview dictated either by force or by being denied access to alternative frames of reference. It should allow people to engage in dialogue with each other and expression of ideas. People should be encouraged to contribute to public culture by expressing their ideas and entering into dialogue with one another.
- **Institutions:** Ife (1995: 61) stated that a good deal of disempowerment comes from the effect of social institutions, such as the education system, the health system, the family, the Church, the social welfare system, government structures and the media. Ife further stated that to counteract this, an empowerment strategy would aim to increase people's power over these institutions and their effects, by equipping people to have an impact on them, and by changing institutions to make them more accessible, responsive and accountable to all people.
- **Resources:** Ife (1995: 61) stated that an empowerment strategy would seek to maximize the effective power of all people over the distribution and use of resources, namely; financial resources and non-monetary resources, e.g. education, personal growth, recreation and cultural experience.
- **Economic activity:** According to Ife (1995: 61) the basic mechanisms of production, distribution and exchange are vital in any society. To have power

in a society an individual must be able to have some control over and access to these mechanisms. This power is unequally distributed in a modern capitalist society. An empowerment process would, therefore, seek to ensure that power over economic activity was more evenly distributed.

▪ **Reproduction**: Ife (1995: 62) mentioned that this category closely relates to power over personal choice and power over ideas. Included in the notion of reproduction is not only the process of birth, but child rearing, education and socialization. It implies all mechanisms by which the social, political and economic order is reproduced in succeeding generations.

Ife (1995: 63) stated that through a process of policy and planning and by developing or changing structures and institutions, empowerment is achieved. This is necessary to bring about more equitable access to resources or services. Policies of affirmative action acknowledge the existence of disadvantaged groups and seek to redress this disadvantage by "changing the rule" to favour the disadvantage. Empowerment through social and political action emphasizes the importance of political struggle and change in increasing effective power. It emphasizes the activist approach and seeks to enable people to increase their power through some form of direct action. Ife (1995: 64) further mentioned that empowerment through education and consciousness raising emphasizes the importance of an educative process in equipping people to increase their power. This incorporates notions of consciousness raising: helping people to understand the society and the structures of oppression, giving people the vocabulary and skills to work towards effective participation in society.

Ife (1995: 65) wrote that social justice principles are frequently expressed in terms of need. The notion of need is fundamental in social policy, social planning and community development. There are two ways in which need is seen as basic to social justice and community development; firstly, a belief that people or communities should have their needs "met", and secondly, that people or communities should be able to define their own needs rather than have them

119

defined by others. Ife (1995: 68) made the argument that an empowerment base for community development requires that people have the capacity to define their own needs, and to act to have them met. The role of professionals, community caretakers, researchers and planners must be to assist the community with its own need definition – through helping to provide expertise when necessary and through facilitating the process. The way in which needs are defined or expressed may well be relative, because of cultural or other variations, but the human rights inherent in them can be claimed to be universal.

A social justice perspective, by acknowledging the reality of structural disadvantage and pursuing an empowerment model, will seek to improve the effective rights of the disadvantaged. According to Ife (1995: 71) people must be assisted to know their rights – many people are not aware of rights although there may be legislation. It is further necessary for people to be helped to assert and define their rights – often rights can only be realized if they are effectively claimed and many people will lack the knowledge, skills and resources to do so.

Ife (1995: 72) was of the opinion that the non-violent position also accepts a broader definition of violence than is normally understood, in that it includes notions of institutional and structural violence. From this perspective structures, which perpetuate inequality, poverty and oppression, are by their very nature violent and need to be opposed. The way in which many social institutions operate is seen as violent in that it perpetuates the structures and practices of oppression.

A valuable contribution was made by Ife (1995: 74) when it was stated that like peace, democracy is an idea, which is widely if not universally valued, and again, like peace, it is significant that its achievement has been so difficult despite its widespread appeal. Democracy basically means "rule of the people". What is more important is how that rule will be exercised. One possibility is participatory democracy – the people participate directly in decision-making. In representative

democracy the role of the people is to select through elections those who are then entrusted to make decisions on their behalf. A more participatory model of democracy is an important component of a social justice strategy. There are four important characteristics of a participatory democracy approach, which are of particular significance for community development: decentralization, accountability, education and obligation.

From the above discussion it was evident that the six key components, namely structural disadvantage, empowerment, needs, rights, peace and non-violence and participatory democracy of a social justice approach are not independent. There are obvious links between them, and all are necessary for sustainable development.

Table 1: Empowerment (Adapted from Ife, 1995: 64)

To increase the power of:	primary structural disadvantaged groups:	class:
		  the poor
		  the unemployed
		  low income workers
		  Social Security beneficiaries
		gender:
		  women
		race/ethnicity:
		  indigenous people
		  ethnic and cultural minorities

	Other disadvantaged groups:	the aged children and youth the disabled (physically, mentally and intellectually gays and lesbians the isolated (geographically and socially) etc.
	The personally disadvantaged:	Those experiencing grief, loss, personal and family problems, etc.
over:	personal choices and life chances need definition ideas institutions resources economic activity reproduction	
through:	policy and planning social and political action education	

According to The World Bank (2000: xxiii) the empowerment approach focuses on enhancing poor people's freedom of choice and action. Empowerment of poor people is an end in itself and is critical for development to be effective. It is not a stand-alone strategy but a way of doing development, grounded in the conviction that poor people themselves are the most invaluable partners in the task of poverty reduction. Empowerment approaches include behaviours that build people's self-confidence and their belief in them, and respect their dignity. From the same report (2000: 6) it is stated that when inequality is high, poor people lack capabilities and assets (ranging from literacy to collateral for credit) and thus have difficulty taking advantage of economic opportunity. This limits a society's potential for growth in general and pro-poor growth in particular, and consequently the effectiveness of development efforts. It is clear that empowerment is the key for a quality of life and human dignity, good governance, it is pro-poor growth and project effectiveness and improved service delivery.

From the above discussion, it can be concluded that the social dimension is as important as the environmental and economic dimensions to ensure the sustainable development of communities and of nations.

2.6.4   The institutional dimension of sustainable development

Sustainability has an important institutional dimension, which inextricably links it with the other three aspects of human development (empowerment, equity and capacity building). Empowerment, which follows from the equitable distribution of resources, enhances the capacity for sustaining the development process. It facilitates the tapping of the potentials of previously excluded individuals and groups. (Compare Monaheng, 1998: 36.) According to the European Commission (2002: 6) during the 20th century, tangible elements such as capital, natural resources and labour were the driving forces behind economic development. Now, in the 21st century, many development experts and policy-makers regard investing in science and technology as a means for driving forward progress in

development. Successful science and technology endeavour is a gradual process that combines training, education, infrastructure, continued investment, competence and experience. The European Commission (2002: 6) stated in this regard: "The message is clear. In the new century, intangible elements such as the capacity to generate and use scientific and technological knowledge, access to information, and human creativity will give nations a competitive edge. Developing countries that lagged behind in their industrialization during the 20th century can overcome poverty and achieve economic growth by successfully developing their human and institutional resources". The Commission expressed a view that knowledge has become an important and growing factor in economic development and competitiveness, and the tool to overcome the imbalance in "knowledge assets" between industrialised and developing countries. Investing in knowledge generation and use will prevent the exclusion of developing economies from the knowledge society and all the negative impacts associated with such exclusion. In this context, it is important to emphasize European Commissioner Paul Nielsen's remarks to the European Parliament (in European Commission, 2002: 6): "I agree that sustainable improvement of human well-being now depends crucially on knowledge, its production, distribution, ownership and wise application. Research carried out domestically and internationally is vitally important for the production of knowledge that a country can use for its development. Smallness, remoteness or lack of a natural resource base, factors which have traditionally been regarded as handicaps to development, have been turned on their head. Knowledge management, the capacity to apply information to social and economic development, is emerging as a key factor".

The institutional dimension of sustainable development emphasizes the importance of effective organizations and institutions. Sustainable development means a people-centered process, whereby an integrated and holistic approach is followed. It stresses a participatory, empowering and enabling approach. Capacity is the ability of actors (individuals, groups, organizations, institutions,

countries) to perform specified functions (or pursue specified objectives) effectively, efficiently and sustainably. The capacity of actors (individuals, groups, institutions, organizations) to achieve their objectives or to perform their functions in a larger whole is critically influenced by factors in their environment. Capacities can be enhanced or restricted by organizations, institutions, regulations, law, cultural beliefs, mindsets and other variables (United Nations Development Programme, 1995). The institutional dimension is closely linked to sustainable human development, which in turn is part of the social dimension. Individual and organizational capacities are strongly influenced by the systems, processes, roles, rules and procedures created to manage and execute activities. These systems and procedures form the immediate environment within which people and organizations act. The European Commission emphasized that the broader institutional and societal environment must also be made supporting, facilitating and enabling of the effectiveness of capable people.

The institutional dimension is a crucial component of sustainable human development because it implies empowering people and creating an enabling environment for their initiatives in all spheres of life. Sustainable human development further recognizes that developing peoples' capacities to make informed decisions and to implement their decisions is central to empowerment. People create institutions and organizations and contribute their time, energy, experience and intelligence in the process. Organizations and institutions in turn, can contribute to the personal growth and gaining of experience for people within the institution. Sustainable development requires institutions and organizations to develop frameworks and strategies that would enhance and support a developmental approach. Banerjee (2003: 169) added to this perspective and stated the following in this regard: "Sustainable development is not just about managerial efficiency (although that has a part to play); it is about rethinking human-nature relationships, re-examining current doctrines of progress and modernity, and privileging alternate visions of the world".

125

It is evident from the above discussion that the institutional dimension is central to a systems perspective, recognizing the complex interdependencies among all elements. An important contribution was made by the United Nations Development Programme (1995: 6) when it was stated that in the past capacity development efforts, have focused on the development of individual capacities, without attention to the organizational/ institutional context: "Where the latter was the focus of capacity development efforts, policy factors were not included and the larger environment that influences the retention and utilization of the acquired capacities, was not taken into account".

The disciplines that contribute to this dimension are psychology, sociology, human resources, management practices, business development and industrial relations.

2.7 INDICATORS OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

An overview of the literature (Winograd, 1995: 205; Hart, 1998a; Fricker, 1998; International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD), 2000; Martin and Pearson, 2001) provided a number of explanations and descriptions of indicators. The International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD) (2001-2002) stated that indicators are multi-faceted concepts. They are presentations of measurements or bits of information that summarize the characteristics of systems or highlight what is happening in a system. Indicators simplify complex phenomena, and make it possible to gauge the general status of a system. Indicators of a sustainable community point to areas where the links between economy, environment and society are weak. Sustainability indicators are not just a statement of what exists, they also show the community's vision of the future. Hart (1998a: 1) stated that traditional indicators, such as stockholder profits, asthma rates, and water quality, measure changes in one part of a community as if they were entirely independent of the other parts. Hart (1998a: 1) emphasized that sustainability indicators reflect the reality that the three different segments,

126

environment, economy and society, are very tightly interconnected. Communities are webs of interactions between the three segments. The number of people gainfully employed, affect the poverty rate and the poverty rate is related to crime. Sheng (1995: 216) explained this particular perspective as follows: "…economic sustainability is an integral part of overall sustainability. Income is not only economic, but also social and ecological in terms of the ways in which it is generated, distributed, and spent. When income is miscalculated, and spending (therefore resource use activities) misguided and inappropriately promoted due to the omission of environmental values, eventual impoverishment will affect all dimensions of sustainability".

Hart (1998a: 2) further elaborated that air and water quality, and materials used for production have an effect on health. They may also have an effect on stockholder profits: if a process requires clean water as an input, cleaning up poor quality water prior to processing is an extra expense, which reduces profits. Hart (1998a: 2) was adamant that health problems, whether due to general air quality problems or exposure to toxic materials, have an effect on worker productivity and contribute to the rising costs of health insurance. Sustainability requires this type of integrated view of the world.

Hart (1998a: 3) postulated that multidimensional indicators are valuable to show the links among a community's economy, environment and society. They are useful to different communities for different reasons. For a healthy, vibrant community, indicators help monitor that health, so that negative trends are caught and dealt with before they become a problem. For communities with economic, social or environmental problems, indicators can point the way to a better future. For all communities, indicators can generate discussion among people with different backgrounds and viewpoints, and, in the process, help create a shared vision of what the community should be. (Compare Fricker, 1998: 8 –17.)

For the purpose of this research study a brief description of the following broad categories of indicators, namely, economic growth, social progress and environmental protection is as follows:

Economic growth

- Economic output – maintaining a high and stable level of economic growth is one of the key objectives of sustainable development. A healthy economy leads to higher living standards and greater prosperity for individuals. It also helps business to be profitable, which generates employment and income.

- Investment is vital for a healthy economy and to ensure competitiveness in international markets. Investment in social assets such as railways, buses, hospitals, schools, water and sewage are important for providing high quality public services that benefit everyone.

- Employment enables people to meet their needs and improve their living standards and is the single most effective and sustainable way to tackle poverty and social exclusion for those who can work.

Social progress/Social indicators

Social policy covers a great number of issues that do not stand on their own but, as is increasingly recognized, are both diverse and interlinked. For example, addressing social exclusion involves simultaneously addressing those barriers to labour market reintegration, health care issues and educational aspects. Social indicators have been developed to provide the broad perspective needed for any international comparison and assessment of social trends and policies. Social indicators aim to serve the need for a concise overview of social trends and policies while paying due attention to the different national contexts in which such policies are being pursued (OECD, 2001b: 16).

Fricker (1998: 8) emphasized that many social indicators are in part economic, environmental and sustainability measures too. They can be comparative, between and within socio-economic and ethnic groupings. Objective conditions, such as the standard of living, are measured by analyzing time-series information on observable phenomena. Subjective conditions, such as quality of life, are measures of perceptions, feelings and responses obtained through questionnaires with graded scales. Martin and Pearson (2001: 1) described how the OECD developed social indicators in order to help international comparisons of social conditions and social policies. In their opinion (2001: 3) this approach has been to distinguish broad social goals upon which all countries can agree, and then to identify various "social status" indicators, which reflect different dimensions of the underlying objective. These authors (2001: 4) emphasized that the following objectives and indicators were not simply "plucked out of the air". They had engaged in in-depth discussions with all the OECD countries about whether these objectives were the appropriate ones to highlight various aspects of indicators and the use of "subjective" as opposed to "objective" data.

In Table 2 the social indicators as adapted from Martin and Pearson (2001: 3-5) were highlighted.

Table 2: Social indicators (Adapted from Martin and Pearson, 2001: 3-5)

Context Indicators	
National Income	Fertility Rates
Old age dependency ratio	Foreigners and foreign-born population
Refugees and asylum-seekers	Divorce Rates
Lone-parent families	
Self-Sufficiency Indicators	
Social status	*Societal responses*
Employment	Activation policies
Unemployment	Spending on education and care
Jobless youth	Educational attainment
Working mothers	Literacy
Retirement ages	Replacement rates
	Tax wedge
Equity Indicators	
Social status	*Societal responses*
Relative poverty	Minimum wages
Income inequality	Public social expenditure
Low paid employment	Private social expenditure
Gender wage gap	Net social expenditure
	Benefit recipiency
Health Indicators	
Social status	*Societal responses*
Life expectancy	Older people in institutions
Infant mortality	Health care expenditure
Potential years of life lost	Responsibility for financing health care
Disability free life expectancy	Health infrastructure
Accidents	
Social Cohesion Indicators	
Social status	*Societal responses*
Strikes	Prisoners
Drug use and related deaths	
Suicide	
Crime	
Group membership	
Voting	

A short description of a number of these indicators with regard to social progress is of particular importance to this study:

- **Poverty and social exclusion** – sustainable development is about ensuring a better quality of life for everyone, not just a privileged few. To achieve sustainability, poverty and social exclusion have to be the priority of all concerned. Social exclusion is not just about income, it is also about the public services that people need and use on a daily basis, namely, access to justice, education and health care facilities, and safer communities.

- **Education** – Martin and Pearson (2001: 5) stated that educational attainment is a good indicator of how well people will be able to participate in society in general and in the labour market in particular. These authors included educational attainment as a *societal response* indicator of particular importance when looking at the underlying social objective of promoting *self-sufficiency*. To achieve stable and sustainable growth, communities need a well-educated, well-equipped and adaptable labour force. Learning has a wider contribution to make – it promotes active citizenship and helps combat social exclusion. It opens up opportunities for people and gives them the chance to make a full contribution to the community.

- **Health** – improving people's health and especially the health of the worst-off in society is a key sustainability objective. Men and women in unskilled occupations generally have lower total life expectancy than those in professional occupations.

- **Housing** is a key component of a decent quality of life. Poor quality housing causes harm to health and is often associated with other social problems.

- **Crime** – everyone has a right to live in a community that is safe. Crime imposes economic costs, reinforces social exclusion and is a contributing factor to the environmental decline of communities.

From the above discussion it was evident that social indicators are valuable measurements of social progress and development in a community. In the context of this research study, a short description of a number of environmental/ecological indicators was important.

Environmental protection

Fricker (1998: 8) wrote that environmental indicators tend to relate to the environmental sphere closest to human activity and can include economic, social and sustainability measures too. They measure the quality of the living and working environment. The following indicators are important guidelines in any strategy to explore sustainable development. They are multi-faceted concepts and capture key aspects of daily existence in all communities. A short description of the main ecological indicators is important for the purpose of this study (United Kingdom, Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs, 2004):

- **Climate change** is a major threat to global sustainable development. Some climate change is now inevitable, and the world will have to adapt to that. Climate change must be kept within limits which global society can accommodate. Reducing greenhouse gas emissions is of the utmost importance.

- **Air quality -** A key sustainability objective is to control air pollution in order to reduce the risks of harm to human health, the natural environment and the overall quality of life.

- **Road traffic -** The key objective is to strike the right balance between transport's role in helping the economy progress and allowing people to travel wherever they need to go, while at the same time protecting the environment and improving quality of life. The volume of traffic, the world over, leads to congestion, noise and air pollution and contributes to greenhouse gas emissions, leading to climate change.

- **River water quality** is important because rivers are a major source of water used for drinking and by industry. Rivers support a wide variety of wildlife and are used extensively for recreation. Water is vital for public health and the environment. Safeguarding freshwater resources and water quality, at a time when pressures from climate change and household demand are likely to increase, is a very real concern.

- **Wildlife -** the key objective is to reverse the decline in wildlife and habitats. Forests and woodlands enhance the landscapes and are habitats for wildlife.

- **Land use -** re-using previously developed land, in order to protect the countryside and encourage urban regeneration. New development within existing urban areas contributes to the revitalization of communities and enables people to live near to areas of employment, reducing the need to travel. Use of previously developed land wherever possible is important for the protection of greenbelt areas and countryside.

- **Waste -** Household, commerce and industry waste is normally disposed of in landfill sites. Landfill can be a wasted opportunity and produces greenhouse gases. Important concepts e.g. biodegradable and the recycling of waste have emerged (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs: Division for Sustainable Development, 2001; United Kingdom, Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs, 2004).

For the purpose of this study it is important to note, as indicated in Table 3 the primary environmental problems, the health concerns relating to those problems and the possible effects on productivity.

Table 3: Principal health and productivity consequences of environmental damage

Environmental Problem	Effect on Health	Effect on Productivity
Water pollution & water scarcity	More than 2 million deaths & billions of illnesses a year attributable to pollution; poor household hygiene & added health risks caused by water Scarcity	Declining fisheries; rural household time & municipal costs of providing safe water; aquifer depletion leading to Irreversible compaction; constraint on economic activity because of water shortages
Air pollution	Many acute & chronic health impacts: excessive urban particulate matter levels are responsible for 300,000 to 700,000 premature deaths annually and for half of childhood chronic coughing; 400 million to 700 million people, mainly women & children in poor rural areas, affected by smoky indoor air	Restrictions on vehicle & industrial activity during critical episodes; effect of acid rain on forests and water bodies
Solid & hazardous wastes	Diseases spread by rotting garbage and blocked drains; risks from hazardous wastes typically local but often acute	Pollution of groundwater resources
Soil degradation	Reduced nutrition for poor farmers on depleted soils; greater susceptibility to drought	Field productivity losses in range of 0,5% to 1,5% of gross national product (GNP) common on tropical soils; offsite siltation of reservoirs, river-transport channels, and other hydrologic investments
Deforestation	Localized flooding, leading to death & disease	Loss of sustainable logging potential and of erosion prevention, watershed stability, and carbon sequestration provided by forests
Loss of biodiversity (biodiversity is the sum total of species and their genetic constituency in a locality)	Potential loss of new drugs	Reduction of ecosystem adaptability and loss of genetic resources
Atmospheric changes	Possible shifts in vector-borne diseases; risks from climatic natural disasters; diseases attributable to ozone depletion = 300,000 additional cases of skin cancer; 1,7 million cases of cataracts	Sea-rise damage to coastal investments; regional changes in agricultural productivity; disruption of marine food chain

Sustainable development is a long-term goal. Its achievement requires a concerted pursuit of economic prosperity, environmental quality, and social equity. It calls for behavioural changes by individuals and organizations. The

World Bank (2001: 28) emphasized that throughout the world, this change is occurring. The argument is offered that economic development has led to dramatic improvements in the quality of life in developing countries. Striking gains, unparalleled in human history, have been made. Unfortunately the picture is far from positive. Gains have been unevenly distributed, leaving a large part of the world's population desperately poor. At the same time, environmental factors such as indoor and outdoor air pollution, waterborne diseases, and exposure to toxic chemicals threaten the health of millions of people. The decline in natural resources – land, water, and forests – is occurring at an alarming rate in many countries. Simultaneously, far-reaching trends i.e. globalization, the increased role of the private sector and of civil society, and rapid technological advances – have been reshaping the world, causing development and environmental challenges to be ever more intertwined (World Bank, 2001: 5).

From the above discussion it is evident that environmental concerns are inextricably linked to economic development and social progress in communities. The concept of sustainable human development is an integral part of the process of social progress and development.

2.8 SUSTAINABLE HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

The concept of "sustainable development" transcends the classical development paradigm, and consists of two components, namely, sustainable human development and environmental sustainability. Human and environmental sustainability are linked through the continuous interactions between man and environment. Of importance to this study, is a description of the various elements or objectives of sustainable development, as it is geared towards enhancing both human and environmental concerns. These are listed as follows:

❑ Social progress which recognizes the needs of everyone – e.g. better education, learning resources, training, health services, and safer communities, assessable to all and not just by the privileged few.

❑ Effective protection of the environment by limiting global environmental threats and by protecting human health and safety, wildlife, landscapes and historic buildings from natural and human-made hazards.

❑ Prudent and efficient use of natural resources in order to preserve them and/or limit the serious damage they can cause if used inappropriately and/or excessively.

❑ Maintenance of high and stable levels of economic growth and employment – for everyone to share in higher living standards and greater job opportunities now and in the 21st Century. (Compare United Kingdom Government, 2004.)

Sustainable Human Development represents an evolution of the classical concepts of development: its emphasis moved from the material well being of states to the well-being of individual human beings. By enhancing human capabilities to expand choices and opportunities for men, women and children, an environment is created in which human security is guaranteed and individual human beings can develop their full potential and lead a life of dignity and freedom.

The concept "human development" was developed by the United Nations Development Programme in 1990, and is the process of enlarging people's choices. The Human Development Index (HDI) is an indicator of the degree of human development enjoyed in respective countries. It comprises of the following components:

▪ longevity: for people to lead long and healthy lives (life expectancy at birth)

▪ knowledge: educational attainment (adult literacy and combined primary, secondary and tertiary enrolment ratio)

▪ decent standard of living: to have access to the resources needed for a decent standard of living (GDP per capita).

136

If these basic capabilities are not achieved, many choices are simply not available and many opportunities remain inaccessible. But the realm of human development goes further, essential areas of choice, highly valued by people, range from political, economic and social opportunities for being creative and productive to enjoying self-respect, empowerment and a sense of belonging to a community. Income is one of the main means of expanding choices and well-being. But it is not the sum total of people's lives. Human development emphasizes equity in basic opportunities for all – equity in access to education, in health and political rights. Access to education implies the development of human capital, which includes knowledge, skills and attributes such as perseverance. For individuals, investment in human capital provides an economic return, increasing both employment rates and earnings (OECD, 2001c). The underlying implication of a human capital perspective is that investment in knowledge and skills brings economic returns, individually and therefore collectively (Schuller, 2000: 3). Schuller (2000: 1) emphasized the importance of this kind of investment and added the following to the discussion: "Increasing educational opportunity has long been seen as a major factor in achieving greater social equality. Expanding participation has generally been taken as the key indicator of progress in this respect; but little attention has been paid to the actual effects or outcomes of participation". According to the OECD (2001c: 4) human capital also has a wide range of non-economic benefits. For example, education:

- tends to improve health (itself a form of human capital). An additional year of schooling has been estimated to reduce daily cigarette consumption by 1.6 for men and 1.1 for women;
- seems to make people happier;
- promotes the education of the next generation. Children of parents with upper secondary attainment are themselves more likely to complete upper secondary education; and
- is associated with higher civic participation, volunteering and charity giving, and a lower risk of criminal activity.

Human capital is created in diverse contexts, in the family and home, in communities, in the workplace and in many other social settings. The arena for policy intervention is therefore wide.

According to Singh and Titi (1995) sustainable development implies a process of change in which the utilization of resources, the direction of investments, the orientation of technological innovation and exchanges, and institutional change reflect both future and present needs. Singh and Titi (1995) further stated that the path towards sustainable development and the reversal of impoverishment processes lies in the recognition of the existence of mutual and dynamic interactions between social, political, cultural, economic and ecological factors – referred to as "horizontal" linkages. As previously discussed in this chapter, there is no single path towards a sustainable future. Each person, community, region or country should search, develop and maintain those elements that would improve their well-being (O'Brien and Mazibuko, 1998: 145; Goulet, 1995: 47).

This recognition and holistic transformation is possible by gaining and developing knowledge to facilitate a process towards a sustainable society. Facilitating appropriate training at all levels of society can decrease the knowledge gap. The abovementioned transformation process is essentially related to all spheres of human existence. As such the process of transformation will have to ensure social, cultural, economic and political sustainability together with ecological and environmental sustainability. This is expected ultimately to lead to a holistic development of society (de Koning and Martin, 1996: 142).

Development means to expand or realize potentialities. It means bringing those potentialities gradually to a fuller, greater, or better state. It has qualitative and quantitative characteristics. It can be differentiated from growth that applies to a quantitative increase in physical dimensions. Sustainable development is not a "fixed state of harmony". Rather, it is an ongoing process of evolution in which people take actions leading to development that meets their current needs

without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Sustainable development commits all people to considering the long-term and to recognizing humanity's place within the ecosystem. It provides a new perspective from which to see the world. It is a perspective that forces the bridging of many ideas and disciplines (contemporary and traditional) that have previously remained disparate.

The concept of sustainable development links people with the surrounding world. Assessing progress toward sustainable development therefore implies that information must be gathered about people, and about the surrounding world. Such an approach is closely linked to ideas that have emerged within systems theory. A core element of the approach is the idea of the "whole" system that can co-evolve successfully in a changing environment (Hardi and Zolan, 1997: 9). Johnson and Schwartz (1994: 143) wrote that social systems theory brought new understanding about the earlier social work view of people's reciprocal relationship with their environment. It further developed the notion that social work processes should focus on what was called "the person in the situation" – meaning that people are involved in life situations that include interactions with various social systems in the environment that affect their social functioning. Assessing the person in the situation now involved understanding the relationship between individuals and environmental systems, and the problems of social functioning that appear out of that interaction.

Hardi and Zolan (1997: 10) sought out the different models that emerged as being influential in assessing progress toward sustainable development, and extrapolated five that are listed as follows: (1) models with roots in economics; (2) stress and stress-response models; (3) multiple capital models; (4) various forms of the three-part or theme "social, economic, environment" model; and (5) the linked human-ecosystem well-being model. The first two are considered partial system models. The latter three are full system models that try to capture all aspects of the system, including people and environment.

139

A sustainable community is one where change is noticeable, where people are constantly looking for ways to address problems differently coupled with an openness that exist for innovative solutions.   Sustainable development is therefore a social process and a moral principle and it needs to be part of every decision-making process.

It is evident from the reviewed literature that sustainable development requires new architecture for political and social organization to bring about fundamental change (Novartis Foundation for Sustainable Development, 1999: 23). Albert Einstein (in Viederman, 1995: 37) made a valuable contribution when he stated: "We cannot solve the problems that we have created with the same thinking that created them." John Maynard Keynes contributed to this viewpoint, and stated: "The difficulty lies not in new ideas, but in escaping from old ones". It requires changing human behaviour.

Development is a complex of activities, some with social and some with economic objectives. Some based on material resources, some on intellectual resources, all enabling people to reach their full potential and enjoy a good life. The interdependencies of these factors are the crucial link in making any development effort sustainable.

Development includes a long-range concern for the future. For development to be sustainable the different types of capital must continue, or its benefits must be maintained, indefinitely. Sagoff (2000: 135) concluded with the following valuable contribution: "The world has the wealth and the resources to provide everyone with the opportunity to live a decent life. We consume too much when market relationships displace the bonds of community, compassion, culture, and place. We consume too much when consumption becomes an end in itself and makes us lose affection and reverence for the natural world".

2.9 CONCLUSION

As a literature study, this chapter provided an overview of the existing theoretical foundation of the sustainable development paradigm. The existing information indicated that sustainable development in the 21st century is a multi-dimensional concept. Extensive research of the available literature indicated that sustainable resource management, environmental education, policy research, analysis and advocacy, community sustainable energy development and corporate environmental management are all important aspects of a holistic environmental approach to discover practical solutions for a sustainable world.

In considering the concept of sustainable development, a number of basic essential factors have been identified, of particular relevance to this study. Sustainable development can be defined as a development path along which the maximization of human well-being for today's generations does not lead to declines in future well-being. Sustainable development is a combination of social, economic, environmental and institutional processes. It needs to address: (i) basic needs issues; (ii) better opportunities, education and issues pertaining to culture and humanistic values; and, (iii) expanding the range of choice and, therefore, freedom of the individual. Sustainable development is therefore about providing for basic needs, as much as the value of people and freedom. A balance needs to be struck among the goals of economic efficiency, human needs and aspirations, environmental issues and the social aspects of community life, in the face of a vast number of difficult challenges. Progress towards sustainable development requires changes at both the domestic and international level. Sustainable development should aim to secure the continued, quality existence of humans, in harmony with their environment. Sustainable development also underscores the importance of taking a longer-term perspective about the consequences of today's activities, and of global co-operation among countries to reach viable solutions. Sustainability is as much a process of discourse and effort as it is a state.

141

The following chapter will focus on poverty, underdevelopment and unemployment.

CHAPTER THREE

POVERTY, UNDERDEVELOPMENT and UNEMPLOYMENT

"The word "poverty" is, no doubt, a key word of our times, extensively used and abused by everyone. Huge amounts of money are spent in the name of the poor. Thousands of books and expert advice continue to offer solutions to their problems. Strangely enough, however, nobody, including the proposed "beneficiaries" of these activities, seems to have a clear, and commonly shared, view of poverty. For one reason, almost all the definitions given to the word are woven around the concept of "lack" or "deficiency". This notion reflects only the basic relativity of the concept. What is necessary and to whom? And who is qualified to define all that?"
(Rahnema, in Escobar, 1995: 21).

3.1   POVERTY: AN INTRODUCTION

Poverty and underdevelopment are manifold phenomena. They occur all over the world and can be found in many different forms. Throughout history, human beings have always been affected by the devastation of poverty, inequality and the severe and grave consequences of underdevelopment.

According to MacDonald (1998: 15) the concept of Sustainable Development is based on the assumption that all types of human activity are interrelated. MacDonald (1998: 15) further stated that in "sustainability-speak", this is usually expressed as "the importance of integrating social, economic and environmental objectives into planning, decision-making and implementation of projects and programmes". An appropriate example is that a sustainable approach to economics must, by definition, also take into account the social and ecological aspects of a problem. The South African Women's National Coalition (2002: 74) contributed the following in this regard: "We hold that the eradication of poverty and the securing of the health of people is a critical requirement for economic development in poor countries. Health is not an outcome of economic growth".

Therefore, the importance of addressing poverty, underdevelopment and unemployment becomes self-evident.

According to Belshaw, Claderisi and Sugden (2001:68) when the prerequisites for sustainable peace are not fulfilled, a society is unstable and prone to violence in the form of either civil conflict or external war. Any fundamental need (physical security, human identity, or social interaction) that is not adequately satisfied tends to generate conflict. The failure to meet these fundamental needs has powerful consequences because these needs address the "being," the "having", and the "doing," of each person in his or her interaction in society.

MacDonald (1998: 25) stated that social development refers to how well societies are meeting basic human needs such as food, shelter and clothing. Providing the support services that determine the quality of life, including health care, education, culture and human rights are part of social development. The principal objective is to provide a realistic and concrete answer to the problems of underdevelopment and marginalization through sustainable solutions in the medium and long term. MacDonald (1998: 97) postulated that the underlying assumption is that economic development, is not an end in itself but must be interpreted as a means to improve the quality of life and to offer better opportunities to people living on the outside of the mainstream of society. When a community follows this approach, economic development serves the larger goal of human development. (Compare Naudé and Jansen van Rensburg, 2002: 9.)

Addressing poverty and underdevelopment is of such importance, not merely for the sake of economic growth or expansion, but because it is morally indefensible that suffering and hardship should continue on such a scale. Rogge and Darkwa, (1996: 395) stated the following in this regard: "Living in poverty increases susceptibility to disease and vulnerability to sudden and dramatic misfortune and limits control over life choices. For people living in poverty, life is often a gruelling trial of survival in which pessimism, hopelessness, resignation, depression and

shattered hopes are common". (Compare International Labour Organization, 1998: 1.) Affolter (2000: 1) contributed some valuable perspectives in this regard and emphasized that development organizations interested in promoting social well-being will have to consider how context enhances or inhibits socio-emotional development. Wilkinson (in Affolter, 2000: 1) summarized this viewpoint in the following statement: "To feel depressed, cheated, bitter, desperate, vulnerable, frightened, angry…to feel devalued, useless, helpless, uncared for, hopeless, isolated, anxious, and a failure; these feelings can dominate people's whole experience of life, coloring their experience of everything else".

The People's Movement for Human Rights Education ([sa]: 1) reported that poverty is a human rights violation. Every woman, man, youth and child has the right to a standard of living adequate for health and well-being, to food, clothing, housing, medical care and social services. (Compare Naudè and Jansen van Rensburg, 2002: 9.) These fundamental human rights are defined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenants and other widely adhered to international human rights treaties and declarations (The People's Movement for Human Rights Education, [sa]: 1-2). The human right to live in dignity, free from want, is a fundamental right, and is also essential to the realization of all other human rights – rights that are universal, indivisible, interconnected and interdependent.

According to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the right to be free from poverty includes:
- The human right to an adequate standard of living.
- The human right to work and receive wages that contribute to an adequate standard of living.
- The human right to a healthy and safe environment.
- The human right to be free from hunger.
- The human right to safe drinking water.

- The human right to primary health care and medical attention in case of illness.
- The human right to have access to basic social services.
- The human right to be free of gender or racial discrimination.
- The human right to education.
- The human right to participate in shaping decisions that affects oneself and one's community.
- The human right for children to develop in an environment appropriate for their physical, mental, spiritual, moral and social development.

Dr Franklin Sonn, (1999: 1) a former South African Ambassador to the United States, delivered a powerful keynote address to the 11th International Symposium of the IUCISD, in July 1999 and contributed the following: "Poverty is the single greatest social burden in the world today. It is a timeless matter. It defies all economic and social systems. It, up to this day, occupies the national debate in varying degrees depending on the nature of the government in power. Governments' success is often determined by the extent to which it is able to meet the challenge of poverty. Poverty brought governments down. It ensured the demise of economical systems. It ensured the rise of dictatorships. So it was also the case in our country".

Roberts (2000: 1) expressed similar sentiments and referred to a statement contained in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), White Paper Discussion Document, Government of National Unity (1994) namely: "No political democracy can survive and flourish if the majority of its people remains in poverty, without land, without their basic needs being met and without tangible prospects for a better life. Attacking poverty and deprivation will therefore be the first priority of the democratic Government".

According to Silungwe, ([sa]: 3) in recent years, a growing number of studies and discussions have been concerned with the extent of poverty in Southern Africa,

its causes and possibilities of various interventions to alleviate it. Some of the studies and discussions have been influential to the extent that they attracted international interest, amongst others, from international lending institutions such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank. However, ever since vigorous studies on poverty began in the nineteenth century, no single political and economic idea has provided definite, decisive answers to the complexity of poverty. It is of paramount importance to examine the damage poverty inflicts on the individual and the community who must endure it. Silungwe ([sa]: 3) stated that any attempt to tackle the problem of poverty in the developing world requires changes in the structures of the world's economic relationships. Marginal concessions cannot substitute genuine reform, and proper structural changes are needed. Poverty is a complex, multidimensional social problem and is a product, in part at least, of the impact of political process and policy development. (Compare Kiirya, 2001: 2-3.) Silungwe ([sa]: 3) emphasized the following viewpoint: "The World Bank itself declared in recent reports that eradication of severe poverty worldwide was feasible; the political will to do so is what is lacking". It is clear therefore, that poverty is a political, moral and ethical issue, and it requires appropriate action by all stakeholders. The Human Development report (1997: 106) discussed the importance of eradicating poverty, emphasizing that it is more than a moral imperative and a commitment to human solidarity. It would therefore appear to be that it is a practical possibility – and in the long run an economic imperative for global prosperity.

It is in the deprivation of the lives that people can lead that poverty manifests itself. Poverty can involve not only the lack of the necessities of material well-being, but the denial of opportunities for living a tolerable life (May, Woolard and Klasen, 1997: 3). The Human Development Report (1997: 15) stated in this regard: "Life can be prematurely shortened. It can be made difficult, painful or hazardous. It can be deprived of knowledge and communication. And it can be robbed of dignity, confidence and self-respect – as well as the respect of others.

All are aspects of poverty that limit and blight the lives of many millions in the world today". (Compare Belshaw, *et al.,* 2001: 133-134.)

The Human Development Report (1997: 2) stated unequivocally that human poverty is more than income poverty (income consists of occupational wages or salaries and earnings from investments). Poverty constitutes the denial of choices and opportunities for living a tolerable life. It would therefore appear accurate to conclude that a state of poverty is an extreme negative influence on maintaining, for example, social sustainability. In Bynner's (2002: 3) opinion, social sustainability is considered to involve maintaining quality of life and social cohesion through:

- Meeting basic needs (food, accommodation and security);
- Personal autonomy through work, and equal opportunities in access to education and employment;
- Social resources to support tolerance and cohesion.

Human development is all about the process of enlarging people's choices. Such choices are neither finite nor static. The most critical ones are to lead a long and healthy life, to be educated (to acquire knowledge) and to have access to the resources needed to enjoy a decent standard of living. Additional choices include political freedom, guaranteed human rights and various ingredients of self-respect. These are among the essential choices, the absence of which can block many other opportunities. Anand and Sen (1994: 17) emphasized that human development in the form of people being better educated and enjoying better health, is not only constitutive of a better quality of life, but it also contributes to productivity and an overall larger contribution to the material and social progress of all people in a community. Human development is thus a process of widening people's choices as well as raising the level of well-being. Income is one option that people would like to have, but it is not the sum total of their lives.

3.2 DEFINING POVERTY

"In a country well governed, poverty is something to be ashamed of. In a country badly governed wealth is something to be ashamed of".

(Confucius)

Defining and measuring poverty are complicated tasks because there are different ways of defining poverty and little consensus about what the best approach is. It is difficult to discuss and make comparisons with regard to poverty internationally. Hasegawa (2001:3-4) and Belshaw, *et al.* (2001: 132) discussed the fact that poverty has many dimensions and has been defined in various ways. The following are five basic definitions of poverty:

- Income poverty refers to a lack of minimally adequate income or expenditures.
- Extreme poverty is the inability to satisfy even minimum food needs.
- Overall poverty refers to the inability to satisfy essential non-food as well as food needs.
- Relative poverty refers to poverty defined by standards that can change across countries or over time. Absolute poverty refers to poverty defined by a fixed standard. The international one-dollar-a-day poverty line, which is designed to compare the extent of poverty across different countries, is an example of relative poverty.

(Compare Estes, 2002: 23.)

A number of definitions of poverty evolved over the past decade together with international knowledge about the nature of poverty and its determinants. The reduction of poverty is a global challenge for the international community. In the past poverty has been largely measured by income level and food security, now the phenomenon has gained a more thorough understanding. Poverty reduction means improving access of the population to basic resources, including land and water, as well as employment, education and health care services, ensuring

149

human rights for all, meeting needs for infrastructure and services, improvement of sanitary and hygienic conditions and providing adequate living standards for the population.

According to The World Bank (2000: 69), poverty has many dimensions, one important element being material deprivation, commonly measured in terms of income or consumption. According to Booth, Hanmer and Lovell (2000: 11) the essential implication of a multidimensional definition of poverty is to underline the way public actions in different sectors – e.g. health, education, agriculture, infrastructure and the environment – are needed to address the needs of the poor. Parnell and Mosdell (2003: 4) compiled a wide definition of poverty and stated that: "Poverty is more than a lack of income. Poverty exists when an individual or a household's access to income, jobs and/or infrastructure is inadequate or sufficiently unequal to prohibit full access to opportunities in society. The condition of poverty is caused by a combination of social, economic, spatial, environmental and political factors". Parnell and Mosdell (2003: 5) further mentioned that recognizing the multiple dimensions of poverty emphasized the range of actors who needed to be involved in an overall poverty relief and reduction strategy.

Urban poverty has a broad character, including squalid living conditions; risks to life and health from poor sanitation, air pollution, crime and violence, traffic accidents, and natural disasters; the breakdown of traditional family and community safety nets; and a sense of powerlessness and vulnerability that undermine human potential and social capital. Moreover, income inequality is worsening in many urban areas, implying further exclusion of low-income groups from employment opportunities, basic services, political representation, legal and social protections, and a range of amenities (World Bank Group, 2001:1-3). Urban populations are also hit particularly hard by macroeconomic and financial shocks. Within the South African context, the increases in the cost of lving and

150

the greatly reduced number of job opportunities in formal sector employment have a particular significant impact on the urban poor.

In 1990, the World Development report expanded the traditional income-based definition (i.e. categorizes people as poor if their income falls below a defined income measure) of poverty to further include capabilities – such as health, education and nutrition. This framework explicitly recognized the interaction and causal relationship among these dimensions (Klugman, 2001: 2). Poverty is a multidimensional phenomenon, with different faces, characterized by low income, low consumption, hunger and malnutrition, poor health, lack of education and skills, lack of opportunity, lack of access to water and sanitation, and vulnerability to economic and social shocks. (Compare Milojevic, 2002: 3 and Klugman, 2001: 2.) The World Bank Group (2003: 1) provided the following powerful description: "Poverty is hunger. Poverty is lack of shelter. Poverty is being sick and not being able to see a doctor. Poverty is not being able to go to school and knowing how to read. Poverty is not having a job, is fear for the future, living one day at a time. Poverty is losing a child to illness brought about by unclean water. Poverty is powerlessness, lack of representation and freedom". The multidimensional nature of poverty is clearly evident in the above passage. It would therefore appear to be extremely difficult for poor people to survive the daily struggles of their existence.

The Committee of Inquiry into a Comprehensive System of Social Security for South Africa (2002: 15) defined poverty as the inability of individuals, households or entire communities to command sufficient resources to satisfy a socially acceptable minimum standard of living. (Compare May, *et al.,* 1997: 14 and Kehler, 2000: 1.) According to Hulme, Shepherd and Moore (2001: 4) the notion of what constitutes "basic needs" has expanded to encompass food, water, shelter, and clothing, but also access to other assets such as education, health, credit, and participation in political process, security and dignity. These characteristics are closely integrated with one another; low income restricts

access to basic goods and services, and lack of access to goods and services limits income–generating opportunities. The interlocking of different factors determines the social exclusion of an individual from active life of the community. (Compare Cohen and Kennedy, 2000: 138 and Midgley, 1983.)

Poverty can be plotted along a continuum. Whether it is measured or defined by level of income, access to a range of goods and services, opportunities to participate in the range of activities that society offers, or the likelihood of being treated with dignity and respect, it is an experience that shades imperceptibly from the poorest and most despised through to the affluent (Lavalette and Pratt, 2001: 183-184).

According to Parnell and Mosdell (2003: 5) the "basic needs" concept is one of the most influential international perspectives on poverty, especially in the context of the South or "Third World", where millions of people are without adequate food, shelter or sanitation. Basic needs can include "hard" infrastructure such as a storm water drainage system or "social" infrastructure such as schools or clinics.

An alternative measure of poverty is to express the number of poor as a proportion of the population. This is known as the headcount index and is the percentage of the population below the poverty line. Although the headcount index is useful for comparative purposes, it has been criticized because it overlooks the extent to which the poor fall below the poverty line (World Bank, 1990: 27-28).

The 1995 Copenhagen Social Summit was the first major international gathering to mark the expansion of the concepts of poverty and well-being, and by the year 2000, the World Bank (2000) described poverty in terms of material deprivation, low levels of education and health, exposure to vulnerability and risk, voicelessness and powerlessness.

Development looks at a community as a whole and measures change and advancement along different dimensions of well-being. Poverty focuses on a segment of a community. It compares different dimensions of human well-being to a standard, for example a poverty line, and then classifies a person or household as poor or non-poor. This standard can be defined in absolute or relative terms. For example, an absolute standard could be all households that do not have the means for human survival. It refers to subsistence below minimum, socially acceptable living standards. Muzaale (in Osei-Hwedie, 1995: 63) noted that absolute poverty, as human deprivation, is a physiological phenomenon denoting lack of basic necessities of human life including food, safe drinking water, housing, clothing and health care. People in this situation suffer from chronic malnutrition and sickness, live in squalor, live short lives, and many die in infancy.

Muzaale (in Osei-Hwedie, 1995: 63) stated that relative poverty is a social definition, which refers to human suffering resulting from the inability to meet needs, which other people, in the same society, have come to take for granted. Lok-Dessallien (1999: 2) contributed to this definition and stated that relative poverty compares the lowest segments of a population with upper segments, usually measured in income quintiles or deciles (Human Development Report, 1997: 15). Hulme, *et al.* (2001: 6) supported this view and stated that poverty is usually viewed as either a form of absolute deprivation or relative, but significant, deprivation. Absolute poverty is perceived as subsistence below the minimum requirements for physical well-being, generally based on a quantitative proxy indicator such as income or calories, but sometimes taking into account a broader package of goods and services. (Compare Todaro, 1997: 676.)

Kehler (2000: 1) pursued a more pragmatic approach and stated that the level of poverty is generally defined as the inability to attain a minimum standard of living, which is measured in terms of basic consumption needs or income required to satisfy those needs. According to the South African NGO Coalition (SANGOCO)

153

(1998: 2) when the question "What is poverty?" were posed to different groups of South Africans, in different parts of rural and urban South Africa, a central theme emerged: That poverty is not only about lack of money, but more centrally about a lack of opportunities and choices which allow people to build decent lives for themselves.

Between 31 March and 19 June 1998 the South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC), the Commission on Gender Equality (CGE) and SANGOCO convened a series of ten hearings on poverty. Hearings were held in each of the nine provinces. Over 10 000 people participated in "Speak Out on Poverty" by attending the hearings, mobilizing communities or making submissions. Nearly 600 people presented oral evidence over the 35 days of the hearings. The piles of written testimony bore evidence to the fact that poverty is causing misery and hunger, and often laborious and menial work do not offer adequate compensation to relieve the suffering (Africa Action [sa]: 1).

The Committee of Inquiry into a Comprehensive System of Social security for South Africa (2002: 15-16), reported that during research for the Poverty and Inequality Report (PIR), developed in 1998, the poor characterized their poverty in the following manner:

- Alienation from the community: They are isolated from the institutions of kinship and community.
- Food insecurity: The inability to provide sufficient or good quality food for the family is seen as an outcome of poverty.
- Crowded homes: The poor are perceived to live in crowded conditions and in homes in need of maintenance.
- Use of basic forms of energy: The poor lack access to safe and efficient sources of energy. In rural communities the poor particularly the women, walk long distances to gather firewood or water, risking physical attack and sexual assault.

- Lack of adequately paid, secure jobs: Lack of employment opportunities, low wages and lack of job security is regarded as a major contributor to people's poverty.
- Fragmentation of the family: Many poor households are characterized by absent fathers or children living apart from their parents. Households may be spilt over a number of sites as a survival strategy.

(Compare May, *et al.,* 1997: 3-4.)

The World Bank commissioned an extensive worldwide study on poverty, consisting of three books, which brought together the experiences of over 60,000 poor people. The first book "Voices of the Poor: Can Anyone Hear Us?" (2000), gathered the voices of over 40,000 poor men and women in 50 countries from the World Bank's participatory poverty assessments; the second book, "Voices of the Poor: Crying Out For Change" (2000), drew material from 23 countries in a comparative study. The final book, "Voices of the Poor: From Many Lands" (2002), offered regional patterns and country case studies. These studies explored poor people's definitions of poverty and used an inductive approach to uncover the underlying issues of poverty that are important to poor people and captured their perceptions of poverty. Together with the "World Development Report 2000/2001: Attacking Poverty", it presented a multidimensional view of poverty and underscored the importance of increasing poor people's access to opportunity, security, and empowerment for economic growth and poverty reduction (Narayan, 2002: xvii).

The World Bank Study: "Voices of the Poor" indicated that despite diversity and location specificity, there was a striking commonality of experience across countries, cultures, rural and urban areas, and age and gender divides. People described well-being and ill-being in terms of the following related dimensions: material well-being, physical well-being, safety and security, freedom of choice and action, and good social relations (The World Bank Group, 2000: 1).

Five main findings emerged from these reports with regard to the analysis of definitions of poverty (Narayan, Patel, Schafft, Rademacher and Koch-Schulte, 2000a: 26). For the purpose of this study a brief discussion of each of the findings will follow.

3.2.1 Poverty is multidimensional

Thomas (in Lee, 1994: 1) reported on the absolute deprivation that is caused by a state of poverty. When Sudeka, a fifteen-year-old girl, living in a poor community, was questioned about her life, she made the following statement: "...What we see? Misery... Falling like rain".

Many factors converge to make poverty a complex, multidimensional phenomenon. (Compare Alcock, 1997: 6.) Definitions of poverty and its causes vary by gender, age, culture, and other social and economic contexts. Perceived causes of poverty are affected by one's status and location. (Compare May, *et al.,* 1997: 3 and Mayfield, 1997: 61-64.) Narayan, *et al.* (2000a: 27) stated that in Madagascar for example, farmers linked poverty to drought; the poor in the city linked poverty to rising prices and fewer employment opportunities; and the rich linked poverty to deterioration in domestic and international terms of trade; neglect of Malagasay traditions and norms, lack of motivation among certain classes and groups of people, price liberalization and devaluation, lack of education and absence of governance.

Embry-Nimmer, (in Barberton, Blake and Kotze, 1998: 211) wrote: "Homelessness does not happen in a vacuum. It is the end result of many things gone wrong. No one thing causes it; no one thing will solve it". Poverty very seldom results from the lack of one single thing, but from a vast number of interlocking factors that cluster in poor people's experiences and definitions of poverty. Bevan and Joireman (in Hulme, *et al.,* 2001: 4) supported this view and stated in this regard, "While poverty everywhere involves people experiencing

very real material and other deprivations, the concept of poverty is used to cover a wide-ranging set of interrelated life-chances which vary and are valued differently in the diverse cultures and sub-cultures of the world". (Compare Alcock, 1997: 19.)

According to the "Poverty Mapping" project (2002: 1), a joint initiative by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) and the CGIAR, consisting of a network of institutions, poverty intersects and overlaps with other concepts, notably development and equity. It is therefore accepted that poverty and development are multidimensional concepts. (Compare Lok-Dessallien, 1999: 2.)

Milojevic (2002: 4) contributed to the discussion on poverty and emphasized that poverty is a cumulative process. The longer it goes on the more difficult it is to uproot it. Milojevic (2002: 4) wrote that while the common understanding is that the poor somehow get accustomed to the situation, in fact, the longer poverty goes on the more difficult it is to bear it. Milojevic postulated that people who find themselves temporarily poor might respond to the situation with dignity, humour and resourcefulness. Unfortunately other feelings such as shame, humiliation and despair might set in after some time. Often under these circumstances, opportunities are lost and assets for ingenuity decrease. It is the opinion of Milojevic that the poor do not get accustomed to the situations of poverty and that can be easily seen from the higher level of poor health and illness among the poor as well as from their higher mortality rates. According to Milojevic (2002: 4) around 500,000 women die yearly from pregnancy and birth related complications, which are usually related to a lack of proper nutrition and adequate health services. It is estimated that around 30 million people die each year from hunger.

According to Mayfield (1997: 55) in a discussion on the vicious cycle of poverty, any person who considers the causes of poverty has to acknowledge that some

157

things are causes of poverty while others are seen as consequences or symptoms of poverty. The question arises: Is ill health a cause or consequence of poverty? Mayfield postulated that in some sense, poor health reduces the amount of time a person can work and the level of strength the person needs to work in the fields and factories of a community. That can lead to a reduction in income. When a person is poor, the resources needed to purchase medicine or consult a doctor are not available and for that reason poverty may better be seen as the cause of poor health. Mayfield further stated that disease and malnutrition are responsible for poor health, which leads to lower production, which leads to lower income, which in turn, leads to lower surplus that means less taxes collected, which means less health facilities which means less treatment available which means more disease and sickness which leads to poor health. According to Mayfield (1997: 55) this rather simple cycle of poverty fails to capture the complexity of most Less Developed Countries (LDC) settings. Poor health is not simply caused by the lack of health facilities. Mayfield emphasised that there are many other factors to take into account, namely: lack of potable water (clean drinking water), the prevalence of unsanitary conditions, poor housing that does not provide protection from the natural elements, and the use of open-pit fires with poor ventilation. (Compare Alcock, 1997: 88.)

According to Mayfield (1997: 55) the complexity of poverty should be apparent. It might be argued that the lack of education would be a good first place to start. Mayfield (1997: 56) proposed that low levels of education are often associated with a lack of knowledge, lack of skills, awareness, self-confidence and motivation, innovation and creative problem solving. Mayfield emphasized that these consequences of a lack of education do lead to lower levels of production and lower levels of productivity. That in turn, will lead to lower income that ensure lower levels of surplus in society and therefore lower levels of taxation, with the consequence that there will be less financial means to provide for schools and teachers in a given society. Mayfield (1997: 56) further explained that another perspective might be that the causes of poverty are ultimately related to

economics and access to resources. A lack of income means that an individual will have no financial means to save. Such a person will have great difficulty in obtaining a bank loan or credit. Without access to reasonable credit, many farmers for example, rely on moneylenders who charge high rates of interest Mayfield emphasized the lack of education often means lack of knowledge about more productive forms of agriculture, the lack of modern skills ensures lower levels of productivity, less profit, inability to compete with larger farmers, often forcing smaller farmers to sell their land. Loss of land forces such farmers to seek employment usually at even lower wages, and therefore the cycle of poverty often spirals ever downward. Mayfield concluded by stating that with every study of poverty in the LDCs, the multiplicity and many interrelationships between and among causes of poverty became more apparent. (Compare Alcock, 1997: 109.)

3.2.2 Poverty and material well-being

> "Your hunger is never satiated, your thirst never quenched;
> you can never sleep until you are no longer tired."
> (Poor person from the Senegal study, 1995: Narayan, *et al.,* 2000a: 29)

Lok-Dessallien (1999: 4) stated that several poverty concepts are derived from perceived causes of poverty. It can be divided into two types of deprivations – physiological and sociological. Physiological deprivation implies that people are poor because they lack income, food, clothing and shelter. Both the income and basic needs concepts of poverty stem from physiological deprivations. Lok-Dessallien (1999: 4) further emphasized the strategies to reduce poverty emerging from these approaches focus on increasing the income and consumption of the poor and their attainments of "satisfiers" of basic needs, such as health and education. Hulme, *et al.* (2001: 4) supported this view and according to these authors material and physiological approaches view poverty as a lack of income, expenditure or consumption, and money-metric approaches that measure these deficiencies are commonly used by economists for quantitative analysis. These approaches permit precise measurement and

comparisons over time and between regions. In recent years, poverty has been viewed in a more holistic sense, based in part on the increased value given to the views of the poor themselves.

As previously stated, poverty is routinely defined as the lack of what is necessary for material well-being – especially food but also housing, land, and other assets are important elements of survival (Johnson and Schwartz, 1994: 55). It would therefore appear to be that poverty is the lack of multiple resources leading to physical deprivation. The material aspects of poverty are well known. Hunger and food insecurity remain the core concerns. For poor families, meeting their most basic needs for food, water, and shelter can be a daily struggle: this become acute when there is unemployment and underemployment, or lack of productive land or other income-earning assets (The Poverty and Inequality Report, 1998: 3 and Booth, *et al.,* 2000: 9). When people do not have access to land or the ability to grow food on other people's land, access to dependable wage labour become crucial for survival. The World Bank study, "Voices of the Poor" found that in many countries women are the primary sources of family income and are engaging in all types of activities. These occupations include paid domestic work as well as work traditionally considered men's work only, such as informal industrial jobs, trading and service enterprises (The World Bank Group, 2000a: 1-4).

Housing, typically considered an asset, can be a liability as well because it can limit options and maintenance costs can drain resources. Sub-standard housing is a serious concern for the poor. The most frequent problems include leaking roofs, cracked walls, broken windows, rotting floors, and very often a complete lack of indoor plumbing. The "Voices of the Poor" study (Narayan, *et al.,* 2000a: 41) refer to data gathered in Uganda, India, Georgia, Zambia, Cameroon, Latvia and Ethiopia, where it became evident that personal or household property is an asset insofar as it can be sold in emergencies, and salable property may constitute one of the few safety nets that exists for poor families. Very often poor

families do not have any household or personal property because many families have already sold off these assets.

3.2.3 Poverty and psychological well-being

Poor people's definitions reveal important psychological aspects of poverty (Belshaw, *et al.,* 2001: 40). During the extensive World Bank study, poor people were asked to share their ideas of good and bad experiences of life, and their perceptions of "well-being" and "ill-being" were explored.

According to Dasgupta (1993:8), the ability to identify "well-being" requires a thorough understanding of destitution or a state of ill-being. To comprehend destitution, it is crucial to know what a person is deprived of. Living embodies circularity in that all people need food and care in order to reproduce food and care. To be poor was to experience ill-being in many ways. Poor people suffer multiple disadvantages that reinforce each other and interlock to trap them in a vicious cycle of deprivation (The World Bank Group, 2000b: 1).

The organization Jubilee Gauteng, (2001: 7) together with the South African Graduates Development Organisation (SAGDA), the South African Students Congress (SASCO) and the Johannesburg Central Branch of the South African Communist Party (SACP) developed a document titled "To wards a People's Budget". This particular group stated with regard to the psychological impact of poverty: "Poverty is eating away at people's spirits, it is eating at the essence of people's humanness". (Compare Venter, 2001: 104-105.)

The International Movement ATD Fourth World (2002: 1) emphasized that poverty has various manifestations, including a lack of income and productive resources to ensure an ongoing livelihood; hunger and malnutrition; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; limited or no access to education and other basic services; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environments,

and social discrimination and exclusion. (Compare Alcock, 1997: 92.) The International Movement ATD Fourth World further stated that poverty is also defined by a lack of participation in decision-making in civil, social and cultural life. The most prevalent characteristic of life in extreme poverty is therefore an accumulation of mutually reinforcing types of insecurity. These types of insecurities have unavoidable effects on each other. When these insecurities persist exclusion becomes worse and starts to erode family and social life.

Poor people are acutely aware of their lack of voice, power, and independence, which subject them to exploitation. Their poverty also leaves them vulnerable to rudeness, humiliation, and inhumane treatment by both private and public agents of the state from whom they seek help. Poor people also speak about the pain brought about by their unavoidable violation of social norms and their inability to maintain cultural identity through participating in traditions, festivals, and rituals. The World Bank Group study (2000c: 3) emphasized that the bad life is deeply embedded in insecurity and feeling vulnerable. Insecurity is related to the external world, to the individual and family – exposure to shocks, stress, and risks that increase unpredictability and instability. Insecurity is also the experience of worry and fear. The World Bank Group study (2000c: 3) reported that even where poverty has declined, poor people reported that life had become more unstable and uncertain, particularly as a result of increased crime, violence and corruption.

Poverty has psychological affects such as distress at being unable to feed one's children, insecurity from not knowing where the next meal will come from, and shame at having to go without foods that have strong symbolic value (The World Bank Group, 2000c). Poor people report the humiliation and intimidation they suffer, and fear of the very systems designed to provide assistance. The shame and stigma they often have to bear can have a devastating effect on children particularly.

Adams, Dominelli and Payne (1998: 274-275) were of the opinion that absolute poverty blights the life chances of children. Waterhouse and McGhee, (in Adams, *et al.,* 1998: 275) stated as follows: "There is an urgent need to protect children from the worst consequences of social and economic change…. children who come from poor families may also face additional adversities which threaten children's social development. Social adversity, like poverty, is accumulative and is harder to fight as parental reserves diminish". Morris (2002: 135) emphasized that poverty, economic deprivation and social exclusion impact the skills and resources that families can develop to participate, with many families only able to gain help on an individualistic, crisis management basis. Morris stated in this regard: "With professional input repeatedly confined to acute need, the possibility of empowering effective service user participation and partnership to achieve best outcomes for children remains the critical issue facing those developing best practice with children and families".

According to Barberton, Blake and Kotzé (1998: 252-254): "Poor people are poor because they do not have access to sufficient resources to meet their basic needs. It is therefore almost trite to point out that poor people find it difficult to participate in actions that seek to address their poverty, as such actions invariably require some kind of investment, whether it is time, energy or money. In the day-to-day grind of trying to eke out subsistence, often simply to survive, poor people do not have any surplus resources left to devote to organizational activities. When does a woman with five children to care for, water and firewood to fetch and a field to tend get time to go to meetings in the neighbouring village? In addition poor people often do not have the kinds of resources, particularly skills and information that are needed to address many of the problems they face. Lack of money or income is the most immediate and obvious resource based obstacle poor people face. However, there are others that are in some ways more important as they are not only obstacles to enabling people to organize effectively, but are also the underlying reasons why many poor people do not have access to incomes".

163

The "Voices of the Poor" (2000a: 31) study referred to experiences related by poor people from different parts of the world. In Latvia, for example, poor people reported that their children experienced shame, stigma and humiliation in school when they were stigmatized because they received free lunches and were dressed in second-hand clothing and were not able to purchase school materials. According to May, *et al.* (1997: 18) a child who experiences poverty is vulnerable to the risk of impaired physical and mental development. Even if the child suffers no permanent physical damage, the disadvantage is evident. Often children from poor households are kept out of school to assist the parents or caregivers with the task of providing for the family. If a child is hungry, concentration becomes difficult at school and at the same time if there is no electricity at home; studying in the evenings is not possible and schoolwork suffer as a result of the poor conditions.

The World Bank Group study (2000b: 2) reported on a group of young men in Jamaica. They ranked lack of self-confidence as the second biggest impact of poverty and made the following statement: "Poverty means we don't believe in self, we hardly travel out of the community .... so frustrated, just locked up in the house all day". The World Bank Group study (2000b) further emphasized that poor people spoke about loss, grief, anguish, worry, madness, frustration, anger, alienation, humiliation, shame, loneliness, depression, anxiety and fear. This study revealed the importance of psychological factors in poor people's life choices and opportunities. Their inability to fully participate in community life leads to a breakdown of social relationships and networks.

According to Belshaw, *et al.* (2001:40) poor people's definitions of well-being are holistic. The good life is seen as multidimensional, with both material and psychological dimensions. It includes a dependable livelihood, peace of mind, good health, and belonging to a community. It encompasses safety; freedom of choice and action; food; and care of family and spirit. It is life with dignity.

164

In a review of the literature with regard to poverty, poor men and women very often expressed a sense of hopelessness, powerlessness, humiliation, and marginalization. Widespread corruption, from Africa, Eastern Europe, Asia and South America, were reported by the World Bank study. The World Bank Group study (2000d: 1), "What the Poor Say" report, mentioned that poor people described four pervasive and systemic problems that affected their lives adversely almost everywhere: corruption, violence, powerlessness, and insecure livelihood. Corruption is a fundamental poverty issue, not just a problem affecting high levels of governments and business. The different studies revealed how pervasive low-level corruption and lack of access to justice and protection affected poor people's lives – the problems of corruption, "connections", and violation of basic human rights with impunity were voiced repeatedly. The World Bank Group study (2000d: 2) emphasized that in country after country, poor people spoke of corruption in the distribution of various commodities that they desperately needed. Seeds, medicines and social assistance for the destitute and vulnerable were extremely difficult or impossible to obtain. Poor people reported on pervasive corruption in every sphere of their daily existence, namely: corruption in getting loans; corruption in getting teachers to teach; corruption in customs and border crossings; corruption in the construction of roads; corruption in getting permission to move in and out of cities or stay in certain areas; corruption in street and market trading; and corruption in obtaining identity cards. The World Bank Group study (2000d) reported that in many countries, poor people's access to justice and courts was a distant dream because of lack of information, distance from the courts, and a strong belief (based on experience) that only money buys justice. According to Belshaw, *et al.* (2001:44:) problems of corruption at the local level, sometimes called petty corruption, were widespread. Such problems may seem small, but from the perspective of those with limited resources, petty corruption plays a significant role in poverty. Hundreds of incidents of corruption were reported as poor people tried to seek health care, education for their children, claim social assistance, get paid, obtain justice, seek police protection, and trade in the marketplace.

With reference to corruption, Camerer (1997: 1) cited the following report: "As far back as 1989, the authors of "Uprooting poverty in South Africa: Report of the Carnegie Inquiry on poverty and development in South Africa" predicted that corruption would loom larger in a new South Africa. Noting the high degree of corruption bred by apartheid, they argued that even if a democratic government gained power, the old clerks would not necessarily learn new habits. Unfortunately, their prediction was uncannily accurate. Since the transition, corruption has burgeoned in both the public and private sectors; besides violent crime, it is probably the factor, which most preoccupies those who express concern about South Africa's future. Analysts have warned that corruption is the single biggest threat to the Reconstruction and Development Programme, and the establishment of a human rights culture. The comments from the analysts underline the fact that, contrary to perceptions in some quarters that the effects of corruption are largely confined to the middle classes, this phenomenon – particularly in the public sector – has considerable impact on the poor.

From Georgia, the following example illustrated the prevailing problem of corruption. Poor farmers equate privatization with theft, and reported that the best land is distributed to those who work for the police, courts, school directors and businessmen, while poor people received land that is not irrigated, land that is saline and less fertile soil, often many kilometres from their homes making it difficult to work the land and protect their harvest (Narayan, *et al*. 2000a: 32). From the Ukraine, street vendors reported their experiences in powerlessness where the police are silent observers or associated with the gangs and criminal organizations that control the markets (Narayan, *et al*. 2000a: 33). (Compare Alcock, 1997: 94.)

3.2.4 Poverty and state-provided infrastructure

The absence of basic infrastructure – particularly roads, bridges, pathways and rail-transport, water and sanitation, electricity, communications and health

166

facilities – which facilitates and integrates economic and social activities, emerged as critical (SANGOCO, 1998: 4). According to Booth, *et al.* (2000: 9) geographical isolation and difficulty of access by national roads, rail or other transport infrastructure can limit poor communities' participation in labour and product markets and have a negative effect on their economic opportunities. These authors emphasized that in different ways, inadequate transport conditions can contribute to both the causes of lack of income and consumption and the inability to accumulate private and social assets. Edmonds (in Booth, *et al.,* 2000: 39) made a valuable contribution to the debate regarding the importance of infrastructure with the following statement: "... poor access is one of the characteristics of poverty. In the first place, it has its effect at the most basic level of living. If there is poor access to health services, people will remain unhealthy; children will die; and any epidemic will be likely to have catastrophic results. If there is poor access to clean water, again health will suffer. If there is poor access to basic information the household will be unaware of ideas and technology that might help them to lift their level of living. And if there is poor access to education, children will probably share in the future limitations that confront their parents today". Appleby, Colon and Hamilton (2001: 30) contributed to this debate and were of the opinion that people do not choose to be poor or working class. They are limited and confined by the opportunities afforded or denied them by a social system.

Throughout the World Bank study (Narayan, *et al.,* 2000a: 37) poor people discussed the importance of key services such as roads, transportation, water, electricity, health care, marketplaces and schools. Poor transportation infrastructure also compounds problems with obtaining service provisions such as healthcare and education. According to Klugman (2001: 11) low educational attainment, illness, malnutrition and high fertility are major contributors to income poverty. Education and health capabilities are among the primary dimensions of individual well-being. (Compare Bhola, 2001: 12.) With regard to the provision of education facilities, Narayan, *et al.* (2000a) reported that while literacy was

167

viewed as important, schooling received mixed reviews, occasionally highly valued but often notably irrelevant in the lives of poor people. Narayan, *et al.* (2000a: 38) with reference to the study done in South Africa (1998) reported that in one of the South African villages, the costs associated with transporting children to schools are identified as a cause of poverty. (Compare SANGOCO, 1998: 4.) Booth, *et al.* (2000: 9) stated in this regard that the lack of transport services and infrastructure could contribute to the inability to strengthen human capabilities. According to May, *et al.* (1997: 20) education is judged by the poor in terms of its relevance as well as by issues of access and quality – and that relevance is seen primarily in terms of the likelihood of eventual access to employment. May, *et al.* (1997: 20) reported that in terms of specific problems over access to education, these could be grouped into the following broad areas:

- The costs of education whereby the amount and timing of school fees can be a significant barrier to accessing education.
- Lack of physical access to schools is a significant barrier for many poor children.
- Poor planning and resources of schools in some areas, especially schools located on farms.
- Factors linked to gender such as teenage pregnancy are major issues for girls' access to education.

The principal asset of the poor is labour time, and education increases the productivity of this asset. May, *et al.* (1997: 20) emphasized that at the individual level, a better education means a better income, and at the aggregate level, a better-educated population leads to a higher economic growth.

Ray (in Braun, Gidwani and Sugnet, 2003: 1) entered this debate and emphasized the essence of this discussion by stating the following: "No one in their right mind would ever suggest that economic development be identified, in a definitional sense, with the level or growth per capita income…development is also the removal of poverty and undernutrition: it is the increase in life expectancy, it is access to sanitation, clean drinking water, and health services; it

168

is the reduction of infant mortality; it is increased access to knowledge and schooling, and literacy in particular". It is therefore evident from the above that community poverty is related to infrastructure and service provision. According to the study "Voices of the Poor" (Narayan, *et al.,* 2000a: 39) the inadequate supply and high costs of electricity and telephones were the most frequently cited infrastructure problems. In addition to isolating communities from other infrastructure, lack of roads can also deny communities political access. Water security and sanitation distinguish the poor from the non-poor. Access to water is important for bathing and drinking as well as for agricultural production. Diseases like polio and malaria are common when safe access to water is not secured. Kehler (2000: 6) referred to a cholera outbreak in KwaZulu-Natal in September 2000, as a result of the lack of access to clean water.

May, *et al.* (1997: 21) reported on the higher prevalence of diseases of poverty among lower income groups, including tuberculosis, diarrhoea and fever. In addition, the much higher rates of mental disability among the poor are an indication of poor mental health facilities as well as the likely influence of violence and trauma on many poor people. May, *et al.* (1997: 23) reported that access to water, electricity and sanitation impact directly on quality of life. Access to clean water and sanitation has the most obvious and direct consumption benefits in reducing mortality and poor health and increasing the productive capacity of the poor. These authors offered the example of the poor (especially women) committing large shares of their income or time to obtaining water and firewood. This time would be better used in childcare or income-generating activities.

According to Booth, *et al.* (2000: 10) poverty creates an environment for individuals, which separates them from decision making in the broader society, participating in cultural events and the development of social relations. In their opinion a lack of transport services and infrastructure can be a contributory factor to creating an environment characterized by voicelessness and lack of links with the broader society. Booth, *et al.* further stated that a lack of income and

consumption, inability to accumulate private and social assets and inability to strengthen human capabilities all combine to increase insecurity and vulnerability to natural, social and economic shocks. Inadequate transport services and infrastructure constrain livelihood strategy options and restrict poor people's capacity to cope with, respond to and adapt to risks, shocks and violence.

3.2.5 Assets of the poor

Poor people focus on assets rather than income and link their lack of physical, human, social, and environmental assets to their vulnerability and exposure to risk. According to the study "Voices of the Poor" (Narayan, *et al.,* 2000a: 39) poor people rarely speak about income, but they do speak extensively about assets that are important to them. Poor people manage a diverse set of assets, physical, human, social, and environmental. These assets include a broad range of tangible and potential resources, both material and social, that individuals, households, and communities draw from in times of need or crises. The four primary classifications of assets are *physical capital*, which includes land, a house, household and personal belongings; *human capital*, which includes health, education, training, and labour power; *social capital*, which refers to the extent and nature of social networks such as family, neighbours, and associations; and *environmental assets* such as forests, rivers and oceans, wildlife and minerals. Assets function at several broadly distinguished levels: the individual, the household, and the community level. The four types of capital are of particular importance and relevance to this research study.

3.2.5.1 Physical capital

According to Booth, *et al.* (2000: 12) physical capital comprises the basic infrastructure (transport, shelter, water, energy and communications) and the production equipment and means, which enable people to pursue their livelihoods. The Department for International Development (in Kassim and

Hendriks, 2002: 33) stated that sustainable livelihoods could be defined as follows: "A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintains or enhances its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resources base". Kassim and Hendriks (2002: 33) proclaimed that livelihood sustainability is an important precondition for sustainable development as it means that progress in poverty reduction is lasting and households are not dependent upon external support. With reference to physical capital, Narayan, *et al.* (2000a: 40) reported that the ownership of, or access to land is commonly identified as a key asset. Access to land and land rights, especially in rural areas, are at the core of much of the discussions on poverty.

3.2.5.2 Human capital

Carkhuff (in Charlton, 2000: 33) provided a concise, accurate definition of human capital. He stated the following: "Human capital, defined as the skill, dexterity and knowledge of the population has become the critical input that determines the rate of growth of the economy and the wellbeing of the population". Booth, *et al.* (2000: 12) expressed similar ideas and in their opinion human capital comprises skills, knowledge, the ability to work (labour), and good health. These are all important to the ability to pursue different livelihood strategies. Bynner (2002: 3) supported this view and stated that human capital embraces the knowledge and skills that carry a premium in the labour market; thus individuals, who acquire human capital through education and training, and show returns on their investment in terms of improved earnings. Employers gain through improved productivity. Narayan, *et al.* (2000a: 42) stated that for those lacking material and productive assets, labour power is the core component of most survival strategies. It is for that reason that it is perhaps the most important human capital asset. The "Voices of the Poor" study (compare Narayan, *et al.,* 2000a: 42)

revealed that more than anything else, poor people dread serious illness within the family. Illness removes individuals from the labour pool and can push a household into poverty. Where formal institutions provide inadequate safety nets, the illness of one person within the family can affect the economic stability of the entire household. The Ghana study indicated that disease, sometimes followed by premature death, was often the cause of extreme poverty. Very often it was reported that poor health (including disability) was perceived as a characteristic of the poorest people. Leon, Walt and Gilson (2001: 5) were of the opinion that the understanding of the aetiological mechanisms that drive socioeconomic differences in health varies according to disease and context. Some of the links between absolute poverty and ill health are well understood. For example, poor housing, sanitation and hygiene can lead to increased exposure to communicable diseases, and malnourishment reduces resistance to infection. However, even among those living in absolute poverty, there seem to be differences in the extent to which parents are able to use their scant resources to influence their children's morbidity and mortality. Leon, *et al.* emphasized that this underlines the need to develop people's capacities and resourcefulness within broader strategies to reduce the effects of absolute deprivation on health. Leon, *et al.* (2001: 2) reported that poverty and ill health impair the capability of individuals to realize their own goals – and redressing that damage cannot be reduced to the economics of wealth creation.

- **Literacy** is a crucial component of building human capital. Narayan, *et al.* (2000a: 43) reported that literacy, or "the thirst for letters," is valued everywhere. According to Barberton, *et al.* (1998: 255-256) levels of literacy and numeracy among poor people are very low. Groener (2001: 2) supported this view and stated in this regard: "Analysis of the statistics provided by Statistics South Africa shows that 64% of adults, who are unemployed have no education. These statistics seem to suggest a significant correlation between unemployment and illiteracy. As the unemployed and the illiterate are usually among the poorest in a society, it can be assumed that illiteracy is

also an indicator of poverty". Barberton, *et al.* (1998: 255-256) expressed the concern that discrimination within the education system, is responsible for the low levels of literacy. Despite improving access for poor people recently, vast inequalities in access and quality persist in the education system. (Compare Stromquist, 2001: 1.) The following are crucial issues in the education, and more specifically the adult education and life-long learning debate:

- Low literacy effectively isolates people; limiting their contact with the outside world to those people they are able to speak directly to. This means poor people struggling in one area are unlikely to be able to link up effectively with poor people in other areas, regionally, nationally or internationally. Their combined power remains untapped.

- Awareness, through literature, of what is happening elsewhere can assist people in their struggle locally, but low levels of literacy and lack of access to such information inhibits this.

- Low literacy also means people are unable to get access to information essential for effective lobbying by way of newspapers, magazines, government notices, policy papers, bills of Parliament, information on development opportunities and agreements. (Compare Nuwagaba, 2001:2.)

- Low literacy complicates normal organizational activities like giving notice of meetings, taking minutes, using computers, developing position papers, planning and monitoring. It also makes engagement in lobbying activities difficult, as this usually requires the writing of letters, faxes and electronic correspondence.

- Low literacy also leads to the concentration of responsibilities on a few people who can read and write. Apart from overburdening such people, this can lead to a dilution of democratic accountability.

- Lack of numeracy skills inhibit people's ability to engage in debates and processes that involve numbers in various ways, such as budgets, financial forecasting, and needs assessments. These are often instrumental in deciding how resources are allocated.

- Information is an important source of power. Illiteracy denies people cognitive skills to decode and adopt technology, access to information, knowledge and skills concerning better methods of food production and income generation, soil conservation, pest and disease control and marketing opportunities. Poor people by and large lack access to information that could assist them. These include information on rights protected under the new Constitution, where to get legal assistance, information on elections and structures of governance, how to gain access to pensions, housing grants and small business loans, on donor funding and development initiatives, and on creative organizational responses to development challenges and struggle to empower communities. (Compare Nuwagaba. 2001: 2 and Mayfield, 1997: 62.)
- Low literacy is a significant barrier to the dissemination of information in printed form.

According to Belshaw, *et al.* (2001: 148) one of the major goals that governments should adopt to combat poverty in Africa, is the achievement of functional literacy and numeracy. Belshaw, *et al.* (2001) noted that it has been found that people who complete a basic education earn significantly more than people without schooling. These authors suggest, therefore, that basic education should be made universal, free, and compulsory. There should also be functional literacy programs aimed at reducing adult illiteracy rates. Belshaw, *et al.* (2001) stressed that access to education is essential for sustainable development. Women and girls comprise 65 percent of the world's illiterate. Gender-sensitive education should be promoted to ensure sustainability. Rural and urban people, especially the poor, should benefit from education that is relevant to their needs. (Compare International Women's Caucus for the World Summit on Sustainable Development.)

Barberton, *et al.* (1998: 257) were concerned about poor people's lack of appropriate skills and indicated the following concerns:

- Underlying poor people's low levels of income is the fact that they have been denied the opportunity, either by law or circumstances to develop appropriate marketable skills.
- Lack of skills impedes poor people's capacity to participate effectively in institutions of governance and to organize their own initiatives and campaigns.
- The important role of skills training and development of people's capacity are highlighted. Skills training programmes would enable poor people, particularly poor women to become financially independent. The most important skill people need is literacy.

The "Voices of the Poor" study (Narayan, 2000a: 43) revealed that in Togo, India, Swaziland, Guinea-Bissau, Mali and Vietnam people believed in the value of education and schooling. Investment in education is seen as the most important way out of poverty. Poor people recognize that literacy would help them manage their lives better. Literacy is defined as the ability to solve problems that are relevant and important to the learners in dealing with their families, communities, and the outside world. According to Stromquist (2001: 1) the value of literacy is as follows: "The virtues attached to literacy skills are undeniable. The ability to read and write creates numerous positive impacts and outcomes, generating both individual and social benefits. For women, education offers both promise and verifiable results".

According to Lalthapersad-Pillay (2001: 16) investment in human capital is the essential component of a long-term poverty alleviation scheme. Spending on education might have limited immediate benefits in the short run, but it accelerates development in the long run. Training people is not sufficient; it is important to provide the environment to facilitate the application of newly acquired skills. Better education, health and nutrition can help dissipate the core of poverty. Studies show that human capital investment, especially provision of education, can help minimize the primal causes of poverty. Improvements in

health, education and nutrition reinforce each other. Lalthapersad-Pillay (2001: 16) wrote that in education, government's have tended to more readily finance higher-level training at the expense of services that would benefit the poor. Evidence indicates that tertiary education yields the lowest social rate of return but many countries spend a disproportionate share of their education funds at that level. The problem in education is not strictly confined to enrolment rates because in practice, low enrolment rates exist in conjunction with high failure and dropout rates. According to Lalthapersad-Pillay (2001: 16) in low income countries more than 40 percent of those who enter primary school fail to finish.

Narayan (2000a: 43) reported that in Togo, people believe that illiteracy limits the ability of individuals to secure employment, follow written instructions, and take advantage of government services or access to credit. In this regard the following was reported from the India (1997) study (Narayan, *et al.,* 2000a: 43): "They understand that illiteracy has made them more dependent, less enterprising and more vulnerable to the machinations of the educated". It is often difficult for families to invest in education. Very often, parents make considerable sacrifices, including rationing food to reduce household expenses so that their children can go to school.

3.2.5.3 Social capital

Broadly defined, social capital refers to the benefits of membership within a social network, relationships of trust and access of wider institutions of society (Booth, *et al.,* 2000: 12). Bynner (2002: 3) mentioned three elements of social capital, namely: bridging, bonding and linking. Bynner (2002: 3) stated that bonding reflects the relations within communities; bridging stresses the need for links across communities and linking itself reflects the need for bridging across the different socio-economic strata of society, i.e. strong social relations within and across social classes and groups. The accessibility of additional resources via social connections enables poor people to meet everyday needs. In addition,

because poor people can rarely afford formal insurance to protect them in the event of crises such as natural disasters, financial crises, health emergencies and unemployment, reciprocal social relationships provide wells of financial, social, or political support that can be drawn from during times of need. Although friends, neighbours, professional ties, and links that extend beyond the community are critical assets for improving welfare, the most frequently mentioned coping mechanism for poor people is the extended family.

When poor people help one another, their scant resources may limit the gains made. It would therefore appear to be that social capital provides a hedge but rarely by itself lifts poor people out of poverty. The message appears to be that social capital is a two-way street. Social networks provide benefits such as access to scarce resources, but membership also entails having claims made upon one's own resources. Narayan, *et al.* (2000a: 45) reported that poor people from Mali felt that accumulating assets at the individual or household level was difficult or impossible because of the claims of family members. This kind of relationship within the extended family may even affect fertility decisions. A person might make the responsible choice to have fewer children in order to limit the drain on the family's resources, but in the end have to care for the children of relatives. It would therefore appear to be that while on the one hand the extended family is a powerful safety net, on the other it discourages behaviour that in the long run would contribute to alleviating poverty such as productive investments or limited family size. The levels of social capital are constantly in flux. Without connections to resources beyond poor communities, poor people's networks provide survival and defence in a struggle to meet the demands of daily existence.

3.2.5.4 Environmental capital/ Natural capital

According to Booth, *et al.* (2000: 12) useful resources flow from land, water, wildlife, minerals and biodiversity. Environmental management is an integral part

of poverty reduction. Poverty is a major cause of environmental destruction. In poor countries, because of the close relationship between poverty, population growth, and environmental degradation, the most important actions to conserve natural resources are those that are aimed at stabilizing populations and alleviating poverty.

Dodds, (2000: 124) referred to the conclusion drawn by the United Nations Environment Programme, when it was stated that the two basic causes of the environmental crises are poverty and misuse of wealth: the poor majority is forced to destroy, in short term, the very resources they will need for their long-term subsistence, while the rich minority makes demands on resources that are unsustainable in the long term, thus transferring the costs to the poor.

According to Goodstein (2002: 450- 453) and Dodds (2000: 126) sustainability cannot be achieved unless poverty is directly addressed, because poverty and environmental degradation go hand in hand. These authors mentioned some of the close connections between poverty and the environment, namely:

- For poor people, many environmental problems are problems of poverty. The biggest environmental health threat facing most people in poor countries is unsafe drinking water, compounded by inadequate sewage facilities. Around 1 billion people are without access to safe water, and over 1.7 billion are without adequate sanitation. Billions of illnesses each year and millions of deaths are attributed to water pollution. Exposure to indoor air pollution from cooking and heating sources rank close to urban air pollution as a concern. Some 400 million people worldwide are exposed to unsafe levels of indoor smoke, as against 700 million for outdoor air pollutants. Exposure to indoor pollution is typically more intense.
- Poor people cannot afford to conserve resources. Out of economic necessity, poor people often put an unsustainable burden on the natural capital in their immediate environment. Urban residents scour the

178

immediate countryside for fuel – firewood or animal dung – leading to deforestation or the elimination of fertilizer sources. Landless farmers are pushed into over-farming small plots, farming on steep mountain slopes that soon wash out, or farming in clear-cut rain forests incapable of sustaining agriculture.

- Population growth slows with increased income. The final link between poverty and the environment lies in income growth as a means of population control. As societies grow wealthier, almost universally families have fewer children.

Laltharpersad-Pillay (2001: 5) supported this view and indicated that poverty and population growth reinforces each other in a number of ways. By-products of poverty such as low wages (especially for women), inadequate education and high infant mortality, contribute to high fertility rates and thus to rapid population growth. Nationally, higher fertility negatively affects educational funding and labour market absorption rates. At a household level, high fertility poses a danger to the health of both mother and child. Closely spaced pregnancies, harm mothers, and subsequently affect the child's health at birth and in critical years.

In many countries the rural poor depend heavily on common property natural resources. Safe drinking water, fuel wood, grasslands for cattle, wetlands for fish, are essential for subsistence and cash income. According to Narayan, *et al.* (2000a: 46) a large number of the world's poorest people face challenges native to life in environmentally fragile areas such as arid and tropical lands with limited soil fertility. Without access to other lands, increasing numbers of poor people have moved onto steep hillsides and low-lying coastal areas. Without major investments in erosion and flood control, these lands are often not suitable for farming or housing. In an increasing number of these fragile sites, mounting population pressures and the concomitant stresses on the environment create a downward spiral of impoverishment and resource degradation that includes erosion, reduced soil fertility, depleted marine and forestry resources, and

declining availability of fresh water. The "Voices of the Poor" study (Narayan, *et al.,* 2000a: 46) reported that in Ghana the poorest rural communities are those where the natural resource base has become extremely depleted as a result of high population densities. Narayan, *et al.* (2000a: 46) indicated that many traditional coping strategies such as gathering wood, hunting "bush meat", fishing, and harvesting herbs, fruits, or nuts rely on common resources. Pressure on these resources is intensifying, however, and several reports documented that these resources are disappearing. Shrinking tree coverage in large portions of Benin has meant that poor people can no longer gather wild food and hunt during periods of food shortage. (Compare Narayan, *et al.,* 2000a: 46.)

Resource degradation is a fact of life for many of the people interviewed in the "Voices of the Poor" study (Narayan, et al., 2000a: 47). Resource degradation not only erodes the assets and productivity of individual households, but it can also impoverish entire communities. The urban poor are also vulnerable to other kinds of environmental risks. Poor people are often forced by circumstances beyond their control to build shelters on steep hillsides and marshes that can be easily swept away by mudslides and floods. According to the "Voices of the Poor", South Africa, 1998 study, in urban areas, where the poor live in closely built shack settlements, fire is a real hazard due to widespread use of paraffin and use of cardboard and wood as building materials. Extreme weather conditions such as droughts and floods can devastate communities worldwide, but it is often the poor people residing in marginal areas and precarious housing who are most exposed to such shocks. In 1998, heavy rains, landslides, flooding, hailstorms, cyclones, thunder squalls, and drought buffeted more than 60,000 villages in India. The intense weather patterns exacted a massive financial toll that exceeded the previous combined five years of relief funds. Poor people were the worst affected (Narayan, *et al.,* 2000a: 47). Disasters can also exacerbate other sources of vulnerability and overwhelm traditional coping mechanisms. Poor people in Swaziland and Zambia, see drought as among their most severe problems. Similarly, residents of the Bolangir district in India reported that it was

impossible to recover from the five-year cycles of drought due to extreme losses of crops, indebtedness, starvation, land-alienation, the sale of assets, and irreparable damage to nearby forest resources. During droughts, household consumption falls by at least one-half (Narayan, *et al.,* 2000a: 48).

3.2.6 Assets and vulnerability

According to the Poverty and Inequality Report (1998: 3) poverty is not a static condition; individuals, households or communities may be vulnerable to poverty as a result of shocks and crises (uncontrollable events which harm livelihoods and food security) and long-term trends (such as racial and gender discrimination, environmental degradation and macroeconomic trends). Vulnerability to poverty is therefore characterized by an inability to devise an appropriate coping or management strategy in times of crisis. Poverty may also involve social exclusion in either an economic dimension (exclusion from the labour market and opportunities to earn income) or a purely social dimension (exclusion from decision-making, social services, and access to community and family support).

Although poverty and vulnerability are often related, they are not synonymous. Some groups may be at risk of becoming poor because of inherent vulnerabilities (i.e., different types of discrimination based on class, gender, ethnicity, or factors such as disability, region of residence and family configuration. Furthermore, certain combinations of vulnerability may be strongly correlated with poverty, such as female-headed households or families living in remote and isolated mountainous regions. But not all members of a particular vulnerable group are invariably poor – hence the need to distinguish between the two when dealing with indicators. In short, poverty relates to deprivation, while vulnerability is a function of external risks, shocks, stresses and internal defencelessness (Human Development Report, 1997: 13). According to Hulme, *et al.* (2001: 7), it can be argued that what poor people are concerned about is not that their level of

income, consumption or capabilities are low, but that they are likely to experience highly stressful declines in these levels, to the point of premature death.

According to May, *et al.* (1997: 29) vulnerability refers to having (or not having) secured and sustainable access to essential commodities, services and other conditions for an acceptable life (e.g. physical safety of the person). These authors were of the opinion that seasonal stress is an important dimension of vulnerability and has long been recognised as a feature of the livelihoods of the poor in many contexts. May, *et al.* (1997: 29) offered the example of poor woman in KwaZulu-Natal, where it is indicated that the months when they "struggled the most" were September, October, August and July (in that order). The components of this recurring crisis were lack of home produced food, especially maize, which is exhausted in this season, combined with low levels of income from casual work, and high levels of expenditure required for buying seeds, fertilizer and obtaining tractor ploughing services. The implications are that cash resources have to be spilt between the purchase of food, and investment into the forthcoming season. At the beginning of the year, in January/February school fees are due and income is low. In the Northern Province, a similar cycle was reported with the "lean season" in the winter months with malnutrition rising to a peak in July and August.

The "Voices of the Poor" study (Narayan, *et al.,* 2000a: 48) revealed that poor people's fears pertain to lack of assets and anxiety about their ability to survive in increasingly unpredictable and insecure environments. This includes economic, social and environmental uncertainty. Narayan, *et al.* (2000a: 48) was of the opinion that vulnerability is best understood as a lack of key assets, exposing individuals, households, and communities to increased or disproportionate risk of impoverishment. It is always the conjunction of many factors that causes vulnerability. A participant from Swaziland (in Narayan, et al., 2000a: 48) that had suffered from drought and cattle rustling explained: "A lot of people were sending their children to school by using the cattle. Come plowing time, the oxen could be

182

used. Come planting time they would sell the cattle to buy seed and fertilizer. Come drought, a few cattle would be sold to tide the family over till the next harvest. Now with so many kraals empty (due to theft), the kids will drop out of school, people will have a problem with farm inputs, and we will be more vulnerable to hunger during the drought". From the "Voices of the Poor" study, (Narayan, *et al.,* 2000a: 51) it is evident that assets used by the poor to mediate social, economic, and environmental adversity are multidimensional in nature and are constituted by a broad array of tangible and intangible physical, human, social and environmental resources. Families that lack certain key assets may not necessarily be poor, but nonetheless may be extremely vulnerable in times of need or crisis. Assets available to the poor are very often scarce. Ability to draw upon assets in times of need is directly dependent upon the power relations governing these resources at a number of levels from the household to the regional/formal institutional level.

There are often strong gender differences. The mobilization of assets involves a negotiation of power and control over resources. The "Voices of the Poor" study (Narayan, et al., 2000a: 51) concluded that the poor tend to mention income only infrequently relative to assets such as membership within kinship and social networks, health, labour power, land, and other resources that make self-provisioning possible. The Ghana report mentioned that a secure livelihood is frequently more important than the incentive to maximize income. The data from the abovementioned study provided compelling evidence that for many of the world's poor, monetary income is only a part of a much broader array of potential assets. Social relations are assets, and because the poor have weak bargaining power, the organizational capacity of poor people and the quality of processes of intervention are important (Narayan, *et al.,* 2000a: 51). According to Klugman (2001: 12) insecurity can be understood as vulnerability to a decline in well-being. The shock triggering the decline can occur at the micro or household level (e.g. illness, death); at the meso or community level (pollution, riots); and/or at the national or international level (national calamities or macroeconomic shocks).

From the above, the aspect of vulnerability appears to be extremely important in assessing the economic, social and environmental sustainability of poor communities.

3.3   THE SOCIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

The concepts of poverty emerging from the perspective of sociological deprivations are rooted in underlying structural inequities and inherent disadvantages. They are based on observations that even when resources are flowing into sectors dominated by the poor, the latter may not be able to take full advantage of them because of structural impediments. These constraints hamper access by the poor to "external" assets, such as credit, land, infrastructure and common property (i.e. the natural environment), and "internal" assets, such as health, nutrition and education. The fundamental causal factors lie in power structures and governance issues, as well as in the inequities imbedded in macropolicy frameworks and distributional systems. In this regard a valuable statement was made by the Commission of Inquiry into Poverty, 1975, cited in Saunders (1998: 6): "If poverty is seen as a result of structural inequality within society, any serious attempt to eliminate poverty must seek to change those conditions which produce it. Although individual members of society are reluctant to accept responsibility for the existence of poverty, its continuance is a judgment on the society which condones the conditions causing poverty".

Specialized government departments such as social welfare and the services provided by civil society play an invaluable role in developing policies to relieve poverty and prevent the suffering of so many poor people. The root causes of poverty, however, are so complex that it is necessary to look beyond specialized responses and poor communities themselves to find them. They lie in the structure of society itself, and the general public's tacit willingness to support this structure.

184

Poverty eradication requires a holistic approach to overcome the attitudes, policies and structural obstacles that engender exclusion. Only by taking into account the existence, the voice and the hidden potential of the poorest people in all spheres of life (political, economic, social, cultural) will society create the conditions necessary to eradicate extreme poverty. Father Joseph Wresinski, founder of the "Aide à Toute Détresse" (ATD) [aid for all in distress] association made a valuable contribution when he stated that: "Extreme poverty is the work of human beings, and only human beings can destroy it" (International Movement ATD Fourth World, 2002: 3).

Inequality and poverty affect each other directly and indirectly through their link with economic growth and progress. Whereas poverty refers to different forms of deprivation that can be expressed in a variety of terms (i.e., income, basic needs, human capabilities), equity is concerned with distribution within a population group. Despite the clear distinction between the two concepts, analysis of poverty often employs indicators of equity because of inherent linkages between the two.

According to May, *et al.* (1997: 4) the term "equality" can be regarded as referring to a state of social organization that enables or gives equal access to resources and opportunities to all members of a society. It would therefore appear to be extremely important for a society to be structured in such a way that equal access to all spheres of daily existence are available to all citizens. Within the economic dimension this would mean that the individual would have the ability to earn an income, to consume, to have assets and access to food and shelter, and to productive physical and financial resources and to maintain a sustainable livelihood. With regard to the human dimension or human development, the individual would have access to education (the ability to read, write and communicate), and be free from disease and health-related handicaps – these capabilities derive from access to health, education, clean water and shelter. Within the political dimension the individual should have the ability to understand

and have a voice in public policies and priorities. The individual should enjoy basic human and political rights and freedoms and not be subjected to abuse by state officials. Within the socio-cultural dimension equality would imply that the individual would have the ability to enjoy dignity and be considered a valued member of wider society, as well as the ability to practice own cultural traditions. (Compare United Nations Capital Development Fund, 2002.)

According to May, *et al.* (1997: 4-5) ensuring equal access to education, employment opportunities, political power and decision making forums, can contribute to reducing inequality. These authors (1997: 5) stated that when measuring concepts of poverty and inequality, objective social indicators, such as income levels, consumption expenditure, life expectancy and housing standards, as well as subjective indicators, which are based upon attitudes, needs and aspirations gathered directly from people, come into play.

The Poverty and Inequality in South Africa Summary Report (1998), made it clear that effective governance can only take place if state institutions function properly and are responsive to the needs of individuals, especially the poor and marginalized. Other processes are equally important, such as a culture of human rights, the rule of law, gender equality and open electoral processes. The Poverty and Inequality Report (PIR) emphasized that democratic reforms do not necessarily help the poor unless the institutions of government are improved in terms of being mechanisms for popular participation, the administration of justice, and bureaucracies stimulated by incentives and held accountable by performance measures. Institutional failure can undermine attempts to address poverty and inequality through the rules and structures of the institutions themselves, through the non-delivery of the services the institutions are meant to provide, and through the behaviour and attitude of the people within the institutions. The success of development initiatives thus largely depends on the strengths and weaknesses of the underlying institutional environment. Institutions can be assessed against four criteria: efficiency (i.e., cost-effective delivery);

equity (development must reach the poor); adaptability (as society changes, institutions must be able to recognize the need to reorganize and restructure priorities); and accountability (institutions and their officials must be held responsible for their actions).

The United Nations Development Programme, Human Development Report, (Summary, 2002: 59) reported that around the world, discussions on development are placing more emphasis on institutions and governance. These debates have focused on the effectiveness of public institutions, and the procedures in place for making markets function properly and promoting growth. Debates have focused on a variety of issues; namely, professionalism, transparency of tax systems, the capacity of the judicial systems and enforcing commercial contracts. The Human Development Report (2002: 59) stated that these issues are important for human development. When institutions function badly, poor and vulnerable people tend to suffer most. Human development requires more than raising incomes. Governance for human development requires more than having effective public institutions. Good governance also requires fostering fair, accountable institutions that protect human rights and basic freedoms. It is not only about whether judges are trained, but whether they observe due process and are blind to differences of race and class. It is not only about whether schools are built, but whether students in poor district are as well equipped as students in affluent areas. The Human Development Report (2002: 59) contributed the following statement: "Advancing human development requires governance that is democratic in both form and substance – for the people and by the people".

Democratic governance is valuable in its own right, and can advance human development. The reasons are threefold: The first being, enjoying political freedom, and participating in the decisions that shape one's life are fundamental human rights – they are part of human development in their own right. In Brunei, Dar es Salaam, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab

187

Emirates women's right to vote has never been recognised. Regardless of their income, this significantly restricts their choices in life. Democracy is the only political regime that guarantees political and civil freedoms and the right to participate. The second reason is that democracy helps protect people from economic and political catastrophes such as famines and descents into chaos. It can mean the difference between life and death. The Human Development Report (2002: 60) stated that since 1995, an estimated 2 million people, 10% of the population, have died of famine in the Democratic People's Republic of Korea. In 1958-61 nearly 30 million people died of famine in China. Since achieving independence in 1947, India has not had a single famine, even in the face of severe crop failures. Food production was hard hit during the 1973 drought in Maharashtra. Elected politicians responded with public works programmes for 5 million people and averted a famine. The third reason is that democratic governance can trigger a virtuous cycle of development – as political freedom empowers people to campaign for policies that expand social and economic opportunities. Open debates help communities shape their priorities. From Indonesia to Mexico to Poland, moves towards democratization and political expression have helped produce this kind of virtuous cycle. A free press and civil society activism gave people new ways to participate in policy decisions and debates (Compare Human Development Report, 2002: 60.)

3.3.1 Poverty and exclusion

According to Lok-Dessallien (1999: 5) there is no broad consensus on the definition of social exclusion, or its relationship to poverty. This author stated in this regard that at one end of the spectrum there are those who define social exclusion within the concept of poverty, focusing on those aspects of social deprivation that impede people from participating fully in their society and its development. Lok-Dessallien (1999: 6) further explained that at the other end of the spectrum, there are those whose notion of social exclusion encompasses a much broader range of issues, including poverty itself. Lok-Dessallien made it

188

clear that if the definition of poverty were narrow, expressed in terms of a lack of material possessions and income, then the definition of social exclusion would be considered in broad terms, including material deprivation. If the definition of poverty is multidimensional, then it is likely that social exclusion would refer more specifically to issues of participation, empowerment and social rights.

3.3.2 Characteristics of chronic poverty

According to Hulme, *et al.* (2001: 8) the defining feature of "chronic poverty" is its extended duration. Poverty that is both severe and multi-dimensional but does not last a "long" time, is by its nature not chronic. However, it is hypothesized that duration, multi-dimensionality and severity of poverty build upon each other. Thus, while those in severe income poverty at any given time are not necessarily chronically poor, the chronically poor are likely to be experiencing severe and multi-dimensional poverty. The abovementioned authors (2001: 9) were of the opinion that it is important to emphasize that these relationships are empirical, and need to be discovered; it is likely that the degree of chronic poverty varies substantially from one society to another as well as over time. In assessing chronic poverty the intangible elements of ill-being, such as isolation, disempowerment, helplessness and hopelessness, are important.

Voicelessness and powerlessness are closely linked with material deprivation. The following profound statement by a woman from Kibaale, Uganda (in Brock, 1999: 64) is a stark reminder of the pain and suffering of poor people all around the world: "Poverty has always been with us in our communities. It was there in the past, long before Europeans came, and it affected many – perhaps all of us. But it was a different type of poverty. People were not helpless. They acted together and never allowed it to "squeeze" any member of the community … But now things have changed. Each person is on their own. A few people who have acquired material wealth are very scared of sliding back into poverty. They do not want to look like us … we are left to fight this poverty ourselves. And yet we only

understand a little of it. It is only its effects that we can see. The causes we cannot grasp. The forces of poverty and impoverishment are so powerful today. They can only be managed by Governments, or the big churches. So now we feel somewhat hopeless: it is this feeling of helplessness that is so painful, more painful than poverty itself".

From the above discussion it is evident that poverty has wide-ranging implications for individuals and communities.

3.4 UNDERDEVELOPMENT

According to Todaro (1997: 725), underdevelopment can be defined as an economic situation in which there are persistent low levels of living in conjunction with absolute poverty, low income per capita, low rates of economic growth, low consumption levels, poor health services, high death rates, high birth-rates, dependence on foreign economies, and limited freedom to choose among activities that satisfy human wants. Todaro (1997: 685) was of the opinion that development is the process of improving the quality of all human lives. Three equally important aspects of development are:

- Raising people's living levels – their incomes and consumption levels of food, medical services, and education, through relevant economic growth processes;
- Creating conditions conducive to the growth of people's self-esteem through the establishment of social, political, and economic systems and institutions that promote human dignity and respect; and
- Increasing people's freedom by enlarging the range of their choice variables, as by increasing varieties of consumer goods and services.

Bhola (2001: 7) provided a comprehensive definition of "development" that is important to consider in an effort to conceptualise "underdevelopment". He commented as follows: "Development, defined as a set of systematic and

190

strategic actions of economic, political, and socio-cultural nature undertaken by the state and the civil society to improve and enrich the lives of individuals and collectivities on a sustainable basis, has been on the agendas of nations for more than a half century".

According to Lok-Dessallien (1999: 6), the distinction between poverty and underdevelopment is dependent on how each is defined. When the definition is in broad human deprivation terms, poverty is often viewed as a form of under-development. The Human Development Report (1997: 15) distinguished between the two concepts by associating the former with individuals and the latter with an aggregate perspective. The Report stated in this regard: " The contrast between human development and human poverty reflects two different ways of evaluating development. One way, the "conglomerate perspective", focuses on the advances made by all groups in each community, from the rich to the poor. This contrasts with an alternative viewpoint, the "deprivational perspective", in which development is judged by the way the poor and the deprived fare in each community. Lack of progress in reducing the disadvantages of the deprived cannot be "washed away" by large advances – no matter how large – made by better-off people." The Report stated clearly that interest in the process of development concerns both perspectives. For the purpose of this study, the emphasis is on the deprivations in human development, therefore a deprivational perspective.

A state of underdevelopment can be recognized when people are not in control of their own lives, i.e. when a state of dependency exists. The International Labour Organization (ILO) (2000: 3) stated that child labour could be considered as one of the phenomena caused by underdevelopment and poverty, and that it is not the problem, but a symptom of the problem of poverty and inequality. A vicious circle persists between underdevelopment and child labour. According to the ILO (2000: 3) child labour is a product of low living standards of the population resulting from the low level of income, illiteracy and increasingly lack of means of

191

subsistence – food, shelter, and clothing and inadequate basic schooling or education system. The ILO further emphasized that the result of such poor conditions is, that the practice of child labour is considered an effective means of augmenting the current level of income among poor families so as to enhance, by and large, their economic well-being.

UNICEF (in ILO, 2000: 3) reported that a lack of investment in basic services and labour-saving technologies in underdeveloped economies made large numbers of children necessary, even essential as a source of help in fields and homes. Unfortunately the practice of child labour prevents children from going to school resulting in low school attendance rates and a low level of general and vocational education among children. The consequence of child labour therefore has an adverse impact on the productive capacity of children themselves. This has negative implications for when they reach adulthood. The ILO emphasized that children are underpaid which makes them unable to meet the requirement of housing and purchasing food. It is therefore not difficult to understand that the vicious cycle between underdevelopment and child labour is self-perpetuating.

There is a close relationship between the two concepts, poverty and underdevelopment, and for that reason many poverty indicators are the same as those used to measure underdevelopment. It is clear from the above discussion that sustainable development requires an understanding of development, but more importantly of underdevelopment and the complex intricacies of the processes underlying them. The Human Capability concept is an important component of understanding underdevelopment and will be discussed in the following section.

3.4.1 The human capability concept

The human capability concept of poverty focuses on expanding people's opportunities and spans both the physiological and sociological realms of

deprivation. It would therefore appear to be that poverty is not merely the impoverished state in which the person actually lives, but the fact that the person does not have real opportunities – due to social constraints as well as personal circumstances, to be able to live a valuable life. Emphasis on empowering the poor, facilitating their participation in society and enabling them to move upward on the socioeconomic ladder, are central to the human capability approach to poverty reduction. Investment in human resources and the creation of human capital by means of formal schooling, vocational, on-the-job training programs, and adult education, could be extremely effective in augmenting human skills and resources. Direct investments in buildings, educational materials, vocational tools, science equipment and information technology could be as effective in expanding people's opportunities.

Todaro (1997:15) was of the opinion that the phenomenon of development or the existence of a chronic state of underdevelopment is not only a question of economics or even one of quantitative measurement of incomes, employment, and inequality. Underdevelopment is a way of life for more than 3 billion people in the world. Goulet (in Todaro, 1997: 15) made a passionate argument with reference to underdevelopment and poverty when he forcefully portrayed it as follows: "Underdevelopment is shocking: the squalor, disease, unnecessary deaths, and hopelessness of it all! No man understands if underdevelopment remains for him a mere statistic reflecting low income, poor housing, premature mortality or underemployment. The most empathetic observer can speak objectively about underdevelopment only after undergoing, personally or vicariously, the "shock of underdevelopment." This unique culture shock comes to one as he is initiated to the emotions, which prevail in the "culture of poverty." Those living in destitution when a new self-understanding reveals to them that their life is neither human nor inevitable... feel the reverse shock. The prevalent emotion of under-development is a sense of personal and societal impotence in the face of disease and death, of confusion and ignorance as one gropes to understand change, of servility toward men whose decisions govern the course

193

of events, of hopelessness before hunger and natural catastrophe. Chronic poverty is a cruel kind of hell, and one cannot understand how cruel that hell is merely by gazing upon poverty as an object."

The importance of seeking and finding a more sustainable solution to poverty was revealed in the 1991 World Development Report (in Todaro, 1997: 15), when it stated the following: "The challenge of development is to improve the quality of life. Especially in the world's poor countries, a better quality of life generally calls for higher incomes – but it involves much more. It encompasses as ends in themselves better education, higher standards of health and nutrition, less poverty, a cleaner environment, more equality of opportunity, greater individual freedom, and a richer cultural life". Todaro (1997: 16) reiterated that development must therefore be conceived of as a multidimensional process involving major changes in social structures, popular attitudes, and national institutions, as well as the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality, and the eradication of poverty. Streeten's (in Todaro, 1997: 69) viewpoint is in similar vein and stressed that development must be redefined as an attack on the evils of the world today, namely, malnutrition, disease, illiteracy, slums, unemployment and inequality. In his opinion when development is measured in terms of aggregate growth rates, development has been a great success. Unfortunately when it is measured in terms of jobs, justice and the elimination of poverty, it has been a failure or only a partial success.

To have a clear understanding of underdevelopment it is important to explore the concept "development". Todaro's (1997: 16) contribution is that at least three core values should serve as a conceptual basis and practical guideline for understanding development. These core values – sustenance, self-esteem and freedom – represent common goals sought by all individuals and societies. It is related to fundamental human needs that find expression in almost all societies and cultures at all times. These are now explained.

194

- **Sustenance: the ability to meet basic needs**

According to Todaro (1997: 16) all people have certain basic needs without which life would be impossible. Life-sustaining basic human needs include food, shelter, health, and protection. When any of these is absent or in short supply, a condition of "absolute underdevelopment" exists. A basic function of all economic activity is to provide as many people as possible with the means of overcoming the helplessness and misery arising from a lack of food, shelter, health, and protection. It is therefore claimed that economic development is a necessary condition for the improvement in the quality of life and overall development. Without sustained and continuous economic progress at the individual as well as the societal level, the realization of the human potential would not be possible. It is necessary to "have enough in order to be more." Raising per capita income, the elimination of absolute poverty, greater employment opportunities, and lessening income inequalities therefore constitute the necessary but not sufficient conditions for development.

- **Self-esteem: to be a person**

Todaro (1997: 17) was of the opinion that a second universal component of the good life is self-esteem – a sense of worth and self-respect. All people and societies seek some basic form of self-esteem. It may be called authenticity, identity, dignity, respect, honor, or recognition. The nature and form of this self-esteem may vary from society to society and from culture to culture.

- **Freedom from servitude: to be able to choose**

According to Todaro (1997: 17) a third universal value is freedom. The author stated that freedom is to be understood in the sense of emancipation from alienating material conditions of life and from social servitude to nature, ignorance, other people, misery, institutions, and dogmatic beliefs. Freedom involves an expanded range of choices for societies and their members together with a minimization of external constraints, to achieve development. Lewis (in Todaro, 1997: 17) emphasized the relationship between economic growth and

freedom from servitude when he concluded that "the advantage of economic growth is not that wealth increases happiness, but that it increases the range of human choice." Wealth can enable people to gain greater control over nature and the physical environment (e.g., through the production of food, clothing, and shelter) than they would have if they remained poor. When people have insufficient savings and investments, lack education and skills and have barriers to opportunities, these factors become responsible for underdevelopment.

It would therefore appear to be that the "better life" enables people to have the freedom to choose whatever they decide are their priorities and ultimate goals in life. The phenomenon of underdevelopment is thus a state of existence where people lack all or most of the goods, services and opportunities to have a decent standard of living and a fulfilling life. Problems of poverty, inequality, low productivity, population growth and unemployment would require economic and social rethinking of strategies in order to make it more responsive to the development of all people. Pope John Paul 11 (in Todaro, 1997: 137) contributed a profound statement in Brazil in 1980 when he stated the following: "A society that is not socially just and does not intend to be puts its own future in danger". It would therefore appear to be that the perpetuation of underdevelopment would inevitably inhibit the quality of life and advancement of the wider population in any society.

Todaro (1997: 18) concluded that development is both a physical reality and a state of mind in which society has, through some combination of social, economic and institutional processes, secured the means for obtaining a better life. According to Todaro (1997: 18) development in all societies must have at least the following three objectives:

- To increase the availability and widen the distribution of basic life-sustaining goods such as food, shelter, health and protection.
- To raise levels of living including, in addition to higher incomes, the provision of more jobs, better education, and greater attention to cultural and

humanistic values, all of which serve not only to enhance material well-being but also to generate greater individual and national self-esteem.

- To expand the range of economic and social choices available to individuals and nations by freeing them from servitude and dependence not only in relation to other people and nation-states but also to the forces of ignorance and human misery.

Todaro (1997: 19) wrote that economic development strategies have often failed in the past. Different strategies tried to raise agricultural output, create employment, and eradicate poverty. It failed because economists and other policy advisers neglected to view the economy as an interdependent social system in which economic and non-economic forces are continually interacting in ways that are at times self-reinforcing and at other times contradictory. Goulet (in Todaro, 1997: 69) made the following valuable contribution: "It matters little how much information we possess about development if we have not grasped its inner meaning". Lewis Preston, a former President of the World Bank, (in Todaro, 1997: 69) shared this view and stated in this regard: "Development theory by itself has little value unless it is applied, unless it translates into results, and unless it improves people's lives". As far back as 1776, Adam Smith (in Todaro, 1997: 137) delivered a profound statement when he proclaimed the following: "No society can surely be flourishing and happy, of which by far the greater part of the numbers are poor and miserable".

According to Todaro (1997: 341) seven basic issues define the environment of development, namely, the concept of sustainable development and linkages between the environment and population and resources; poverty; economic growth; rural development; urbanization, and the global economy.

Development and poverty are dynamic phenomena. Households can move in and out of poverty or shift in their relative status of well-being, depending on changes in household characteristics, such as sudden unemployment of a

household member, and external circumstances, such as failure of crops or increase in food prices.

Table 4 is a summary of the different dimensions of sustainable human development and the important characteristics within each of these dimensions necessary to sustain a holistic process of human development.

TABLE 4: Poverty as multiple deprivation

(Adapted from the United Nations Capital Development Fund, 2002: 7)

Capabilities	Characteristics
ECONOMIC	Ability to earn income, to consume, to have assets and access to food and shelter, and to productive physical and financial resources and to maintain a sustainable livelihood.
HUMAN	Ability to read, write and communicate with other members of society, and to be free from disease and other health-related handicaps; these capabilities derive from access to health, education, clean water, shelter.
POLITICAL	Ability to understand and have voice in public policies and priorities, to enjoy basic human and political rights and freedoms, and to be free from abuse and arbitrary violence by state officials.
SOCIO-CULTURAL	Ability to enjoy dignity and be considered a valued member of wider society, as well as ability to practice own cultural traditions.
PROTECTIVE	Ability to withstand economic and external shocks, from livelihood vulnerabilities, illness, war and destitution.
CROSS-CUTTING	Gender and the environment.

Hasegawa (2001:6) entered the debate with regard to sustainable human development and made a significant contribution at the United Nations Global Seminar, "Global Issues and the United Nations"; by emphasizing that Sustainable Human Development requires seven "freedoms", namely:

- Freedom from discrimination, with regard to gender, race, ethnicity, national origin and religion

- Freedom from want, meaning to be able to enjoy a decent standard of living and well-being

- Freedom to develop and realize one's human potential
- Freedom from fear of threats to personal security, torture, arbitrary arrest and other violent acts
- Freedom from injustice and violations of the rule of law
- Freedom of thought and opinion and to participate in decision-making and form associations
- Freedom for decent work without exploitation.

All of the above mentioned "freedoms" or rights are closely related to and associated with poverty, underdevelopment and unemployment. Social workers have a key role to play in advocating on behalf of the client population for greater social inclusion and access to economic resources. As Dominelli (2002: 83) accurately indicated: "Poverty alleviation measures are issues of concern to all peoples and constitute part of the global struggle against oppression". For the purpose of this research study, the implications of poverty and unemployment within the South African context are of particular importance and are explored in the following section.

3.5 "THE STATE OF THE NATION": POVERTY, UNDERDEVELOPMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT WITHIN THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

Parnell and Mosdell (2003: 1) made a valuable contribution when they summarized the changing appearance of poverty in South Africa: "If there is a typical "face of poverty" in South Africa then this picture is no longer only a rural woman engaged in subsistence agricultural production. It is an HIV positive child living in an environmentally degraded informal settlement in a rapidly growing city – without services and subjected to organized and household violence and vulnerable to global economic and political regime changes".

Venter (2001: 135) was equally pessimistic in his assessment of life in South Africa and emphasized the following: "Keep in mind, however, that this land is

199

facing Aids, the greatest pandemic known in modern time; is being crippled by poverty of staggering proportions; is being undermined by crisis-level unemployment; is assailed by one of the highest murder, assault and rape rates in the world". According to Liebenberg (2002: 32) poverty and inequality are among the most serious challenges facing South Africa today. Makgetla (2003: 24) added to this discussion and reported that unemployment now stands officially at 30,5% - far higher than in any other middle-income country, and almost double the rate eight years ago. In Makgetla's opinion the result of this unacceptable high unemployment rate is, deepening inequality, poverty and social conflict. Between 36 and 53% of South Africans are estimated to live below the poverty line. Liebenberg (2002: 32) stated that it is estimated that 18 million people in South Africa, representing 45 percent of the population, live below the poverty line using an absolute measure of poverty, pegged at an income per adult of R 353 per month. Of these, 10 million people live in "ultra-poor" households earning less than R 193 per month, per adult.

Adato and Haddad (2001:1) shared this viewpoint and stated that unemployment stands out among the persistent development problems that have confronted the South African government since the transition to democracy in 1994. Adato and Haddad (2001: 1) referred to a study done in 1993 when 9000 households were asked, "What in your opinion, could government do to most help this household improve its living conditions?" From a list of 18 items, the top selection was "jobs". This survey revealed that job creation was the number one issue in all three regions: rural, urban, and metropolitan. From the information gathered from the most recent literature, it is fair to state that the situation with regard to unemployment has remained the same. Webb and Tossell (1999: 190) emphasized the negative effect of unemployment on the daily existence of so many people. They commented in this regard: "Unemployment is debilitating. Apart from debt and other financial difficulties, it can create the obvious day-to-day inability to provide a decent material quality of life".

Poverty in South Africa has strong racial, gender, age and spatial (rural/ provincial) dimensions. The employment growth is not keeping pace with the number of new entrants in the labour market. Unemployment statistics obscure significant aspects of the nature of employment in South Africa. This includes the related phenomena of the "working poor" earning very low wages, the decline in formal sector employment, and the growth of so-called "a-typical" forms of employment characterized by low wages, minimal benefits and no security. If no drastic measures are taken, the poverty situation in South Africa will substantially deteriorate as a result of the HIV/AIDS pandemic. (Compare Fourie and Schönteich, 2002: 3.) An analysis of the impact of HIV/AIDS on the overall economic well-being of South Africa in the years to come has not been fully examined as yet. The following section briefly explored the impact of HIV/AIDS on the social and economic functioning of communities.

3.5.1 The scourge of HIV/AIDS

Lahiff and Rugege (2002: 67) suggested that two key factors are likely to increase the level of poverty and underdevelopment in the years ahead. These authors were of the opinion that the first factor is the continuing fall in formal sector employment, itself a result of changes in the global economy and economic policies pursued by government. The other factor is the scourge of HIV/AIDS that is cutting through the rural areas like a scythe, decimating the ranks of young adults to whom entire communities look for their future. (Compare Beresford, 2001 and World Bank Group, 2003.) Fourie and Schönteich (2002: 3) contributed extensively to this debate and stated the following: "As the Worldwatch Institute points out, HIV epidemic raging across Sub-Saharan Africa is a tragedy of epic proportions; one that is altering the region's demographic future. It is reducing life expectancy, raising mortality, lowering fertility, creating an excess of men over women, and leaving millions of orphans in its wake". It is difficult to predict what the impact of the pandemic will be on the demand for land, or on the ability of households to use land in order to obtain a livelihood.

What is certain, however, is that rural poverty and vulnerability are set to increase greatly in the years ahead. The key issue is that without healthy, productive people, sustainable development is not possible, and without sustainable development, the health and productivity of people is a severe problem.

Walters (2001: 1) also added a contribution to this debate and was of the opinion that the devastating HIV/AIDS pandemic should be regarded as one of the greatest educational challenges facing Southern Africa today. Southern Africa has the highest incidence in the world. Thousands of people are dying of the disease. There are substantial effects on the economy, the health sector, and the education sector. A complicating factor is that it is the working population that is most vulnerable. There were about 12 million AIDS orphans in Africa in 2000 and estimates are that currently the Higher Education population in South Africa is 22% HIV/AIDS positive and will be 33% positive by 2005. In Walters (2001: 2) own words: "The HIV/AIDS pandemic is one, which jolts us into understanding "sustainable development" in very stark terms – to sustain development we must sustain life. It also reminds us why it is so important to have a holistic understanding of education and training within a lifelong learning framework". Walters (2001: 3) further stated that the responses to HIV/AIDS provide excellent contemporary examples of adult education for survival which involve most sectors of society and which draw on multiple pedagogical, organizational and developmental frameworks simultaneously. It is without doubt an issue that demands attention at all ages and stages, and at all possible sites of learning. HIV/AIDS demands a lifelong learning approach.

Batschari (2002:72) supported this view and stated that the HIV/AIDS pandemic can no longer be ignored. It is a threat to humanity with wide-ranging and devastating demographic and economic impacts. Batschari (2002: 72) emphasized that HIV/AIDS is one of the biggest challenges to sustainable development, for communities and for all stakeholders involved in development work. (Compare Barnett and Whiteside, 2002: 3.) HIV/AIDS affects sustainable

202

development and especially the position of women. In many countries, the human capacity for development is threatened, children are orphaned and women must assume an enormous care-taking role (South African Women's National Coalition, 2002: 82). (Compare White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997: 123.) In terms of sustainable development, the expected impact of HIV/AIDS will be as follows:

- The demographic impact is marked by lives lost, especially of young people between the ages of 15 and 49. There are increasing childhood deaths, and a growing number of orphans. AIDS will have a significant impact on population size.

- The economic impact on companies, households, communities and enterprises will be severe (Barnett and Whiteside, 2002: 5).

- A severe impact on agriculture and rural economy can be expected. Commercial agriculture will be affected by decreasing the supply of skilled and unskilled labour and by driving down the productivity of those who are working.

- The macroeconomic impact of AIDS result in part from the medical expenses associated with HIV/AIDS treatment; absenteeism, declining labour productivity, increasing training costs for new recruits, increasing labour turnover costs, and the cost of mortality.

Anarfi (2003:33) emphasized that since the first clinical evidence of HIV/AIDS was reported in 1981, the epidemic has escalated at an alarming rate. It has now become a full-blown developmental crisis in the world, especially in Africa, the most affected continent. Fourie and Schönteich (2002: 3) supported this finding and emphasized that the global HIV/AIDS epidemic is far more extensive that initially anticipated. These authors pointed to the alarming fact that the number of people living with HIV/AIDS at the end of the last century was more than 50 percent higher than had been predicted in 1991 by the World Health Organisation. According to Anarfi (2003: 33) at the end of 2001, an estimated 40 million people globally were living with HIV. An estimated 28.1 million of these

people were living in Africa at the end of 2001. Since the beginning of the epidemic and by the end of 2001 a cumulative 19 million Africans had already died of AIDS – over three times the number of AIDS deaths in the rest of the world. In terms of gender two million more women than men carry HIV and some 13 million children have lost their mother or both parents to the epidemic. In other words, the sub-continent accounts for 70 percent of people living with HIV worldwide, 83 percent of the deaths due to AIDS, and 95 percent of the orphans due to AIDS, while it only represents 10 percent of the world's population. (Compare Beresford, 2001; Mbere, 2002 and Nattrass, 2003.)

It is estimated that by the year 2011 over half of the population, in South Africa, will live in households that will be affected by at least one HIV infection, someone who has developed AIDS or an AIDS-related death. The poverty implications include increased health-costs, a fall in productivity due to the demands on household members caring for ill members, the illness and death of bread-winners, and an increase in the number of AIDS orphans. Children and working age adults are the groups who will be most affected by the HIV/AIDS pandemic. (Compare Fourie and Schönteich, 2002: 12-16; Barnett and Whiteside, 2002: 17 and Cassiem, Perry, Sadan and Streak, 2000: 23.) According to Dr. Claudia Haarman (in Liebenberg, 2002: 33) the situation is already dire and all indications are that it will deteriorate further. She predicted the following situation: "HIV/AIDS is likely to lead to a situation, where many households who otherwise would live close to but above the poverty line, are pushed under the basic subsistence level. They will be faced by destitution, if not assisted by the state".

Anarfi (2003: 35) stated that assessing and predicting the social and economic impact of HIV/AIDS is difficult, but it is likely that the premature death of so many adults will lead to shortages of labour and to new needs for public welfare. As more adults die of AIDS, younger adults would become responsible for managing government, including key services such as civil security, the courts, education and health care. It is fair to say that AIDS disrupts social roles, rights and

obligations. Children are forced into adulthood. Looking after an ill parent, dealing with the daily agony of caring for younger siblings and trying to scrape together food to put on the table, can have serious implications for the emotional well-being of a child (Barnett and Whiteside, 2002: 15-16; Cassiem, *et al.*, 2000: 2). Fourie and Schönteich (2002: 7) concluded by emphasizing that HIV/AIDS in Africa is not exclusively a health problem because of the sexual behaviour of people. These authors stated that HIV/AIDS is the cause and result of human insecurity, coupled with socio-political variables on a systemic, regional level and should be addressed through a more circumspect developmental approach.

From the above discussion it is evident that HIV/AIDS is a development crisis, which deepens poverty and therefore extends the suffering of millions of people, particularly in Southern Africa. There is little doubt that the pandemic has a detrimental effect on achieving national and international sustainable development objectives.

3.5.2 The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD)

Deane (2003: 38) defined the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) as a pledge by African leaders, based on a common vision and a shared conviction, that they have a duty to eradicate poverty and place their countries on a path of sustainable growth and development, and participate actively in the world economy. NEPAD has among its goals, an annual growth rate of 7 percent for fifteen years; cutting poverty in half by the year 2015; reducing infant mortality rates by two-thirds; reducing maternal mortality rates to two-quarters of what they were before; having every child enter school who is eligible, thereby re-enforcing the principle of gender equality. But the document acknowledges that: "One of the major impediments facing African Development efforts is widespread incidence of communicable diseases, in particular HIV/AIDS, tuberculosis and malaria. Unless these epidemics are brought under

control, real gains in human development will remain an impossible hope" (Anarfi, 2003: 45). (Compare Robinson, 2003: 39.)

Mara (2002: 19) contributed to this debate and stated in this regard that HIV/AIDS like other communicable diseases impedes national and individual development and burdens economies with a huge cost of treatment and control. It is obvious that it impedes sustainable development. Very often statistics mask the qualitative experience of poverty for millions of South Africans: the daily struggle for survival, hungry children, exhaustion, humiliation, lost opportunities, and the violence and stress associated with extreme insecurity. The immediate needs of these groups are urgent. The meeting of these needs should be taken seriously to prevent irreparable harm to the individuals and families concerned and the wider community. The consequences of severe poverty include malnutrition, physical and mental health problems and death. It is clear from the available literature that poverty includes all aspects of human deprivation.

3.5.3   The legacy of apartheid

Liebenberg (2002: 33) was of the opinion that the depth of poverty and inequality in South Africa are attributable to a history of colonialism and apartheid. An integrated and co-coordinated development strategy is clearly indispensable to redressing conditions as a result of underdevelopment. However, given the depth of poverty and inequality in South Africa, far-reaching measures are needed to provide immediate relief to the large numbers of people in desperate need.

According to May, *et al.* (1997: 2), despite the relative wealth of South Africa in terms of the country's per capita Gross Domestic Product, the experience of the majority of South African households is either one of outright poverty, or of continued vulnerability to becoming poor (wealth represents the total assets of an individual or household, minus liabilities or debts). In common with many countries, the inability to satisfy essential needs stems from many sources; the

206

specificity of poverty in South Africa has been the impact of apartheid. One aspect of this system was a process of active dispossession whereby assets, such as land and livestock, were stripped from the black majority, while simultaneously, opportunities to develop these assets, such as markets; infrastructure and education were not accessible to them. May, *et al.* (1997: 2) stated that apartheid, and the legislation through which this ideology was implemented, operated to produce poverty and to compress social and economic class. Hercules, Andersson and Dangor (1997: 6), supported the view of Liebenberg and stated that poverty in the South African context is a direct product of colonialism and the historic path of capitalist economic growth. These authors stated the following: "The economic and social arrangements (including the apartheid years) which today act as the structural foundations of the new South Africa, lie at the roots of how poverty came to be as widespread and have a predominantly black face that it has today". Education is an important determinant of labour force participation, occupation and income.

3.5.4   The state of the economy

According to Head (2000: 5) South Africa is facing a job crisis. It is the product of structural changes in the economy, namely, the decline of the main primary product sector, gold mining, key manufacturing industries such as textiles and clothing, and the mechanisation of commercial agriculture. The pressure of globalisation, which is tending to reproduce the phenomenon of jobless growth, is exacerbating it. Its consequence is a huge reserve army of labour for whom formal sector jobs simply do not exist and are unlikely to exist for the foreseeable future. In Head's opinion (2000: 5) economic growth alone will not necessarily create opportunities for people. She referred to studies of the South African labour market that have shown that those losing jobs are unskilled black people with low education levels working in primary sectors. The new jobs being created (in insufficient numbers) are for people with some level of post-secondary school education. Informal sector work absorbs a small proportion of the unemployed,

on a casual, intermittent and irregular basis. These workers remain trapped in abject poverty even though technically they are employed. Agriculture, in the form of smallholder farming, is not an option for the majority. In Head's opinion people have a deep attachment to the land, but for most, under prevailing conditions, the land can only provide a supplement to their livelihood and not a livelihood in itself.

Jacobs and Faull (2003: 17) stated the following facts pertaining to poverty, unemployment and inequality in South Africa:

- In 2002 unemployment was at more than 40% and the economy has lost more than one million jobs since 1995.
- About 45% of South Africans live in poor households, with adults earning R 352.53 a month on average. In rural provinces the poverty figure rises above 50%.
- Sixty-one percent of Africans are poor.
- Three million households are without houses.
- 7.5 Million people lack access to running water
- 21 Million households are without sanitation
- Five million South Africans have HIV/AIDS.

The abovementioned facts (compare IDASA, 2003: 2) are substantiated by numerous organizations. One such organization is "Proudly South African" (2003: 1), which stated that South Africa's unemployment rate was at 41,8% in 2003. The official rate was given at 30,5% from Statistics SA. Statistics SA referred to the 41,8% as the expanded rate. The Labour Force Survey (LFS) calls it the broader rate. The major difference according to "Proudly South African", between the expanded or broader rate and the official rate is that the broader one (LFS) includes discouraged job seekers (those who said they were unemployed but had not taken active steps to find work in the four weeks prior to the interview). Pandor (2003: 38) contributed to this debate and emphasized the following:

 "Economists agree, if they agree on anything, that there is no single blueprint a government can use to achieve growth and reduce poverty and inequality at the same time".

As far as Africa is concerned, according to Abdelmadjid (2002: 1) there are three main areas of concern, namely: The first area of concern is the different types of conflict, i.e. violence, tension and civil wars. The second area of concern pertained to phenomena such as poverty, underdevelopment and illiteracy. Thirdly, there are difficulties of establishing and applying democracy, for example, via the rule of law and respect for human rights. The issues of good governance and the havoc wreaked by corruption should be considered in relation to governance. Abdelmadjid (2002: 1-2) supplied some alarming statistics associated with poverty, namely:

- Some 340 million people, i.e. 50% of the population of Africa, live on less than one dollar a day;
- The mortality rate for children under five years of age is 140 deaths in every 1 000 infants;
- Life expectancy is just 54 years;
- 50% of the population of Africa live without drinking water;
- The rate of illiteracy amongst children under 15 years of age is 41%;
- For every 1000 inhabitants there are just under 18 telephone lines, compared with 567 lines in industrialised countries;
- For every 100,000 inhabitants there are only 16 doctors, compared with 253 doctors in industrialised countries.

According to Abdelmadjid (2002: 2) this small section of figures still does not truly reflect just how critical the situation in Africa is. Abdelmadjid (2001: 2) emphasized that as well as issues of conflict and poverty, Africa is also experiencing equally serious problems with regard to democracy, such as the delay in introducing democratic governments and as previously stated, failure to

apply human rights, establishing the rule of law and a lack of control over the implementation of democratic measures. (Compare Bhola, 2001: 20.)

3.5.5 The informal economy

According to Narayan, et al. (2000a: 30) with reference to a study of South Africa (1998), the poor are characterized as "those who do not have secure jobs, and poor communities are characterized by widespread absence of formal employment". Instead the poor have "numerous small, often dangerous jobs rather than one job".

According to Horn (2002: 87) and Rogerson (2002: 41) the informal economy is difficult to measure. These authors emphasized that during the apartheid years in South Africa very little accurate statistics pertaining to the number of people involved in the informal sector were kept. According to Horn (2002: 87) a detailed study of South Africa's informal economy was conducted in 2002 in preparation for the ILO Conference by the Community Agency for Social Enquiry and Statistics South Africa, using the results of the 2000 labour force survey as well as a time-use study. The study showed that the informal economy was at 25,6 percent of the labour force or 34 percent if domestic workers were included. Rogerson (2002: 41) stated that the small, medium and micro-enterprise economy (SMME) has been viewed as a critical element for achieving several of the objectives for post-apartheid reconstruction and development. Rogerson (2002: 41) emphasized that the promotion and support of the SMME economy is seen as an important vehicle for job creation and job retainment, particularly in the context of the slow growth of new employment opportunities taking place in large formal enterprises. Linders (2001: 3) contributed to this debate and added that the value of creating job opportunities cannot be overestimated and wrote in this regard: "A job is the first step out of poverty. A job is the key to creating wealth and distributing it equitably. Meaningful work can mean a positive social identity, a means to acceptance into the life of a community. A job can mean

independence, enhanced self-esteem, and stronger families. Disabled people – often branded as "different" therefore, ostracized – know better than most the extraordinary "value" of a job".

The SMME economy is highly diverse and encompasses a range of different enterprises and ownership across a range of sectors, with the largest number in retailing and trade (Rogerson, 2002: 41). A distinction can be drawn between two categories of informal enterprise. In the first category are those survivalist enterprises undertaken by people unable to secure regular wage employment. The second category is that of micro-enterprises, which are very small businesses. Micro-enterprises often involve only the owner, his or her family members, and a few paid employees. These enterprises usually lack the trappings of formality, (business licenses, formal premises, operating permits and accounting procedures), and most have only a limited capital base. Their operators typically have only rudimentary business skills. Nonetheless, many micro-enterprises have the potential to develop into larger and more formal enterprises. According to Kassim and Hendriks (2002: 33) the success of micro-enterprises in South Africa is impaired by a number of constraining factors rooted in the South African context. These constraining factors include: restrictive legal and regulatory frameworks; problems with access to markets; too much competition; too few customers; poor infrastructure; lack of access to finance and the high cost of credit; low technical skills; lack of business and marketing skills; lack of access to minimum and appropriate technology; low incomes and low educational levels. Kassim and Hendriks (2002: 34) emphasized that this is exacerbated by owners lacking the basics of good business: enterprises are characterised by poor management, inadequate planning, insufficient capital, low turn over, lack of marketing, and inferior quality goods and services.

3.5.6   Changing post-apartheid South Africa

According to Elbadawi and Hartzenberg, (2000:1) after the democratic transformation in the country, the South African government made an explicit commitment to a long-term development strategy for generating rapid and widely shared growth, while firmly stressing basic macroeconomic stability in the short to medium term. The Government's strategy was based on at least two highly publicized programmes: South African Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), and especially its successor programme for Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR). These almost ideal initial conditions led many observers to predict that South Africa was poised for a sustained economic takeoff, where the strength and sophistication of its financial market, its strong civil society, and transparent and democratic governance were seen as its clear comparative advantage. Recent history of the economic performance has shown that the task of managing the economic transition and laying the structural foundations for a coherent long-term development strategy remains a challenge and extremely difficult to obtain.

The transition from apartheid to democracy was accompanied by significant changes in all social policies. South African social policy during the twentieth century was so closely related to the political economy of apartheid that it cannot easily be classified according to any of the conventional welfare regimes. Nevertheless, even as a "special case", it has much of interest in the comparative study of welfare systems. The urgency of getting rid of the racially discriminatory policies of the former regime has meant that key elements and stages of the policy process have been telescoped into a short period. Thus, during the 1990s, policy formulation and then its translation into legislation, budgetary reallocations, the reorientation of staff and the development of new or different administrative capacities, and the adjustment of information and communication systems, all happened rapidly. Tensions always inherent in the policy process were forced to

the surface, and are more visible than they would be in societies where the pace of change is slower.

Today, South Africa is still characterized by pervasive inequality, and extremes of wealth and poverty. Millions of people live without basic services such as water, sanitation, electricity and access to transport. There is thus a juxtaposition of "First and Third Worlds", or development and underdevelopment, within one country. (Compare Lund in Alcock and Craig, 2001:221.) Mulholland (2002: 42) wrote in this regard: "There is no quick fix to the damage apartheid did to the fabric of our society". The first democratic elections of 1994 ushered in a new era. The biggest and most complex socioeconomic transformation the country has ever experienced now waits. Safety and security, health, education, housing, jobs and growth are all urgent tasks and cannot be left undone for the next generation.

According to Roberts (2001:18) the eradication of poverty and inequality are primary concerns of the democratic government in South Africa, at least in the arena of political rhetoric. In his opinion, translating these tasks into appropriate policy interventions is a formidable challenge, given the extent of impoverishment and the limited public resources available. In this context, the design of well-targeted poverty alleviation strategies is of utmost importance. Woolard and Barberton (1998:37) supported this view and in their opinion the most important challenge in South Africa at the present time is to achieve a reduction in poverty and inequality. Although agreeing that poverty is the main issue which confronts South African social work practitioners in their efforts to facilitate the social functioning of individuals, families, groups and communities, Potgieter (1998:66-68) identified five other interrelated concerns, namely:
- Unemployment
- Malnutrition, infant mortality and teenage pregnancy: poverty; lack of education; unemployment; overcrowding and insufficient shelter, sanitation and protection; nutritional and weaning practices; and reliance on

- traditional medicine all contribute to unacceptably high figures for the incidence of malnutrition
  - Housing and public health: South Africa is confronted with the daunting task of addressing backlogs in the provision of housing, safe water, adequate sanitation and non-polluting energy supplies in both rural and urban areas of the country
  - Literacy and education: estimates suggest that 10-15 million adults in South Africa are functionally illiterate. (Compare Valley *et al.,* 1998:6.)
  - Violence, abuse and neglect: the incidence of reported violent crimes in and outside the home, of abuse and neglect of minor children, and of children living on the streets has increased markedly since the beginning of the 1990s.

According to Mulholland (2002: 73) the enormous disparities created in South African society represent the depredations of a National Party rule that was not only immoral, but which refused to face economic realities. Mulholland (2002:73) contributed the following observation with regard to the previous Nationalist government: "Its policies denied South Africa the advantages of gradual urbanization and left it a legacy of poverty-stricken, uneducated and unskilled masses and the social evils that follow from it".

Cohen and Kennedy (2000: 156) supported this view and in their opinion the massive divisions that result from urban social inequalities create a lethal cocktail of fear among those who have money, property and employment combined with resentment among those who are without such goods and resources. They stated the following: "A siege mentality results, which has implications both for public and private responses to anticipated and actual crime." Barberton, *et al.* (1998: 117) also shared this point of view and contributed to the debate when these authors put their argument as follows: "Although bad enough, when social inequalities are overlaid with the prism of "race", the cocktail becomes even more explosive. In post-apartheid South Africa, for example, property crimes involving

214

violence have now reached endemic proportions. Rural-urban migrants who were previously excluded from the cities under the notorious pass law system have now joined immigrants from even poorer countries in the formerly "white cities". With little change in white economic power, about 40 per cent black unemployment and the growth of shantytowns, it is hardly surprising that many have turned to crime." Green ([sa]: 15) commented on precisely these social inequalities and stated in this regard: "Poverty is not a "thing" to be attacked, but the outcome of social inequalities. Only an emphasis on how the rich and powerful came to be so can fully bring to light how this process works. The poor are poor not because of "poverty", but are poor because of other people".

Poverty and unmet expectations continue to pose a threat to political and social stability. There is a huge backlog in service delivery and lack of infrastructure in disadvantaged areas. Community participation will place increasing pressure on the government to deliver the required services. Swarts (1998: 2) commented as follows: "It seems whatever reconstruction and development South Africa undertakes, needs to be with the realities of sustainability and therefore the big picture, in mind. This is probably one of the greatest challenges facing us, now and in the new millennium". The focus of sustainable development is how well a community is able to balance social, political, economic and environmental objectives or needs.

Mngoma (1997: 74) stated that development in post-apartheid South Africa requires restructuring of society and empowering the deprived majority so that new resources are provided, not handouts, but real allocations. Turok (in Mngoma, 1997: 74-75) indicated different approaches to overcome problems:
- Sustainable human-centered development is needed – aimed at structural transformation and welfare satisfaction
- Tackle poverty directly – not trickle down mechanisms
- There is a need to invest in people and focus on where people live – emphasize broad-based economic measures – not narrow tax incentives

- Empower the community

Whether the focus is on the street vendor selling vegetables, or the subsistence farmer eking out a living on a tiny patch of land, it seems quite clear that a new approach towards economic development is needed in South Africa today. The development of entrepreneurs and small business, the encouragement of the informal trade and the adoption of those principles that enhances the chances of success, should be the first priority of anyone concerned with development in South Africa. It is clear from the reviewed literature that true empowerment, community participation, and decision-making at grassroots level are the key ingredients and prerequisites to sustainable community development.

Porritt (in Warburton, 1998: xiii) referred to basically the same dilemma as far as the United Kingdom is concerned. "This may seem harsh, but I can't quite persuade myself that our politicians have fully understood this sustainable development business. The U.K. government focuses on jobs, training, economic development and so: it's all about the macro economy, equipping people with old-fashioned skills to get ever-scarcer full-time jobs in the formal economy to enhance our international competitiveness. Fine, as far as it goes, but what about the local economy? What about the skills that more and more people now need to be self‑reliant, social entrepreneurs in their own communities?"

From the above discussion it is clear that the necessity of creating a new generation of creative entrepreneurs in South Africa, who in turn offer job opportunities to others, cannot be over emphasized. The informal economy has the potential to make a significant impact on unemployment. Expanding the opportunities within the informal economy to accommodate a new generation of entrepreneurs has to be part of the economic transformation process in the coming years in South Africa.

3.5.7 Transition but not transformation, yet

It is clear from reports on daily life in South Africa that the transition has happened but real transformation of the South African society, of the way services and care have been provided in the past, has not changed sufficiently to make a difference in the lives of ordinary people, the unemployed, homeless and destitute. Many people are of the opinion that South Africa has been and is experiencing a deep social crisis. According to Mulholland (2002: 130) there is an obligation on society to provide resources for the welfare of those that are unable to provide for themselves. Mulholland (2002: 130) emphasized that this provision of resources cannot be unlimited, and wrote in this regard: "Nothing men do is. And, of course, society has to produce the resources that are to be redistributed. These do not come from the tooth fairy, but from the market in goods and services. The more vigorous and efficient the market is allowed to be, the more resources will be generated for redistribution".

According to Annecke (2002:11) the most difficult challenge for South Africa is the proposition of economic growth around poverty alleviation. Annecke (2002: 12) wrote in this regard: "If we look only at the 40 million people in South Africa, not the rest of Africa, we should begin with the knowledge that about 50 percent are poor (May, 1998), at a conservative estimate 35 percent are unemployed, and depending on which survey or headcount you believe, some 25 percent are HIV –positive. Then, imagine a substantial increase in the annual growth rate to, say, 10 percent. Bearing in mind that South Africa has trouble maintaining a 2,5 percent growth rate, how many of the poor can be lifted out of sub-standard living conditions by such extraordinary growth and how realistic is the possibility of achieving this?"

Isobel Frye, National Advocacy Manager of the Black Sash Organisation (2002: 25) entered the debate and contributed the following: "In South Africa more than 22-million (more than half the population) live below the poverty line, surviving on

an average income of R144 a month. Formal unemployment obstinately refuses to be deterred from its progression towards 40%, a figure that has steadily risen with the adoption of the growth, employment and redistribution policy. Poverty is endemic, and yet we are not a poor country…. If this country is to move towards a state of real freedom, we need to arrest the vicious cycle of poverty before it destroys any potential for real turnaround and development." The South African unemployment rate is one of the highest in the world. Between 36 and 53% of South Africans are estimated to live below the poverty line.

Osei-Hwedie (1995:135) was in agreement with authors like Venter (2001), Mulholland (2002) and Sunter (1997) in their assessment that unemployment is a serious problem. Far too many people are looking for jobs and cannot find them. Many jobseekers have become so despondent that they have given up the search altogether. Millions of people are employed part time while they prefer to work full time. Associated with these conditions are economic deprivation, social strain, psychological stress and physical health problems. Osei-Hwedie (1995: 135) stated that in some countries, especially on the African continent, very few or no services at all exist to care for the unemployed. According to Osei-Hwedie (1995: 136) unemployment is caused by several factors inc luding:

- Inflation, reflected by high prices and wages;
- Efforts to slow inflation including high interest rates, and slow growth in the supply of money in circulation;
- Globalization of world economy, capital flight, cheap imports, and tax breaks for multina tionals
- Mechanization/automation; and
- Racism and discrimination.

Osei-Hwedie (1995:141) stressed the fact that employment has both social and economic roles and for that reason the alleviation of unemployment is as much a social issue as an economic one. It is important that both dimensions are present in all unemployment services and programmes. Social workers have a key role to

play in promoting efforts to extend and expand all job creation schemes and projects.

Persistent and increasing levels of poverty, violence, social inequality and unfulfilled expectations place an enormous burden on the existent social welfare services. (Compare Linders, 2001: 1 and White Paper For Social Welfare, 1997: 82.) All of these threaten the gains made since the "New South Africa" came into being. Many people in South Africa have experienced the horrific evidence of the disintegration of the social fabric of South African society. Economic stress leads to domestic tension and the temptation to break the law. Family violence, alienation, despair and overall frustration are part of South African society everyday. The costs of delinquency, drug abuse, crime, legal and correctional actions eventually have to be paid. Crime and violence breed mistrust, turn neighbours and communities against one another, and engender feelings of powerlessness and dependency (Nuwagaba, 2001: 3). Lack of freedom or powerlessness confronts poor people with agonizingly constrained choices. It would therefore appear to be that anti-social behaviour is often fuelled by wider problems of social exclusion such as poverty, unemployment, family breakdown, truancy and exclusion from school, drug dependency and community disorganisation (White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997: 83).

Quirk (in Webb and Tossell, 1999: 210) contributed to the debate regarding the social ills that result from unemployment. He stated in this regard the following: "Unemployment creates problems like drug addiction, alcoholism, solvent abuse, prostitution, begging and homelessness…. Unemployed people are the army of the forgotten, unwanted and abandoned". As unemployment is analyzed, it is critical to be reminded of the multiple ways in which potentially dangerous conditions such as poverty, low educational status, ineffective caregivers, joblessness, inadequate housing and lack of resources and opportunities, promote vulnerability for substance abuse. Overcrowded conditions in deprived neighbourhoods are fertile ground for people to become involved in crime. Sunter

(1997: 83) made reference to the extremely valuable contribution of the economist Jeremy Rifkin. Sunter wrote as follows: "Whatever the route out of the current jobless trap, Rifkin has the final word: "People forced out of the market place will take by force what they can't earn". Webb and Tossell (1999: 190) added to this sentiment and in their opinion argued that there are strong reasons why unemployment may lead to crime. Unemployment brings a raft of negative features with the potential to lead to criminal activities: bss of status, boredom, alienation from the community, and the erosion of social values, and, loss of income. These factors all contribute to erosion of the values and norms of a well-functioning community. Very often dysfunctional families lack support structures. It becomes attractive for people of all ages to be lured into criminal activities.

Mulholland (2002: 128) contributed to the debate, and referring to the book written by the South African business expert, Raymond Parsons, namely *The Mbeki Inheritance,* stated the following: "Parsons frequently emphasizes the reality that without sustainable economic growth we simply cannot make headway against the problems of crime, poverty, poor health and education services". Venter (2001: 84) concurred with this statement and emphasized the resources that are really important in any society, namely: money, job opportunities, education, recreational and health facilities, peace and personal safety. In the words of Venter (2001: 84): "When there are shortages of any or all of these, singly or in various combinations, the social edifice begins to crack".

The flight of skills (the "brain-drain") and emigration of established entrepreneurs from South Africa because they cannot see a future for themselves and their families compound the problems South Africa is experiencing. People with entrepreneurial skills, knowledge and experience are a much-needed source to stimulate growth and development. Expansion of their operations would have led to job creation and re-investment in society. Mulholland, (2002: 123) wrote in this regard: "Emigration from South Africa has been a tragedy for the country, incurring the loss of untold billions in the value of human capital. The contribution

220

these former South Africans could have made in terms of employment, economic growth, technological advance, medical treatment and so on is beyond measure. Perhaps a student of economic history will try to quantify it some day. Aside from the human capital we lost, it is usually precisely the sort of people all societies need. They are brave, willing to take a risk, often possessed of skills and qualifications, and prepared to work hard".

Venter (2001:19) entered the debate and was particularly concerned about the increasing population numbers coupled with unemployment and insufficient growth in the economy. He wrote in this regard as follows: "If you put together a swelling population, a lagging economy and galloping unemployment you don't need to be political scientist to figure you've got poverty, and that it's growing". While about a quarter of the rich in South Africa are a post-1994 black elite, the lowest 40% bracket on the socio-economic scale has taken about a 20% drop in income over the period. Taken together these sad realities mean that more than 70% of the country's children have insufficient resources for proper development". This painted a rather bleak picture and Venter (2001:205) emphasized the fact that in order to address poverty and homelessness, all people, including politicians, economists, entrepreneurs and ordinary citizens need to work together in a joint effort. Venter (2001: 205) further made a valuable contribution by pointing out that each and every citizen needed to contribute towards a better life. He wrote: "Truths that have to find their way into the South African mind, in some form at some time, are that: the government can never build a house for everyone who needs one; the government can never provide a job for everyone who doesn't have one; and the better life that all seek has to be created by all, not by some". (Compare Linders, 2001: 4.)

According to Venter, (2001: 18) unemployment in South Africa has reached catastrophic proportions. He stated in this regard: "The truly frightening spectre of two out of every five workers without jobs looms portentously. It is not far off. Prospects for reversal are slashed by a double cross cut: population growth is

creating growing numbers of job seekers (making the problem worst among the young) while the economy continues to prune away jobs. The statistics of job losses have themselves, predictably, become subjects of a potential tussle with claims and counter-claims, but you are safe reckoning that the economy is shedding about 100 000 jobs a year, and the rate of losses is growing at about 3%. *When Mandela Goes* predicted that unemployment would grow unchecked in the years that followed. This has been and remains the case". In Venter's (2001:148) opinion, life has become progressively more difficult for many people in South Africa. He wrote in this regard: "Instead, their circumstances have demonstrably worsened. There are fewer jobs for them, there is greater homelessness, and there is greater poverty. They are freer, but less secure than they have ever been. They have greater freedom of choice, but less to choose". (Compare Seepe, 2002: 23; Jackson, [sa]: 4.)

The logical conclusion that can be drawn from this is that in South Africa too many people are struggling for survival. The staggering high rate of unemployment has made even primary needs such as food, shelter and clothing hard to come by. Wendy Lucas-Bull (in Hunt and Lascaris, 1998) was of the opinion that the organized corporate sector will not be able to provide the number of jobs required to address unemployment. Downsizing and rationalization are trends throughout the world. Timperley (2000:151) supported this view and stated the following: "Organizations are downsizing, delayering and decentralizing. They're outsourcing, globalizing and consolidating". (Compare Head, 2000: 6.) Grant (2002: 112) contributed to the debate and in his opinion globalization refers to the increasing level of human interaction across both national borders and the world. The result is a new arrangement of economic, political, technological, intellectual and cultural developments. Sunter (1997:8) described a rather negative scenario of job opportunities for those that desperately want to work. He contributed the following in this regard: "In the Western Cape, graduates are getting a zero response to applications for employment and hawkers are being forced to hawk in places where they are unpopular because of a global

222

phenomenon: joblessness. It is a pity that the RDP laid greater emphasis on housing than on jobs. If a person has a job, he can get a house, but the same does not apply the other way round. Joblessness is more fundamental than homelessness. Solve the former and automatically you're on your way to solving the latter".

Osei-Hwedie (1995:143) stressed the extremely important psychological dimension of unemployment. It is important to accept that unemployment is more than the absence of jobs. It is associated with several social problems and therefore is increasingly viewed as social injustice. Jackson ([sa]: 3) contributed a valuable point of view when he emphasised that unemployment over long periods of time, tends to diminish the human capital; and technology may have advanced and outpaced the unemployed individual. It does not only affect social, economic and psychological functioning but also life expectation and well-being. It has become a question of fundamental human rights, and a central social work issue because of its effects such as lack of income, loss of self-esteem, and feelings of depression and despair.

From the above descriptions of the effects of unemployment, it is clear that unemployment brings uncertainty and depression. It can have severe destructive effects on the individual and the household. It reduces the quality of life, not only for the unemployed individual, but also for the community and greater society of which s/he is part. The message appears to be that unemployment is one of the most serious ills that characterize modern society.

Social workers, with their extensive experience of working with unemployed people within their communities, have a crucial role to play in facilitating the creation of employment opportunities at all levels of the labour market.

3.6 THE VALUE OF WORK

Oppenheim (in Webb and Tossell, 1999: 213) stated that work is the most effective solution to poverty and the key to achieving social inclusion. Poor social and economic circumstances affect health and overall functioning of people throughout life. Three factors underpin a sense of well-being in individuals: physical vitality; belonging to a community and a sense of meaning and purpose.

These factors are in line with the viewpoint of Macarov (1991: 80). According to Macarov (1991: 80-81) it would be difficult to overstate the influence exerted by work on other aspects of life. The concept of work is one of the most widely spread and deeply embedded elements in individual psyches, the structure of societal institutions, and the value systems of industrial civilizations. It is the measuring rod for individuals, the goal of organizations, and the basis of society. Work is almost as encrusted with value orientations and transcendental meaning, as is religion. Work is seen as both necessary and desirable for the individual and society. Political, social, and economic programs are all based on the assumption that people need and want to work and that society needs all the work that everyone capable of laboring can produce. On an individual basis, people are judged not only by the work they do, but also by the manner in which they perform it. People who do not or cannot work are viewed as somehow outside the mainstream of life. Work structures time, determines attitudes, shapes self- and others' images, and permeates every aspect of life, including education, family, religion, and even the prison system. Despite this emphasis on work by society as a whole, and the efforts of social workers to aid or induce their clients to comply with this insistence, relatively few social workers have been engaged in dealing with the problems that arise in and from the workplace, or from the world of work as such. In the future, however, social workers will have to be much more cognisant of the role of work in people's lives, the changing nature of work, the extent and effects of unemployment, and, in particular, the possibility of permanent unemployment for large numbers of people. Progressive societies

that enable their citizens to participate fully in social and economic life will be healthier than those where people face exclusion and deprivation. The absence of work hinders planning in everyday life, makes life less coherent and can lead to low self-esteem and emotional depression.

Hutton (in Webb and Tossell, 1999: 213) provided an excellent summary of the positive influence of work of the daily life of an individual. He emphasised in this regard: "The most important indicator of individual well-being is to work in ways that allow you to feel that you are acting on the world in the best way that you can. To work is to earn an income, certainly; but it is to acquire skills, to win friends, to gain status, to assert your very existence. Enforced idleness is numbing; it is no coincidence that the highest rates of suicide are among the unemployed".

Deprivation, poverty and unemployment are linked with exclusion from everyday life. Unemployment is an extremely important facet of poverty. It is evident from the above discussion that very often employment or the lack thereof, is the pivot around which everything else hinges. When people can earn a living within decent working conditions, many aspects of poverty fall dramatically and there is a marked improvement in their overall quality of life.

3.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented an overview of the different concepts of poverty, underdevelopment and unemployment. Poverty is multidimensional, complex and dynamic. It requires holistic, well-integrated and cross-sectoral approaches and methods. Poverty deprives people of the freedom to decide over and shape their own lives. It robs them of the opportunity to choose on matters of fundamental importance to themselves. Lack of power and choice and lack of material resources form the essence of poverty. Poverty, the lack of opportunities and insecurities are closely linked. Poor people living in conditions of destitution and misery are unable to use even the few resources available to them. The

225

multidimensional nature of poverty means that there cannot be a single-stranded solution for poverty reduction. A multi-faceted approach is necessary, combining complementary, sustainable, and relevant interventions for a specific community or region.

Sustainable development requires an understanding not only of the patterns of development, but also of underdevelopment and the processes underlying them. It is important to address in any discussion on sustainable development, changes in the human and physical environment, through interventions in physical, political, economic and social processes. One of the challenges for sustainable development is to reconcile the ambitions and expectations of various interest groups, and to balance present and future development aspirations.

Understanding the importance of unemployment and its social consequences, as the central challenge to underdevelopment and poverty, will be crucial for all parties involved in addressing these issues in South Africa today. If social unrest, crime and epidemic disease, are to be avoided, it requires substantial investment in infrastructure provision (sanitation, water supply, housing, road building) as well as provision at all levels of education, health services and the creation of job opportunities in all sectors.

The following chapter will focus on social work within the paradigm of sustainable development and the challenges posed by poverty, underdevelopment and unemployment for sustainable social work practice.

CHAPTER FOUR

SOCIAL WORK WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

"At the end of the day, the yardstick that we should all be judged by is one and
one only: and that is, are we, through our endeavours here, creating the
basis to better the lives of all South Africans!"
(Nelson Mandela, 1994).

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The context of social work is changing rapidly. However, one fundamental element remains the same, namely that social work is located within some of the most complex problems and perplexing areas of human experience, and for this reason, social work is, and has to be, a highly skilled activity. (Compare Trevithick, 2000: 1 and Cree, 2002: 20.) Trevithick (2000: 2) wrote that the complex nature of social work is due, in part, to the fact that it involves working across differences of class, race, gender, age, disability, sexual orientation, religion, culture, health, geography, expectations and outlook on life. Differences can be seen in the multiple ways that problems are presented, communicated and perceived by individuals and in terms of the solutions sought. Cree (2002: 27) referred to the words of Powell: "We live in a society defined by risk, polarisation, global markets, chronic change and fragmentation". Tesoriero (1999: 11) agreed with this viewpoint and stated the following in this regard: "However, the world in which social work currently finds itself is chaotic, contradictory and one in which, amorgst a myriad of competing and conflicting agenda, social work can easily flounder and stray from its central underpinning". According to Cree (2002: 27) social work, is situated between the individual and society, and inevitably reflects the wider society within which it is located.

227

Social work is based on a foundation of social values, which include a commitment to social justice, equity and respect for diversity. Social workers are involved with individuals, families, groups and communities to realise their potential to experience full, active and creative lives. Social workers throughout the world assist people in dealing with loss and change, as well as creating social and environmental conditions to enhance the quality of people's lives. They offer support to people in obtaining services and resources. They assist people in understanding the social contexts within which they live and work. Social workers are important agents for social change, consistent with the values of the profession. (Compare University of East London: United Kingdom, 2002: 1-2.)

The International Federation of Social Workers (IFSW) constructed a definition of social work at the General Meeting in Montréal, Canada in July 2000: "The social work profession promotes social change, problem solving in human relationships and the empowerment and liberation of people to enhance well-being. Utilising theories of human behaviour and social systems, social work intervenes at the points where people interact with their environments. Principles of human rights and social justice are fundamental to social work". In its commentary on the definition of social work, the International Federation of Social Workers reflected on the fundamental basis for the definition and stated that social work in its various forms addresses the multiple, complex transactions between people and their environments. Social, political, environmental and economic factors influence a broad array of opportunities, exposures, decisions and behaviours that promote or threaten physical and psychological health. The links between physical and psychological health and well-being and factors such as income, education, living and working conditions, social support structures and networks and connectedness within a community are clear. The mission of social work is to enable all people to develop their full potential, enrich their lives, and prevent dysfunction. Social work is focused on problem solving and change. It is therefore recognised that social workers are change agents in society and in the lives of individuals, families and communities (IFSW, 2000: 1).

228

Shardlow (2002: 37) postulated that Davies offered a very persuasive argument; that social work is functionally necessary to modern society. Davies argued, from a humanistic perspective, that the function of social work is to help to maintain the fabric of society, a fabric that would otherwise be brittle and likely to fracture. Davies (in Shardlow, 2002: 37) stated the following: "In so far as there are common elements in social work they are best described by the general notion of *maintenance*: society maintaining itself in a relatively stable state by making provision for and managing people in positions of severe weakness, stress or vulnerability; and society maintaining its own members, without exception by commitment to humanist endeavour". Shardlow (2002: 38) also referred to the writings of Leonard, who is critical of the position and role adopted by social work within society. In Leonard's view social work should strive for social change. Shardlow (2002: 38) argued that in the past twenty years new ideas such as advocacy, consumerism, empowerment, participation, partnership and user involvement have influenced social work ideology. It is clear that despite this emergence of new ideas and values which are often concerned with challenging oppression, social work practice is likely to remain relatively fixed without organisational backing or very importantly, changed professional education.

In essence social work is an interrelated system of values, theory and practice. The International Federation of Social Workers (2000: 1), in a discussion of values in social work, stated that social work grew out of humanitarian and democratic ideals, and its values are based on respect for the equality, worth, and dignity of all people. Since its beginnings over a century ago, social work practice has focused on meeting human needs and developing human potential. Human rights and social justice serve as the motivation and justification for social work action. (Compare Clark, 2002: 38 and Tesoriero, 1999: 11.)

In solidarity with those who are disadvantaged, the profession strives to alleviate poverty and to liberate vulnerable and oppressed people by facilitating social inclusion. Payne, Adams and Dominelli (2002: 1) stated in this regard:

"Furthermore, social work has greater ambitions, because it seeks growth and empowerment as human beings for the people we serve, development and social progress for the communities we work in and greater justice and equality in the societies to which we contribute. It is not that every act of social work will achieve such large goals, but these values help to guide us in using our judgement about what is best. Critical thinking helps to implement these values by testing our practice against them". Social workers commonly find themselves working with people who are marginalised and outside of the mainstream society. This constitutes a formidable challenge to social workers to intervene on different levels and to empower the individuals and communities to address their problems or those factors in society which impact on them.

Social work bases its methodology on a systematic body of evidence-based knowledge derived from research and practice evaluation, including local and indigenous knowledge specific to its context. It recognises the complexity of interactions between human beings and their environment, and the capacity of people both to be affected by and to alter the multiple influences upon them including bio-psychosocial factors. The social work profession draws on theories of human development and behaviour and social systems to analyse complex situations and to facilitate individual, organisational, social and cultural changes (The International Federation of Social Workers (2000: 1).

4.2   SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE

Social work addresses the barriers, inequities and injustices that exist in society. It responds to crises and emergencies as well as to everyday personal and social problems. Social work utilises a variety of skills, techniques, and activities consistent with its holistic focus on persons and their environments. Social work interventions range from primarily person-focused psychosocial processes to involvement in social policy, planning and development. These include counselling, clinical social work, group work, social pedagogical work, and family

230

treatment and therapy as well as efforts to help people obtain services and resources in the community. Interventions also include agency administration, community organisation and engaging in social and political action to impact social policy and economic development (Prigoff, 2000: 104-105). The holistic focus of social work is universal, but the priorities of social work practice will vary from country to country and from time to time depending on cultural, historical, and socio-economic conditions.

Social justice is an essential component for the creation of a sustainable world. Sustainability speaks to the reconciliation of social justice, ecological integrity, and the well-being of all living systems on the planet. Sustainable development is an encompassing concept, a goal and a strategy. It requires all spheres of society to work together as an integrated whole in order to achieve sustainability of all living and non-living systems. Sustainable development allows people from different backgrounds and disciplines to come together and strategize for a better future. The challenge for sustainable development becomes reality in the eloquent words of Matube (in Lombard and Jansen van Rensburg, 2001: 232): "Sustainable development can be both easy and difficult... Development is about individuals, groups, organisations, families and communities. It refers to attitudes, relationships, partnerships, economics, environment and infrastructure. It refers to commitment, skills, capacity and ideas. It is about time, although timeless. It demands creative stretching of scarce resources and hope. It is a continuous learning process and not for cowards".

Some disciplines emphasize environmental problems such as climate change and preserving biodiversity. For others the key questions focus on social justice, sound governance and structural changes within society to ensure a more equitable share for all people. The words of Elgin (in Sterling, 2001: 49) emphasized the interdependence of different spheres and facets of life: "If everything is intimately connected, then the quality and integrity of all kinds of relationships are of paramount importance". It is fair to say that for development

to be sustainable, there is a pressing need for a clear understanding of the different approaches by different disciplines. The social work profession subscribes to a developmental approach where social development is the chosen route to promote the eradication of poverty, and address underdevelopment, unemployment and inequality.

4.3   A DEVELOPMENTAL SOCIAL WELFARE APPROACH

> "We need to steer away from attempts to cope with the conditions of the
> 21st century with the thinking and practices of the 20th.
> In short there is a very poor fit"
> (Sterling, 2001: 13).

4.3.1   Social development

Development as a concept includes physical, economic, social and political development. Development implies change for a more equal society and the creation of social and economic conditions that will lead to the eradication of poverty, ill-health, crime, illiteracy and social exclusion. It encompasses raising the standards of living for all people to include amongst other things the satisfaction of basic needs and enlarging people's choices, in other words, improving the quality of human life. Of crucial importance is that development should include enhancing the capacity of human beings to maximize their potential and creativity.

According to Midgley (2001: 2) social development first emerged as a coherent approach to social welfare in the 1950s when it was adopted by several developing countries supported by the United Nations. The social developmental approach seeks to link economic and social policies and to promote social welfare, also known as social development, within the framework of a planned, dynamic, ongoing process of economic development. Estes (1998: 2) referring

232

to the writings of Jones and Pandey, Lowe, Meinert and Kohn, and Midgley, argued that social development is a multi-disciplinary and cross-sectoral field of practice that seeks to improve the social and material well-being of people everywhere. Estes (1998: 2) emphasised that social development is practiced across all geographical and political borders and at all levels of social, political, and economic organization.

It is essential to look at Midgley's (2001: 2) interpretation of social development. He emphasised the fact that the social development perspective insists on the integration of economic and social policy and gives expression to two accepted principles, namely: it requires that economic development should be inclusive, integrated, and sustainable and bring benefits to all; the second principle is that the social development perspective proposes that social welfare should be investment oriented, seeking to enhance human capacities to actively participate in the productive economy. In the words of Midgley and Tang (2001: 246): "Social development cannot take place without economic development, and economic development is meaningless if it fails to bring about significant improvements in the well-being of the population as a whole". The underlying motivation for this perspective is the fact that the phenomenon of persistent poverty in the midst of economic affluence is one of the most problematic development issues in the 21st century. All across continents, economic development has not been accompanied by the same degree of social progress. This phenomenon is often referred to as distorted development. According to Midgley (1995: 4-5) distorted development exists in societies where economic development has not been accompanied by a concomitant level of social development. Midgley further elaborated on this perspective and stated that in these countries, the problem is not an absence of economic development but a failure to harmonize economic and social development objectives, and to ensure that the benefits of economic progress reach all people in society. Midgley (1995: 5) emphasized that distorted development is manifested not only in poverty, deprivation, environmental degradation, low health status and inadequate

housing but also in the exclusion of sections of the population from actively participating in all areas of development. When significant sections of the population have failed to benefit from economic growth, an untold number of social problems emerge such as poverty, unemployment, crime, violence, family disintegration, drug use and social deprivation.

Midgley (1995: 7 and 1996: 14) emphasised that social development is in other words, an approach to promoting people's welfare that is well suited not only to enhancing quality of life for all citizens but to addressing the problems of underdevelopment. The integration of economic and social objectives is a key element of social development (Lombard, 2003: 2). Midgley (2001: 2 and 1995: 1) described this approach as transcending the residualist-institutional debates that have characterised social policy thinking for decades and offered a new perspective that may facilitate a renewed basis for state intervention in social welfare. Midgley (1995: 1) stated that the residualist approach has as a main recommendation that limited public resources is targeted on the most needy sections of the population. The institutional approach urges the extensive involvement of the state in all aspects of social welfare. Neither of these approaches is concerned with the way resources for social welfare is generated or with the financial difficulties that occur in times of economic adversity. Both approaches create social interventions that are subsidiary to the economy and both are passively dependent on the economy for funding. The Social Investment Research Group ([sa]: 1) stated that traditional approaches have done little to enhance people's abilities to participate effectively in the productive economy. (Compare O'Brien and Mazibuko, 1998: 140.) Mupedziswa (1996: 47) agreed with this statement and added the following: "The critics (such as Ankrah, 1987; Midgley, 1981; Osei-Hwedie, 1993) have accused the profession of a lack of engagement in economic development, and of perpetuating a remedial approach which maintains unproductive groups in a state of dependency. They have also argued that the social work profession has avoided economic development issues. Consequently social work has been portrayed as a consumer of scarce

resources needed for investment. It is often seen as a profession which detracts from the development process rather than promoting it". The social work profession needs to redirect its efforts, knowledge and skills towards promoting economic participation of the client population that they serve.

Prigoff (2000: 2) emphasized that social work is a profession dedicated to maintenance and enhancement of the social functioning and health of individuals, families, and communities. In her opinion, exclusion from access to material resources or from participation in productive economic processes are understood by social workers to be forms of structural violence, which result in both physical and psychological trauma. (Compare Narayan, 2002: 50.) In the words of Prigoff (2000: 2): "Programs of therapy and counselling are meaningless if basic needs for food, clothing, and shelter are unmet, or if social stigma and exclusion undermine the dignity and self-esteem of human beings". This statement does not imply that a social development approach rejects the place of remedial services, but rather places greater emphasis on strategies that restore the abilities and capabilities of people to enhance their functioning and be more self-reliant. A valuable contribution that supported the viewpoint of Prigoff was obtained from Tesoriero (1999: 15): "If social work is to contribute to social development and take on all that this entails towards the next millennium, then it must be more expansive in its visions and reach beyond individual change activities". Tesoriero further argued that social work is too often part of a process which tries to identify and address social problems that are named in particular ways, for example, child protection, and which tend to individualise and blame the victim, when in fact it needs to be investigating social, economic and political structures that fail to support families, communities and therefore, society. O'Brien and Mazibuko (1998: 140) made a valuable contribution in this regard: "In its interventions, social work has lacked the capacity for social analysis in order to examine the social environments of clients and the socio-political baggage brought by the client systems through the presenting problems. The person-in-environment approach has been lost somewhere in practice". They

argued that as a professional collectivity, social workers are often viewed by the wider society as part of a system that perpetuated discriminatory social welfare policies and failed to secure sustainable community development activities.

4.3.2 Social development and community development

Prigoff (2000: 262) wrote that community development is a new horizon for social work, a terrain that offers many rewards and helps to build a better world in a very real and concrete manner. According to Gray (1996: 11) community development is an intervention strategy, a way in which services are made available to the members of a community. This approach emphasises participation and real involvement of local people. It allows ownership of own development for communities. Empowerment through education and capacity building and community organising are the key components. The social work profession has, since its inception, been graced by values and vision that prepared social workers to contribute to social betterment. The development of skills, the engagement of community members in examining their needs and goals, the assessment of strengths and capabilities, and the development of strategies to create dependable income-earning opportunities forms the crucial elements of an overall plan leading to self-sufficiency for individuals, families and communities. The principle of self-reliant local development should be promoted and actively supported by all stakeholders. From the above discussion it is clear that community development fits into the parameters of social development.

Social development is an approach where social workers could actively assist individuals and communities in their quest to improve the quality of their lives. According to Gray (1996: 10) social development is a macro-policy perspective, primarily aimed at eradicating poverty in society. It is a multisectoral approach to poverty eradication and requires all sectors of society to work together towards social betterment. Gray (1996: 11) emphasized that within this context social workers will interact and liaise with primary health care workers, agriculturalists,

engineers and planners, concerned with infrastructure development such as roads, water, housing and sanitation, to name but a few players involved in development. Effective social development requires social workers to consult with teachers, educators, business developers and economic consultants to ensure that all aspects of community life is addressed.

Within the South African context, development in post apartheid South Africa is a challenge to restructure society so that poor people from all backgrounds and persuasions are empowered to actively contribute towards their own development. Under apartheid, economic development was not guided by concern for the sustainability of natural resources, nor for the social and economic welfare of millions of people. The implementation of "separate development" banished black communities to unsustainable homelands and this resulted in severe land degradation and vast underdeveloped areas as far as infrastructure was concerned. Human health and education suffered as a result of this policy (Roberts in Agyeman, Bullard and Evans, 2003: 191 and O'Brien and Mazibuko, 1998: 141). McGregor (2003: 2) added to the discussion when she stated the following: "The arrival of democracy in 1994 brought further stress. Then, unrealistic expectations of life turned to bitterness as thousands of jobs vanished through market liberalisation. Privatisation and the decamping of corporate giants hit employment figures. And the foreign investment that was expected to follow the opening of markets largely failed to materialise. Forty two percent of black people are unemployed". South Africa today faces enormous challenges with regard to unemployment, addressing the HIV/AIDS pandemic and restructuring education and skills development.

The failure of the previous government to create opportunities for all people, regardless of colour, political or religious persuasion, to fully participate in all spheres of life, will have many negative consequences for years to come.

4.3.3 Social welfare and economic development

Hatton (2001: 33) contributed to the debate with regard to social welfare and economic development. Hatton stated the following: "Social work, as it is currently constructed in many countries, operates in the context of the growing poverty and social exclusion of service users and it is being recognized that social work can make a contribution to the process of social inclusion by empowering people to overcome their exclusion through promoting forms of social inclusion". Hatton (2001: 34) also emphasized the three particular priority commitments, which emerged from the 1995 World Summit for social development in Copenhagen, namely: eradicating poverty, fighting unemployment and empowering disadvantaged groups.

From this discussion it is clear that the objective is the linking of social welfare more effectively with economic development. In Midgley's opinion (1995: 1) the social development approach is relevant to all societies where efforts are under way to promote economic development. It indicates the importance for a wider commitment to economic development and emphasizes the need for social interventions that are compatible with economic development objectives. According to Midgley (1995: 2) social development is not only an approach, which recognizes the wider economic realities within a society but actively promotes development. A valuable summary of what social development has to offer was obtained from Midgley (1995: 8): "Social development offers a comprehensive macro-perspective that focuses on communities and societies, emphasizes planned intervention, promotes a dynamic change-oriented approach which is inclusive and universalistic, and above all seeks to harmonize social interventions with economic development efforts". O'Brien and Mazibuko (1998: 149) contributed to this debate and offered a simple, logical interpretation when they suggested that a social development model implies that an improvement in people's material conditions cannot be brought about only

through social measures. A social development model advocates a comprehensive and integrated socio-economic strategy.

Sanders (in Estes, 1998: 2) described development practice in social work as a movement, a perspective, and a practice mode. In the words of Estes (1998: 2): "As the "means" of "developmental social work," social development refers to the processes through which people are helped to realize the fullness of the social, political, and economic potentials that already exist within them. As the "goal" of developmental social work, social development refers to the realization of new, but sustainable, systems of "interpersonal" and "inter-national" relationships that are guided by a quest for peace, increased social justice, and the satisfaction of human needs".

Morales-Gomèz (2001: 4) in his discussion of the concepts of social development and poverty reduction stated that social development is a process of human growth. According to this author it does not depend only on getting the "fundamentals of macro-economic policy" right. It implies creating a supportive environment of integrated social policies and better distribution of the benefits of economic growth based on social equity. Morales-Gomèz (2001: 5) argued that there are two common dimensions underlying the concept social development: a descriptive dimension characterizing social development as the conditions of people and their quality of life, the quality and sustainability of their institutions, and the state of their education, health, and security. A second dimension refers to a normative, prescriptive dimension, placing social development as a goal to be achieved and a desirable end in itself. Morales-Gomèz (2001: 4) concluded that social development is a foundation upon which human development flourishes, political development provides a framework of rights, and economic development becomes sustainable. (Compare Midgley and Tang, 2001: 245.) The above descriptions of the social developmental perspective are in line with statements regarding sustainable human development. Mitlin (2000: 2) contributed to the debate with regard to sustainable human development and

239

suggested a model of poverty reduction that works through four critical components, namely:

- Supporting informal networks to assist members (particularly women) to address their multiple needs;
- Increasing incomes through micro-enterprise development and employment opportunities;
- Reducing expenditure on housing and basic services through community managed improvements; and
- Strengthening community organizations to enable them to negotiate with external actors and draw in resources which can be controlled by community members.

As previously discussed in this study, sustainable human development means improving the income, education and health of all segments of the population, and must be economically viable, socially just and environmentally sustainable (compare chapter 3). The emergence of the developmental welfare approach is of particular significance within the context of this research study.

4.3.4 The emergence of developmental welfare

Midgley and Tang (2001: 244), discussed the idea of developmental welfare, and stated the following: "Although the notion of developmental welfare is not new, it is only in recent times that its central premises have again attracted attention in social policy circles. Since developmental welfare offers an opportunity to challenge the neo-liberal claim that social expenditures harm the economy, and that economic development requires retrenchments in state, welfare, more information about this approach is needed". According to these authors the notion of developmental welfare is rooted in beliefs about social progress, the desirability of change and the prospect of social improvement. These authors suggested that the intellectual framework for developmental welfare was stimulated by events in various European countries, the influence of political

240

parties representing the interests of workers and the popularity of Keynesian demand management policies in the Western industrial countries. It was in British colonial territories that social development ideas were first translated into practical programmes. In West Africa the existing remedial social services could not cope with the manifestations of urban need and were augmented with community-based programmes. This change in approach later moved on to other parts of the world. These programmes sought to promote popular participation in productive development projects in order to raise incomes and meet social needs. Unlike remedial social services, these programmes gave expression to the notion that social welfare could contribute positively to economic development (Midgley and Tang, 2001: 244 and Midgley, 1996: 15).

Midgley (1996: 14) reported that social work's extensive involvement in remedial practice has long been criticized. Many have argued that the remedial approach is contrary to the profession's historical commitment to eradicate poverty. Critics have claimed that the remedial approach is too limiting and ineffective as a method for promoting human well-being on a significant scale (Livermore and Midgley, 1998). Prigoff (2000: 189) stated in this regard: "While social work has recognized the utility of community organization as a source of strength for social advocacy, for many decades the focus in social work education has been on clinical practice for remediation of problems, rather than on prevention. The perspectives of the field are changing". O'Brien and Mazibuko (1998: 147) concurred and stated in this regard: "Its focus on remediation rather than development, on the individual rather than on social change, and on social control rather than poverty alleviation, has merited much comment".

Morrison, *et al.* (in Prigoff, 2000: 190) delivered a valuable contribution when they stated the following: "Most important, social work must increase its recognition of the importance of community influences in fostering a healthy environment for children and families. Practice in neighborhoods and communities should be based on the new social work perspectives and should focus on changing the

241

culture of what is seen as valued, possible, and appropriate in these communities, which in turn will modify the opportunity systems for children and families. Accepting the contextual environment and building on the strengths and abilities of these networks will endow each participant with the "power" to bring about change in recognition that it does "take a whole village to raise a child". In a dated but still useful discussion of changes in social work practice, Macarov (1991: 4) noted: "Most professions have a tendency toward conservatism, and social work is no exception. Many practitioners continue to use the methods they learned as students – perhaps as long ago as 40 years or more – even when these methods are no longer relevant. For example, the psychoanalytic – or, at least, the therapeutic – approach to dealing with unemployed people may persist even during periods of mass societally induced unemployment, when social action or helping clients to organize as pressure groups is likely to be more effective". O'Brien and Mazibuko (1998: 147) added to the discussion and asked why social work stands accused of being on the sideline of social development? The suggestion was made that social development theory has been too elusive and general to influence social work practitioners significantly. Another possible explanation offered was that the social work profession found it difficult to change course to fit in with the multidisciplinary nature of social development because of its blurred professional boundaries. Within the context of South Africa, the previous South African government's policies of funding social work services, have worked against the profession becoming more developmentally oriented.

Manthorpe and Bradley (2002: 279) added to this discussion and claimed that the social work profession has an ambivalent relationship with poverty and despite social workers' daily encounters with the poor and the severe consequences of the lack of basic needs, responses remained similar to those of earlier decades. Becker (in Manthorpe and Bradley, 2002: 279) concurred and was highly critical of social work's attempts to "manage the poor". He listed a collection of responses to requests for poverty assistance, i.e. advice on benefits, referral to other sources, and tight criteria for assistance. Becker stated that each

242

one of these responses has their failings. Coulshed and Orme (in Trevithick, 2000: 1) entered the debate and offered a most valuable contribution in this regard: "... there are no easy remedies in social work, especially when we are confronted daily with oppression and deprivation..."

It is clear from the criticism that if social work is to survive as a profession, it needs to move beyond a narrow concern with remedial practice and promote activities that make a positive contribution to social well-being. This viewpoint is decisive from many developing countries where the overwhelming need is for social and economic development. (Compare Gray, 1996: 13.) In this regard, Stevenson (in Manthorpe and Bradley, 2002: 283) contributed the following: "Social workers...have to engage with poverty in two ways. One involves a general response to its impact on their clients, with an obligation to describe and discuss for a wider audience whose concerns can be mobilized. The other...requires the social workers to consider the most effective ways of helping the individual in poverty who is a unique person in unique difficulty". Manthorpe and Bradley (2002: 281-282) stated that within social services there is a new interest in poverty and a recasting of it as social exclusion. Stevens, Bur and Young (1999: 2) stated that social exclusion has been defined as: "the process through which individuals or groups are wholly or partially excluded from full participation in the society in which they live". These authors emphasised that other authors lay greater emphasis on "multiple deprivation" as the defining feature of social exclusion: unemployment or an insecure job, poor housing, family stress and social alienation. Social exclusion is about the quantifiable, material conditions of being poor but also includes more qualitative, intangible elements such as depression, low self-esteem and isolation. The role of the wider community in determining quality of life needs to be considered in any discussion of social exclusion. There is a move to anti-poverty strategies justifying this renewed emphasis on combating poverty.

Midgley (in Midgley and Tang, 2001: 246) contrasted social development with institutionalized approaches to promoting human welfare such as philanthropy, professional social work and social service administration. Midgley wrote that unlike these approaches, which are primarily concerned with solving social problems and meeting needs through the provision of social services, the payment of social benefits and the intervention of professional personnel, social development seeks to promote human well-being in association with a dynamic, ongoing process of economic development. Social development views economic and social processes as equally important components of the development process. Social development advocates that a closer integration of economic and social policies can enhance the welfare of all. Three primary principles are important to achieve the abovementioned objective:

- The establishment of organisational arrangements at the national level that harmonise economic and social policies within a comprehensive commitment to sustainable and people-centred development are extremely important. Governmental organisations need to have regular contact with social-service agencies. The implementation of the social development approach requires that economic development and social-service agencies work more closely together.

- The advocates of the developmental approach urge the adoption of macroeconomic policies that promote employment and attain people-centred economic development outcomes. It is clear from this approach that economic development has a direct and positive impact on people's welfare. Programmes that foster the inclusion of people in the development process by creating jobs and self-employment are given priority. Investments in human and social capital and the provision of credit and other forms of economic assistance that facilitate maximum economic inclusion are emphasised. The emphasis on enhancing human capabilities through social investments is designed to facilitate and enable economic and social inclusion. This approach is sensitive to ecological concerns.

- Proponents of the developmental approach propose that social programmes be investment oriented or "productivist" by promoting economic participation and generating positive rates of return to the economy. A social programme is productivist if it focuses on material needs, promotes effective participation in the economy and contributes positively to economic development. The notions of social investment and productivism are at the core of developmental welfare theory.

According to Midgley and Tang (2001: 247) developmental welfare is concerned not only with increasing labour-market participation among welfare clients but with a variety of interventions that foster economic participation and raise standards of living. (Compare Social Investment Research Group: [sa].) Midgley (1996: 16) and other proponents of the developmental approach proposed that social workers use established forms of social work practice to create and enhance programmes that promote economic development. By doing this ordinary people can become involved in development and derive positive benefits from economic progress. (Compare Gray, 1996: 12.) Midgley (1996: 16) was concerned about the image of the social work profession and stated in this regard: "The adoption of a developmental perspective can enhance the profession's image and help to dispel the belief that social work is only concerned with the provision of benefits to the "dropouts and misfits" of society". In Midgley's opinion this negative image of the profession is pervasive in both the industrial and developing countries. Very often social workers are regarded as a profession providing benefits to people who do not want to work and who is a burden on society. By actively promoting a developmental approach, the social work profession can position itself to make a tangible contribution to economic growth. Dependent and needy people need to be integrated into society in order to be productive citizens and raise their own self-esteem. By becoming actively involved in solving their material and social needs, social work clients are contributing to their own well-being. (Compare Gray, 1996: 12.) The social work profession has the improvement of the human condition, i.e. serving people in

need and making social institutions more responsive to all people as a central focus point. A developmental approach is therefore people-centred.

Prigoff's (2002: 2) contribution added to this discussion and according to this author the profession of social work has a unique opportunity to help communities respond effectively to the challenge of economic globalization. Community organization and community development are needed in all regions of the world. Prigoff (2000: 104-105) proposed the addition of international trade policy, economic development policy and corporate accountability to the social work profession's agenda for advocacy. She regarded social responsibility and economic justice crucial elements for national and community health. In Prigoff's words (2000: 105): "Their absence leaves the nation and its communities at high risk for rising incidences of addiction, violence and abuse, physical and mental problems, and criminal and self-destructive behaviors along with poverty and homelessness – all system-wide phenomena". According to Prigoff (2000: 175) violence has been redefined by social workers, based upon its harm to the lives of other human beings. In the words of Van Soest and Bryant (in Prigoff, 2000: 176): "[violence] as any act or situation in which a person injures another, including both direct attacks on a person's physical or psychological integrity and destructive actions that do not involve a direct relationship between the victims and perpetrators". Prigoff's (2000: 176) point of view was that a lack of access to material resources and social support is an example of structural violence especially destructive to children. Poverty and conditions of deprivation are both physically and psychologically damaging to dependent children, the aged, the disabled, and the unemployed. In a cash economy, poverty is life-threatening because human beings are unable to provide for their own basic needs and those of dependent family members. Prigoff (2000: 243) stated the following in this regard: "Very simply, the defining character of a prosperous economy, and the standard by which every economy must be measured, is the degree to which the economy achieves the production and distribution of a nurturing, healthy, rewarding, and sustainable quality standard of living for all of its people. Delivery

246

of anything less by either a national or a global economy is sufficient evidence to warrant the conclusion that "prosperous economy" is clearly not an accurate description – that is, in fact, an obvious distortion of reality".

According to Prigoff (2000: 155) human society is now in an era of historic transition, and many institutional structures no longer match the needs of the population. Some institutions are even dysfunctional for the nurturance, development, and maintenance of wholesome, healthy social systems, from the family through the global community. In Prigoff's opinion (2000: 174) social work examines the social phenomena of human behaviour and the group or institutional processes in the context of a macrosystem with economic, political, and cultural dimensions. This author argued that the impact of economic factors on mental health and on the level of violence in a society is studied and understood by social workers. Violence that takes place at the level of interpersonal relations between individuals reflects the institutional culture of a society and is also responsive to the tensions and pressures that are generated by economic and political factors.

The extent of poverty, underdevelopment and unemployment in South Africa and many other countries across the globe, provide more than enough reason for social workers to engage in economic development. Unfortunately there is still a great deal of uncertainty and lack of commitment as to how social workers should use their skills and knowledge and professional standing in dealing with this challenge. (Compare Gray, 1996: 9.) Midgley (1996: 16) reflected on this dilemma and in his opinion many social workers doubt that the profession has the experience and skills to introduce programmes that will be compatible with economic development activities. Social workers need a thorough understanding of economics and may be intimidated by the subject's technical vocabulary. O'Brien and Mazibuko (1998: 150) emphasised that the economic element of the social development model requires social work to examine its relations to economic institutions, the concepts of work and economic productivity. Manthorpe and Bradley (2002: 286) added to this particular discussion and

stated that social workers displayed ambivalence to working with finance. There was a definite desire to avoid crossing the boundary into matters of income and expenditure. These authors (2002: 286) contributed valuable insight with regard to this dilemma: "New models of social care support combined with growing means testing mean that, like it or not, finance is central to the helping relationship. Similarly social workers' role in managing budgets and contracts with service providers means that ignorance of finance is untenable and unprofessional". In Manthrope and Bradley's opinion (2002: 286) whatever new organisational structures arise for social work, managing to champion the interests of the poor and disadvantaged, may be the one distinctive and enduring contribution of social work. Coates (2000: 6) added to this very important role for social workers and emphasized that social workers needed to become involved in educational efforts, and be aware of and be involved with coalitions, which seek to create alternative social structures. Coates stated that social workers could support local credit unions and cooperatives, and similar efforts, which promote the local control of local resources for local benefit. In this regard Coates (2000: 6) stated the following: "In so doing social work can play a role in developing local resources which are more independent of transnational interests and which create opportunities for people and local communities to establish and maintain sustainable and more equitable practices".

In Prigoff's opinion (2000: 2) social workers need skills in organizing and political action; knowledge of the economic profile of communities in which they work; and knowledge of the tools, methods, and limitations of economic theory and practice. Prigoff (2000: 88) discussed the importance for social workers to participate actively in decisions on economic and trade policies, which have significant consequences for the lives of individuals, families, groups, communities, and nations. In this author's opinion (2000: 155) the basic problem-solving methods of the field of social work are relevant to the solution of world crises because they address systems change. In pursuit of economic justice,

social work has many allies: women's groups, church groups, environmental and health organizations, trade unions and cultural communities (Prigoff, 2000: 245).

The most critical issues and decisions facing humanity today are centered in decisions about trade and economic policies. Midgley (1996: 17) argued that a tangible or workable set of prescriptions for social work's engagement with development activities, will alleviate many of the concerns and uneasiness that social workers experience with regard to their position in promoting a economic developmental approach. Midgley (1996: 20) admitted that much of the social development literature focused on abstract aspects of the subject in question. This author claimed that a developmental perspective was more likely to emerge if social workers focus on forms of intervention that promote the attainment of material welfare goals. In his opinion, by focusing on material welfare, practical developmental roles for social workers will be revealed. A materialist perspective is compatible with social work's responsibility to address the problems of poverty, deprivation and material need. Gray (1996: 11) added to this view and in her opinion developmental social work is a type of social work which affirms the social work profession's commitment to poverty eradication; acknowledges that there is a definite link between welfare and economic development; and, regards social welfare as an investment in human capital rather than a drain on scarce resources.

According to Sewpaul (2001: 309) there were several compelling reasons for social workers to understand how macro-economic policies impact on welfare. In this author's view, social work as a core human service discipline is often left to pick up the consequences of macro-socio-political and economic policies as they impact directly on people's lives at the micro-level. This view was supported by Prigoff (2000: 87), stating that for social workers, the goals of economic development included broad benefits to the population as a whole, especially to vulnerable population sectors not able to meet basic needs for food, clothing, and shelter through active participation in the labour force. Prigoff (2000: 251) made a

249

valuable contribution regarding the position of the social work profession in addressing a number of economic issues. Tax structures, the political economy, health coverage for poor people, and investments are amongst many of the economic questions that come into play. In her own words (2000: 251): "Social workers have not often addressed such issues. The sense that economics is outside the boundaries of social work concern and expertise must change. Social workers are participants and leaders in community coalitions. The members of the profession can strengthen their work by recognizing that economic policy is an arena for social work action and by integrating content on economics into the knowledge base of the social work profession". In Nkomo's opinion (in Sewpaul, 2001: 319), if social workers are to develop new roles they need to understand the poverty-generating structures of society and identify what steps need to be taken to address poverty. He argued that social workers needed to facilitate the formulation of appropriate policies and identify concrete programmes, within a developmental framework, that deal with poverty more effectively. Sokalski (in Sewpaul, 2001: 320) concurred with this viewpoint and argued that in order to sustain development, social workers need to undertake distinct but carefully integrated actions at three policy levels: macro, mezzo and micro. Sewpaul (2001: 320) argued that given the vast amount of data that exists within social work service organizations, and the experiences of social workers at grassroots levels, they are in strategic positions to inform policy content and to ensure effective policy implementation and evaluation.

The development and support of entrepreneurs is an avenue towards creating improved economic circumstances for communities and individual clients.

4.4 ENTREPRENEURSHIP

"By definition, innovation cannot be planned. Leading entrepreneurs... did not ascend a hierarchy; they created a new one. They did not climb to the top of anything. They were pushed to the top by their own success. They did not capture the pinnacle; they became it"

(George Gilder, in Godwin: [sa]: 3).

In the 1993 Peter Drucker wrote a new preface to his book "Innovation and Entrepreneurship" (1985) in which he stated that the 1990s have been a period of innovations in all areas – international affairs, politics, economics, technology, and business. In his opinion the most innovative area may well have been management itself – with "outsourcing" and "downsizing", "economic value analysis" and "reengineering" sweeping the management world. Drucker predicted that even more changes, in all major areas of life, in most societies would occur from the year 2000. The implications of these changes could be profound and Drucker stated the following in this regard: "And in such a period of rapid change the best – perhaps the only – way a business can hope to prosper if not survive, is to innovate. It is the only way to convert change into opportunity". These words also ring true for the way non-profit organizations, non-governmental organizations and social welfare services should approach business in the future.

There is little doubt that high and growing unemployment represents the most significant social and economic dilemmas facing South Africa today. Gaenor Vaida (2003) stated that the jobs gap had widened – figures suggested that between 1996 and 2001, only 600 000 jobs were created for more than three million new entrants to the job market. Vaida referred to data obtained from Statistics South Africa: 750 000 new job seekers enter the market every year, these included matriculants, university and technikon graduates, all of whom have no work experience. According to Statistics South Africa (in Vaida, 2003)

251

the following key figures reflected the current state of the labour market in South Africa:

- 33.7% of South Africans of working age (15 to 65 years) are employed. This consists of 26.8% of women of working age and 41.3% of men.
- 42.3% of South Africans of working age are not economically active, which includes students, homemakers, the disabled, those too ill to work and those not seeking work. Nearly half of women of working age (48.3%) are in this category, while men make up 35.7%.
- The province with the highest unemployment rate is the Eastern Cape with 54.6%, followed by Limpopo with 48.8% and KwaZulu-Natal with 48.7%.

There is a growing recognition from all stakeholders that every effort should be made to assist people to uplift their standard of living. Jobless and homeless people need more than survival strategies that pay very little or even nothing. Governments do not necessarily create jobs, private sector businesses do. Governments do play a crucial role in creating an environment conducive for growth and stability. Governments together with the citizens are responsible for building a foundation for a strong economy and a liveable community, including education, health care, infrastructure and public safety and security. In South Africa today, many political and economic analysts believe that the necessary growth in job creation and development may not be achieved in the near future. The reality of the situation is that millions of poor people, struggling to survive need mechanisms to support them to make ends meet. Macarov and Baerwald (2001: 1) provided an important contribution in underlining how crucial it is to provide opportunities for poor people to have a support system. They contributed the following: "When, during the depths of the Great Depression, President Franklin, D. Roosevelt discussed the proposal for a social security program in the United States with his social advisor, Harry Hopkins, he is said to have remarked that although the program would not solve problems immediately, it would prove itself in the long run. Harry Hopkins is said to have replied: "But Mr. President, people *eat* in the short run".

252

The entrepreneurial approach represents the hopes and dreams of people who want to create new products and services. It is a way of problem-solving, and a way for working towards permanent long-term improvements to achieve a better standard of living for the individual and the community. The entrepreneur is a key economic actor in community life. Entrepreneurs have inestimable value in society. Gilder (1992: 7) described entrepreneurship rather eloquently: "The very process of creating wealth is the best possible education for creating more wealth. Every enterprise is an experimental test of an entrepreneurial idea. If it succeeds it yields a twofold profit: a financial increase and an enlargement of knowledge and learning...Like a tree or a garden, an economy grows by photosynthesis. Without the light of new knowledge and by the roots of ownership, it withers". If economic growth with full employment and rapidly increasing living standards is to develop in a society, the following three factors must be present: capital, entrepreneurs and a supportive entrepreneurial environment. This last factor is by far the most decisive. If society is to function well the encouragement and support of entrepreneurs is of crucial importance. Governments are responsible for creating an investment climate that is conducive to the development of micro-, small and medium businesses.

Sanders (2001: 1) stated that micro-enterprise initiatives have both proponents and critics. Proponents suggested that micro-enterprise has the capacity to create jobs and businesses, revitalizing low-income communities and move people out of poverty. According to Sanders (2001: 2) critics of micro-enterprise suggested that, with a focus primarily on credit, micro-lending cannot seriously reduce poverty in the United States. Additionally, they suggested micro-enterprise initiatives were part of a larger trend toward reducing social safety net programs.

Slaughter ([sa]) defined entrepreneurship as follows: "The process of uncovering or developing an opportunity to create value through innovation and seizing that

253

opportunity without regard to either resources (human and capital) or the location of the entrepreneur – in a new or existing company". It is within this context that the concept of "**social entrepreneurship**" finds a foothold. According to Johnson (2002: 1) the concept of "social entrepreneurship" has been rapidly emerging in the private, public and non-profit sectors over the last few years. Non-profit organisations are facing intensifying demands for improved effectiveness and sustainability because of diminishing funding and increased competition for these scarce resources. Social entrepreneurship is emerging as an innovative approach for dealing with complex social needs. Johnson (2002: 1) wrote in this regard: "With its emphasis on problem-solving and social innovation, socially entrepreneurial activities blur the traditional boundaries between the public, private and non-profit sector, and emphasize hybrid models of for-profit and non-profit activities. Promoting collaboration between sectors is implicit within social entrepreneurship, as is developing radical new approaches to solving old problems".

Notable experts like Peter Drucker see management and innovation in the non-profit sector as the most vital challenges of the present era. The nonprofits are also seen as an ever-expanding source of possible solutions to issues that currently plague a vast number of communities, such as poverty, crime, violence and abuse. Within this sector, greater attention is being focused on those individuals who have a vision for social change, and use that in combination with business skills to bring about the betterment of a community (Schuyler, 1998: 1). Giddens (in Steyaert, 2000: 14) offered a valuable perspective on entrepreneurship when he stated the following: "Successful entrepreneurs, however, are innovators, because they spot possibilities that others miss, or take on risks that others decline, or both. A society that doesn't encourage entrepreneurial culture won't generate the economic energy that comes from the most creative ideas. Social and civic entrepreneurs are just as important as those working directly in a market context, since the same drive and creativity are needed in the public sector, and in civil society, as in the economic sphere".

Social workers can be part of a force of entrepreneurs working towards economic change and growth in society.

Reis (in Johnson, 2002: 4) argued that deeply entrenched social problems were not solved through the fragmented, currently predominant, single-sector approach and emphasised that all sectors needed to work together exchanging and sharing traditionally accepted roles. Catford (in Johnson, 2002: 4) articulated this issue most effectively: "Traditional welfare-state approaches are in decline globally, and in response new ways of creating healthy and sustainable communities are required. This challenges our social, economic and political systems to respond with new, creative and effective environments that support and reward change. From the evidence available, current examples of social entrepreneurship offer exciting new ways of realizing the potential of individuals and communities ... into the 21st century". Catford (in Johnson, 2002: 8) further described that social and economic entrepreneurs shared the same focus on vision and opportunity and the same ability to convince and empower others to help them turn these visions into a reality. Within the social entrepreneur there is an underlying motivation for social justice.

Johnson (2002: 4) stated that defining what social entrepreneurship is, and what its conceptual boundaries are, can be somewhat complicated. The reasons being: the concept is inherently complex and the area is new and little consensus has emerged on the topic. Peter Drucker (in Johnson, 2002: 5) argued that social entrepreneurs "... change the performance capacity of society". Boschee (in Johnson, 2002: 5) presented social entrepreneurs as "... non-profit executives who pay increased attention to market forces without losing sight of their underlying mission". Johnson (2002: 5) wrote that many authors define social entrepreneurship as bringing business expertise and market-based skills to the non-profit sector in order to help this sector become more efficient in providing and delivering services. In this category there is non-profits running small, for-profit businesses and channelling their earnings back into social service

problems as well as non-profits adopting private sector management techniques in order to get more mileage out of existing resources. These definitions put more emphasis on the "entrepreneurial" nature of activities and the creativity and innovation that entrepreneurs bring to solving social problems in unique ways. Gilber (1992: 8) argued: "In a sense, entrepreneurship is the launching of surprises". Henton, Melville and Walesh (in Johnson, 2002: 6) identified the following key characteristics of the social entrepreneurship approach: "...like the business entrepreneur, the civic entrepreneur operates in a time of dramatic change, sees opportunity and mobilizes others in the community to work toward their collective well-being". It is the innovativeness of the approach that essentially defines this conceptualization of social entrepreneurship. Johnson (2002: 9) stated that the ability to develop a network of relationships and contacts is a hallmark of visionary social entrepreneurs, as is the ability to communicate an inspiring vision in order to recruit and inspire staff, partners, and volunteers. Because social entrepreneurs often demand establishing credibility across multiple constituencies, and the ability to mobilize support within those constituencies, networking is a critical skill for social entrepreneurs.

Catford (in Johnson, 2002: 10) added to this discussion and summarized the distinguishing characteristics of social entrepreneurs as follows: "Social entrepreneurs combine street pragmatism with professional skills, visionary insights with pragmatism, an ethical fiber with tactical thrust. They see opportunities where others only see empty buildings, unemployable people and unvalued resources...Radical thinking is what makes social entrepreneurs different from simply "good" people. They make markets work for people, not the other way around, and gain strengths from a wide network of alliances. They can "boundary-ride" between the various political rhetoric's and social paradigms to enthuse all sectors of society". (Compare Steyaert, 2000: 9.) Slaughter [sa] agreed with this viewpoint, and stated that successful entrepreneurs know that opportunities are found where discontinuities exist in the marketplace or where they can create a product that is different from all other products.

It is clear from the above discussion that commitment and determination are important weapons in the arsenal of the aspiring entrepreneur. There may be incredible obstacles in the way of making a success of a new venture. Very often the lack of formal education and skills can be overwhelming. To overcome this, tenacity and the ability to stay committed and positive are essential attributes of the entrepreneur. Timmons (1999: 22), realising the significance of the positive spirit of the entrepreneur, referred to the words of President Calvin Coolidge, the 30th president of the United States of America from 1923 to 1929: " Nothing in the world can take the place of persistence. Talent will not; nothing is more common than unsuccessful men with talent. Genius will not; unrewarded genius is almost a proverb. Education will not; the world is full of educated derelicts. Persistence and determination alone are omnipotent. The slogan "Press on" has solved and solved and always will solve the problems of the human race".

Young (in Bent-Goodley, 2002: 291) contributed to this discussion and defined entrepreneurship as "a process of putting new ideas into practice". Bent-Goodley (2002: 291) characterised social work entrepreneurship (SWE) as "the creation of institutions through entrepreneurial thinking that are guided by social work ethics and based on the integration of social service, business, and public relation skills". According to Cannon (in Johnson, 2002: 10) "recovering social workers" are often motivated to become social entrepreneurs because they are disenchanted with the existing social support system and looking for a more effective approach. Steyaert (2000: 9) emphasized that entrepreneurs do not necessarily predict a need and then proceed to construct a product or a service to solve that need. In his own words: "What entrepreneurs do, is to open a new space for human action". Cannon (2000: 1) agreed with this perspective and stated that in the past generation, many of America's most ambitious and creative nonprofits have concluded that handouts are no longer enough, that government and altruism can't improve the lives of the poor.

257

It is within this paradigm that social workers need to recognise that they have a significant role and contribution to make. Social workers need to become entrepreneurial leaders, injecting imagination, motivation, commitment, passion, tenacity, integrity, teamwork and vision into partnerships with clients, individual or communities. Improvisation, resourcefulness and inventiveness are important factors when the development of enterprises is discussed. The entrepreneurial approach offers opportunities to social workers and their clients to reframe the helping relationship.

A clear picture emerged from the literature; it is necessary for social workers and people involved in non-profit organizations to master basic business principles and practices before starting and running small businesses. Reis (in Johnson, 2002: 12) echoed this sentiment, and commented that very often small and medium-sized non-profit organizations are missing useful financial expertise and basic bookkeeping skills. Lombard (2003: 7) added to the discussion and emphasised the development of human capital within the entrepreneurial endeavour. This author stated that the development of human capital encompasses the building of personal capacity through skills training in areas such as writing a business plan, preparing funding proposals, bookkeeping, business principles, marketing, advertising, finances, human relations, conflict management and negotiation. Cannon (2000: 3) described the viewpoint of Jim Thalhuber, president of the Minneapolis-based National Center for Social Entrepreneurs. Thalhuber made the following statement in referring to non-profit organizations that needed to master basic business principles and practices: "Before they try to operate an actual moneymaking enterprise, they need to run their non-profit as a business instead of a charity. In many cases, if they do that – if they do what they do smarter, more efficiently, and more effectively – they can stick with their core business". The success of ventures adopting the abovementioned approach is the direct result of combining business principles with a strong social mission.

258

In addition to the abovementioned business know-how, aspiring entrepreneurs need to consider the overall marketing strategy that will exploit the opportunity that has been identified, to ensure a competitive advantage. Business skills and true creativity need to come together to build an enterprise. An entrepreneurial mind-set can be learned, nurtured and encouraged.

Fowler (in Johnson, 2002: 13) described the underlying theme of social entrepreneurship very eloquently: "... the art of integration is to marry developmental agendas with market priorities and then manage them properly so they are synergistic, not draining". Bent-Goodley (2002: 292) concurred with this view and stated the following in this regard: "Although this new focus demands a shift in thinking, it does not denote a lack of professional ethics but can instead provide opportunities for social workers to create institutions that meet the needs of fragile communities". This author emphasized the value of social work entrepreneurship in that it may allow social workers to initiate institutions and to take advantage of opportunities to create new interventions that respond to the needs of clients. Young (in Bent-Goodley, 2002: 293) suggested that social work entrepreneurship can encompass the following solutions to presenting difficulties in practice for the social worker: "...a new kind of service, a new way of providing an existing service, a service provided to a new clientele, new financing or organizational arrangements for providing a given service, or even the revitalization of a program within an existing organizational framework". Bent-Goodley (2002: 297) defined entrepreneurial thinking, as the visualization of innovative opportunities, and social work entrepreneurs are therefore creators of options.

Cannon (2000: 1) contributed a valuable case-study to this discussion. Dianne Flannery, a social worker from San Francisco, started a number of small businesses, thereby providing job opportunities for young people from a homeless shelter. She founded "Juma Ventures", which boldly declares in its mission statement that it is one of a new breed of charities that "use business

and entrepreneurship as the vehicle for achieving our social mission". Cannon (2000: 2) summarized in eloquent fashion the motivation behind social entrepreneurial ventures. He stated in this regard: "That's the problem social entrepreneurship is attempting to solve. Traditional nonprofits, overwhelmed with the endless needs of the growing legion of poor Americans, are shackled by their dependence on money or goods contributed by people who give only after their own needs and wants have been met. The new social entrepreneurs insist that this is an inefficient way to do good. Their model combines the best methods from two worlds: hard-headed fiscal conservatism and soft-hearted liberalism".

According to Timmons (1999: 27) entrepreneurship is "a way of thinking, reasoning, and acting that is opportunity obsessed, holistic in approach, and leadership balanced". This author emphasised that at the heart of the entrepreneurial process is the creation and/or recognition of opportunities, followed by the will and initiative to seize these opportunities. Some commonality emerges from the varying definitions of social entrepreneurship: the "problem-solving nature" is prominent and the corresponding emphasis on developing and implementing initiatives that do deliver measurable results in the form of changed social outcomes and /or impacts.

Bent-Goodley (2002: 297) discussed the importance of "retraining thought processes" in the education of social workers whereby they become empowered and use social work to make a difference in their own lives and the lives of their clients. Brown (in Bent-Goodley, 2002: 294) argued that it is more important than ever to address the perceived division between traditional social work values and the economic focus of entrepreneurial enterprises. Segal (in Bent-Goodley, 2002: 294) added to this discussion and stated that social work must draw on business concepts to survive as a profession and learn to market human service products to improve the satisfaction of clients and to increase the effectiveness of service organizations (Bent-Goodley, 2002: 298). Social workers would need to master the fundamental components of entrepreneurship, namely: management,

marketing, financing and operational procedures, as a prerequisite to successfully operate as social entrepreneurs.

According to Bent-Goodley (2002: 300) social work entrepreneurship provides a unique opportunity for the social work profession to reinvent itself. This author stated the following in this regard: "Educators may be able to help future social workers create successful and effective opportunities that will benefit individuals, communities, society, and the profession". What is needed in social work today are social work professionals with an abundance of enthusiasm to address in a creative and innovative way the vast unemployment faced by so many people in the world. Lombard (2003: 9) recognised this need and concluded with the following statement: "We need to believe that we will find the same kind of entrepreneurs amongst the poor as those who Gilder refers to in his book *The Spirit of Enterprise*: "... the movers and shakers, doers and givers, brimming with visions of creation and opportunity... the optimists who see in every patch of sand a potential garden, in every man a potential worker, in every problem a possible profit. They struggle, flounder, work day and night, sometimes succeed and often fail; but they are resilient and keep coming on". What is clear from the discussion is the importance of a positive work ethic as an integral part of the successful creation of entrepreneurial activities. Within the entrepreneurial approach lies the potential to advance the interest not only of the individual or the community but also of the entire society.

4.5 STRATEGIES FOR IMPLEMENTING DEVELOPMENTAL SOCIAL PROGRAMS

Midgley (1999: 9) provided a framework for revitalizing social welfare by adopting an inclusive developmental perspective with the main objective to integrate social welfare and economic development. Midgley (1999: 9) suggested the following valuable strategies for implementing developmental social programs: increasing cost effectiveness in social welfare, enhancing human capital investments,

promoting social capital formation, developing individual and community assets, expanding job training and placement to include the disabled, the mentally ill and drug abusers; facilitating economic participation through productive employment and self-employment, removing barriers to economic participation and creating a social climate conducive to development. For the purpose of this study the abovementioned strategies will each be discussed in more depth.

4.5.1 Increasing cost effectiveness in social welfare: waste, inefficiency and corruption

Good governance has increasingly been recognized as a crucial prerequisite for development effectiveness and the growth that it encourages. According to Narayan (2002: 2) effective governance is critical for ensuring a positive investment climate, and there is a two-way relationship with empowerment – that is, good governance promotes empowerment, and empowerment further enhances good governance. Efficiency of an institution is therefore a reflection of the quality of governance in that institution. Governments cannot address nor implement social development programs on their own. Social services providers and non-governmental organisations do need to contribute expertise, knowledge and dedication to support the government in implementing and monitoring the progress of all development projects.

Corruption is both a symptom and a cause of poor governance. It undermines the investment climate and development effectiveness. Ayee (2001: 2) provided valuable insight into the various descriptions of corruption. According to this author definitions of corruption often overlap in the following categories: (i) misuse of public office for private gain; (ii) inappropriate exchanges of money or favours for undue influence or power; and (iii) violations of public interest or norms of behaviour for special advantages or self-serving purposes. The catalogue of corrupt acts includes bribery, extortion, influence peddling, nepotism, fraud, speed money and embezzlement.

262

The Southern African Catholic Bishops' Conference Justice and Peace Department, drafted a paper called "Un-blurring the Vision – An Assessment of the New Partnership for Africa's Development by South African Churches" (2002: 20), where it is stated that the representatives from the major economic players in the world, namely, United States of America, Britain, Germany, France, Italy, Japan, Canada and the European Community, routinely argued that the single biggest deterrent to supporting Africa's development is endemic corruption on the continent. This paper acknowledged that corruption is indeed a major problem in many African societies and emphasised that the profitability of corruption must be removed by ensuring that there are mechanisms in place to prosecute those guilty of corruption. Good governance is undermined by a lack of transparency, weak accountability, poor organization and lack of technical capacity, lack of responsiveness, inefficiency and poor motivation. (Compare Girishankar, Hammergren, Holmes, Knack, Levy, Litvack, Manning, Messick, Rinne, and Sutch, 2001: 3-6.) These authors stated that poor governance and corruption could hurt poor people in many ways. When a corrupt government is in power, social interests and economic priorities receive much less attention in the allocation of public resources. In their own words (2001: 3-4): "As capital-intensive defense and infrastructure projects may offer more opportunities for kickbacks than, for instance, spending on primary education, government spending allocations may be biased away from pro-poor expenditure". Ayee (2001: 2) concurred with this view, stating that corruption ("or rent-seeking as it is euphemistically referred to") has for a long time been the most serious challenge to the public service in Africa. He wrote in this regard: "Corruption has not only eroded the public service's established principles such as merit, neutrality, equality, accountability and representativeness but also its legitimacy or public confidence. The importance of public confidence and trust in the public service cannot be over-emphasized". Continuing corruption whether in government or within the non-governmental organization fraternity has serious implications for public support and service delivery.

263

The maladministration and gross inefficiency of many government departments and non-governmental organizations concerned with uplifting the poor undermine the political, social and economic gains that have been made since 1994 in the new South Africa. Corruption, fraud and the mismanagement of funds intended for poverty relief projects have become so serious that the Gauteng Department of Social Services and Welfare had shut down almost all projects, as reported by the journalist Matuma Letsoalo in November 2002. Letsoalo (2002) reported that in one case a brick-making project that received R1, 2-million was forced to shut down after the project manager disappeared with the funds, according to a dossier called the "Exit Strategy Report". Letsoalo stated that the Gauteng Department of Social Services and Welfare was accused of not having management systems and monitoring mechanisms in place to exercise proper oversight over the projects. This journalist reported that the department has spent R50-million since 1997 to fund 336 community projects but 85 percent of the projects did not achieve the department's objectives because individuals empowered themselves and their families rather than their communities. Letsoalo listed a great number of projects crippled by corruption, fraud and mismanagement. Many of the individuals trusted with funds intended for various community income-generating projects, have absconded with the funds or are unable to provide any indication of expenses. Ayee (2001: 7) concluded that corrupt leaders and officials unquestionably deepen the poverty of their people.

Development effectiveness and growth depend critically on public action, including well-designed and effectively deployed public spending on development priorities; sound public expenditure management is a crucial aspect of good governance (Narayan, 2002: 4-5). Midgley (2001: 9) emphasised that like many other public-sector programs, the social services have often been accused of "waste", "bureaucratic inefficiency", and "mismanagement". The accusation has been made that social service programs function to fulfil political agendas and serve the interests of bureaucrats. Midgley (1999: 9) reported that because these

programs were not subjected to the discipline of the market, critics claimed that they continued to operate even if they were wasteful and did not attain their stated goals. Contained in this criticism are obvious implications for economic development. The transfer of resources from the productive economy to maintain wasteful social programs is hardly conducive to economic growth. Girishankar, *et al.* (2001: 7) argued that to improve the coverage, cost efficiency, and quality of services at a local or provincial level, governments need to allocate and deliver adequate and predictable flows of resources to all sectoral authorities, and implement the necessary auditing procedures that are responsive to public scrutiny. Structural arrangements, for example legal frameworks, are of the utmost importance. These authors (2001: 7) emphasized the crucial role of capable, motivated staff, recruited on the basis of merit and paid a competitive wage.

In Midgley's opinion (1999: 9) new social programs are often established because of their political appeal or in response to the activities of interest groups, without the necessary research and scrutiny required of projects in many other disciplines. Midgley (1999: 10) argued that although evaluation research in social work is now well developed, relatively few social programs are properly evaluated and the findings are often neglected. In his opinion all social programs should be evaluated, and attempts to assess their rates of return, as well as contribution to economic development, should be given priority. Too often political and fiscal considerations in assessing the implementation of a strategy play a more important role than scientific information regarding a social problem. Prigoff (2000: 12) stated in this regard that social workers, and other health-service providers, in partnership with community organizations, can be effective in building public awareness and community-based coalitions which can hold economic and political groups accountable for their actions. In her opinion the bankruptcy of leadership should be exposed. In Prigoff's opinion (2000: 189) corporations and financial institutions need to be accountable, not just to investors, but also to the communities of people that sanction their licenses, or at

locations where they work. Social workers could be instrumental in building alternative systems that support sustainable human development. The social work profession needs to actively promote issues of accountability. There are no substitutes for honesty and integrity in delivering the services poor people desperately need.

4.5.2   Enhancing human capital investments

According to Midgley (1999: 10 and 1996: 20) social development advocates believe strongly in social programs that invest in human capital. Proponents of the social developmental perspective have been inspired by economic studies showing that investments in education produce high rates of return not only to individuals but also to the economy and greater society. Investments in social welfare clients can facilitate their participation in the productive economy of a community (Midgley and Tang, 2001: 248). Human capital is essentially the sum of knowledge and skills that people use to pursue their livelihoods. Building human capital is the key to maintaining economic progress and a more equitable and inclusive society. According to Lombard (2003: 7) it is through human development that members of the community achieve self-esteem and personal empowerment, so important for the building of social capital. (Compare Stevens, Bur and Young, 1999: 3.)

Sustained access to effective basic services – including health care, education, water, and basic infrastructure – is of primary importance in the lives of poor people. Improvements in the quality and consistency of these services will enhance the creation of human capital. Institutional and governance models need to be addressed to make them more responsive to the needs of the poor (Narayan, 2002: 231). Data gathered from the World Development Report 2000/2001, "Voices of the Poor" study, indicated that expanding the involvement of more and more people in a community, has led to marked improvements in education. This study further indicated that initiatives that expanded the access

of excluded groups to education have led to significant shifts in mindset among community members and government leaders regarding the contributions that those groups can make to society (Narayan, 2002: 79 and 231). According to Midgley and Tang (2001: 248) human capital programmes have previously been used in the social services. In the field of rehabilitation where people with disabilities are assisted to gain skills and knowledge, the creation of human capital has been significant. It is most important that the newly acquired skills of participants in such programmes are the skills and knowledge required in the job market. Midgley and Tang (2001: 248) cautioned however that often, instead of upgrading their qualifications and skills so that they can secure employment with sufficient wages, many programmes have done little more than place clients in low-paying jobs. These authors emphasised that there is a growing recognition in the social-welfare field that human capital investments are not only needed among children in general but more specifically among the children of poor families. These children grow up in conditions that are not conducive to optimal physical, emotional and social development. The establishment of pre-school programmes that raise nutritional standards, improve health conditions, inculcate beginning educational skills and promote positive social relationships among younger children should be actively encouraged. The management of the income-generating project "Homeless Talk" supported this perspective. The journalist Nawaal Deane (2003) reported that a group of concerned people started "Homeless Talk" as an outreach programme to empower the homeless and create employment. The pre-school was founded as a joint venture with a national radio station and a community organization. The school principal reported that the pre-school provided the children the opportunity to become familiar with a schoolroom environment. The children received balanced meals, and most importantly were kept in a safe and secure environment. This organisation regarded the education of illiterate mothers about the importance of pre-school education for their children as very important and took this task to heart. (Compare Midgley, 1996: 21.) The social work profession has a definite stake in strengthening the first stages of education by supporting effective

267

parenting during early childhood and improving the access and quality of preschool programmes.

The organization "People's Global Action Against "Free" Trade and the World Trade Organization" issued a manifesto in 1998, stating the following: "Education as a tool for social change requires confrontational academics and critical educators for all educational systems. Community-based education can provoke learning processes within social movements. The right to information is essential for the work of social movements. Limited and unequal access to language skills, especially for women, hinders participation in political activity with other peoples. Building these tools is a way to reinforce and rebuild human values" (in Prigoff, 2000: 324).

Development implies increasing the freedom and capabilities of all people. Education, skills training and access to resources are of paramount importance to create conditions where poor people can have a stake in their future development. Improving the stock of skills available to an economy through investments in adult education and lifelong learning is an issue of strategic importance for any government. A mother from a highly underprivileged background contributed the following: "Knowing how to read and write means liberating oneself from shame. I've met three different types of teachers: those who have decided that nothing can be done with people like us; those who thought that something could be done with our children, but not with us, their parents; and those who sought to fight alongside us for the future of our children. The third type is the only ones who gave my daughters any appetite for learning" (ATD Fourth World Research Institute and the Futuribles group, 2002: 3). The question arises: What can be done to make schools, universities and colleges, real "learning organisations" accessible to the most disadvantaged members of society?

Unfortunately in the new South Africa millions of people are not enjoying their full constitutional rights to basic education. Real social and economic change in South Africa will come about as a result of massive efforts to open all educational facilities to benefit all people. Schools, colleges, universities and churches should become places of learning accessible to people of all ages to address the backlog in knowledge and skills. According to Macfarlane (2003) about half of South Africa's adults – 10 million people - have less than nine years of schooling, and three million have no education at all. In his opinion there has been no significant progress in adult literacy since the end of Apartheid. Adult basic education receives less than 1% of the national education budget, and most provincial spending in this area is less than 1% of education funding. Dr Peter Rule (in Macfarlane, 2003: 15), in an examination of adult basic education and training (ABET) argues that most illiterate and semi-literate adults are unemployed or informally employed and literacy campaigns have not worked effectively in South Africa over the past seven years. He emphasised that there is a strong link between poverty and illiteracy, particularly rural poverty. In the words of Rule: "Adult basic education is in a parlous state just at a time in our history when we need to engage all our human resources optimally. This is despite a strong enabling legislative framework for Abet" (Macfarlane, 2003).

The journalist Dikatso Mametse (2003) contributed a valuable article titled "Mastering their own fate". In 1999 a number of women in the rural district Giyani, in the Limpopo Province formed a cooperative. They raised money to send fifteen members on different courses, learning skills in brickmaking, candlemaking and the manufacturing of fruit juices. From this small beginning they branched out and included needlework in their activities. Specializing in African designs brought them business from far and wide. The group of women received training in pottery, silk screening, financial management and strategy planning. They succeeded in exhibiting their products in Portugal. Sarah Masunga, project manager for the cooperative reported the following: "It's not a question of money; it's about acquiring knowledge, having ideas and using

them". They started a adult literacy programme, ranging from classes for people who needed to complete their secondary schooling to basic literacy classes for those who could not read or write. Their first group of nine computer-literate students graduated early in 2003. Masunga described her satisfaction with the outcome: "These are people who could never get into tertiary institutions and get a degree. I can't explain how I felt when they graduated. My philosophy is never to dwell on something you cannot change, just adapt to the situations you find yourself in" (Mametse, 2003: 33). This positive approach and willingness to learn and to create opportunities are crucial for lifting people from despair to a situation where people develop the ability to change their lives.

In a dated but still useful discussion on women, work and literacy, Kerka (1989: 1) mentioned that the literacy levels of children are strongly linked to those of their parents. According to this author the greatest predictor of a child's future academic success is the literacy of the child's mother. As the numbers of families headed by low-literate women increase, the cycle of illiteracy is perpetuated. In her opinion, young women with below average skills and below poverty incomes are five times more likely to become teen parents. This alarming fact has significant implications for the future of any community and broader society. In Kerka's view (1989: 2) linking literacy education to employment and training programmes can contribute significantly to an improvement of a woman's basic skills therefore laying a stronger foundation for increasing her employability. People in need of both literacy and job training face numerous internal and external barriers. Among the internal barriers are low self-esteem, lack of family support for education, powerlessness and guilt about taking time from their families for self-improvement. According to Kerka (1989: 2) external barriers may include:

- Environmental instability (housing, domestic and community violence, health, financial difficulties)
- Need for support services such as child care, transportation, emergency funds, or personal counselling

- Inaccessible or inappropriate services – due to location, schedule, enrolment requirements, inflexible testing methods, or cost;
- Failure to set realistic goals.

Kerka (1989: 3) suggested the following core components for a comprehensive literacy programme coupled with job and work-related skills training:

Table 5: Core components for a comprehensive literacy programme (adapted from Kerka, 1989)

Literacy components	Employability components	Life skills components
Individualized remediation plans	Job readiness	Problem solving
Small groups	Non-traditional skills training	Decision making
Incremental goals	Job skills training	Goal setting Personal and career counselling
Job related reading	Internships	
Student-created materials	On-the-job training	Support services
Computer familiarity	Job search methods	
	Job placement	

Kerka (1989: 4) concluded her discussion by emphasising that low-income, illiterate mothers face problems so overwhelming that they find it extremely difficult to focus on literacy as an isolated goal. Literacy must be one component of a comprehensive strategy that provides support services and employment training, all of which are necessary to enable women to break the cycle of poverty and illiteracy. A number of authors (Lalthapersad-Pillay, 2001; Kiirya, 2001; Lubyayi and Olinga, 2001) agreed on the importance of literacy and education for women in particular, and provided some answers as to the reasons why women with a basic education tend to have fewer children. The reasons range from the fact that women with a basic education may be more aware of family planning options; the exposure to education and learning provided some knowledge about health, hygiene and good nutrition, and therefore more of their children survive. Women with a basic education have a better chance of finding employment outside the home and earn money, and therefore they have more

options in life and may choose to start a family and have fewer, healthier children. According to Swarts (1998: 3) sustainability is at the heart of health promotion. Health literacy empowers people to have choices to live a healthier life. Swarts emphasised that health literacy enables people to participate in many other walks of life, such as the economy, education and politics, all of which affect public health in various ways.

The social work profession needs to actively support an approach where literacy and lifelong learning are core components of an overall strategy to empower poor people. Lifelong learning is critical for any community adjusting to changing social and economic circumstances. Education remains the key to training and developing individuals with skills and knowledge necessary to be part of a workforce, contribute to building society and fully develop as productive citizens. Adult education is an opportunity to provide alternate pathways and build bridges for millions of people unable to access education in the past. In addition to this, it is imperative that economic and social policies are coordinated at national, regional and local levels to overcome inequalities, create jobs, improve the overall quality of life for all people and guarantee sustainable economic growth.

4.5.3 Promoting social capital formation

As previously discussed in chapters two and three of this research report the promotion and creation of social capital is of the utmost importance as part of the sustainable development process.

According to Midgley (1999: 11) proponents of social development are in support of programs that actively promote social capital. Midgley argues that the concept of social capital is still poorly defined, but it is currently being used in civil society analysis to refer to the volume and intensity of cooperative social relationships in communities, in other words to social networks and institutionalised social relationships that promote community integration. (Compare Midgley and Tang,

2001: 249.) Midgley (1996: 21) pointed out that the concept of social capital formation is widely used to refer to the creation of economic and social infrastructure such as roads, bridges, irrigation and drinking water systems, clinics, schools and other facilities. Midgley (1996: 21) stated in this regard: "These community-held assets are important in that they provide the economic and social base on which development efforts depends". Social capital encompasses community relations with the "outside world", including other communities and formal institutions (Narayan, 2002: 368). Narayan (2002: 370) reported that during the World Development Report 2000/2001 "Voices of the Poor" study researchers discovered social capital to be concentrated among the more privileged groups in society, with inequalities favouring those in urban areas over rural areas, men over women, the non-poor over the poor, and the educated over the non-educated. Poor people do have strong connections within villages (bonding social capital), however they have little bridging social capital linking them to other communities or to formal institutions. Midgley and Tang (2001: 249) argued that there is a direct association between the degree of social capital in a community and its economic well-being. It follows from this that communities with low-income, high rates of social disorganisation, crime and violence have low social capital and therefore low levels of economic development. Social development advocates believe that creating social capital and directing it toward local economic development should form an integral part of all community social work practice. (Compare McBroom, 1999: 5.) Lombard (2003: 7) emphasised that within a community the connections between people are important to realise their potential and claim their right to be in charge of their own destinies. What is important is that people grow and develop as human beings to feel a greater sense of worth and personal control, which in turn has a positive impact on the strength and quality of social relationships.

Prigoff (2000: 154) argued that with the increasing breakdown of the traditional systems that have nurtured human growth and development, new nurturing systems will need to be created as intentional communities. In her opinion,

planning and organizing will fall to community self-help groups and community volunteers and dedicated professionals will serve as technical consultants. The main tasks of social workers and health professionals will be to work with communities to assist them in creating local service organizations, to mobilize resources, and to facilitate participation in problem-solving processes. Midgley (1996: 22) agreed with this view and stated in this regard: "But whatever approach is preferred, social workers can make a major contribution to the creation of social capital". Prigoff (2000: 154) emphasised that communities need grassroots organizers and facilitators of community empowerment in order to protect communities from further risk to their quality of life and to assist in obtaining resources needed for community-based economic development. These community-building activities should be directed towards the creation and expansion of productive economic activities. (Compare Midgley and Tang, 2001: 249.)

In Prigoff's opinion (2000: 188) communities can benefit from community self-help groups in the healing and recovery process. Support groups are a potent antidote to rising levels of violence and social disintegration. Social workers can provide technical assistance for the formation and maintenance of self-help groups and for nongovernmental and social action organizations. A very important aspect of grassroots networks is that they facilitate mutual support and empower people by giving them recognition and opportunities for leadership. Prigoff (2000: 189) discussed the importance of community self-help and mutual aid as a way of achieving economic survival and the operation of a social safety net. In this author's opinion community economic development builds local economic security and a more equitable, stable, sustainable global economic system. Midgley and Tang (2001: 249) supported the view of Prigoff and argued that the development of social capital requires investments in programmes that mobilise local people around a variety of local economic development initiatives. These authors emphasised that better links should be established with local

planners and economic development agencies, and local job-referral systems should be promoted.

Prigoff (2000: 191) in a discussion of coalition building, stated that if a task is too demanding to be accomplished by a single group, coalition building should be considered. This author listed key allies in community-based coalitions as consisting of members of local grassroots organizations (GROs), especially parents' groups and neighbourhoods associations; local school and social service personnel; local small business and trade union representatives; members of women's groups, church groups, civic organizations, environmental advocates; local politicians and agency administrators; academics and other health and legal professionals; seniors and physically challenged persons – "the full gamut of civic-minded individuals who care about the future of a community".

Although the emphasis in the above discussion falls on the local community and stresses the importance of local enterprises and initiatives, social problems affect all members of a community and in fact all people in a society, and therefore addressing these issues will benefit society as a whole. Within the South African context it is more important than ever for social workers to be at the forefront of addressing the burning issues in a society that is still very much an abnormal society. The social work profession needs to develop relevant solutions to current economic and social obstacles. It is fair to say that a change in outlook, in perspective, and a fundamental shift in the quality of thinking is required.

4.5.4   Developing individual and community assets

"Teaching people to fish may fill their plates for longer than simply giving them
a fish, but the real issue today is who owns the pond"
(Lean 1995: 154).

According to Midgley (1999: 12) there has been a growing interest in recent years in the role of asset development in social welfare. An asset development approach generates the material resources people need to escape poverty. It also changes attitudes and behaviour so that participants gain confidence and a determination to be successful. Midgely and Tang (2001: 249) wrote that the idea that poor people should not only be encouraged to save but given incentives to do so has been popularised in recent times through the asset development approach. Poor people are actively encouraged to save by depositing their savings into accounts called "Individual Development Accounts" (IDAs). Governments or voluntary agencies match the amounts deposited and in this way people are encouraged to save. Accumulations may be withdrawn for socially approved purposes such as education or housing. Advocates of this approach are of the opinion that asset development programmes are more effective than traditional income maintenance services that maintain poor people at a subsistence level and do not promote self-sufficiency. Advocates of this approach believe that through this method poor people change their attitudes, values and work habits and become more self-reliant.

Prigoff (2000: 216) wrote that while the advantage of available financial resources for the upliftment of an area in economic decline cannot be denied, it is critical for the renewal of social cohesion in a poor urban or rural neighbourhood that the strengths and capabilities of community members be recognized in any assessment of community assets. The contributions of nature and unpaid human labour are vital aspects of the true wealth of nations or communities. They are the foundations of reciprocal economies, immensely valuable and productive assets for the accomplishments of many tasks of community reconstruction. "Asset building" may be defined to include all a community's potential resources. This means that not only financial holdings are taken into account but also the talents and skills of community members. When a community lacks basic amenities – housing, sewerage, drainage, communications, electricity, running water, proper roads and transport, schools and hospitals, it is crucial to address

this issue. A clear example of this is that proper roads and transport facilities are needed to enable people to attend an education facility or visit a health clinic or deliver a child to a pre-school. These amenities are crucial components to build upon creating not only financial assets but also human capital in the form of skills development and training (Gannon, Gwilliam, Liu and Malmberg Calco, 2001: 1). Community assets therefore contribute to the creation and sustainability of individual assets.

Quality of life depends on opportunities to be part of a society. This is not possible when communities and individuals are locked in poverty, unemployment and illiteracy. Real empowerment and capacity building come from active participation in the economic, social and political life of any given society. Without individual and community assets, this is not possible. Besthorn (2003: 88) contributed a valuable perspective in this regard when he stated the following: "...and, social work must also begin to stand together with other professionals, community associations, grassroots organizations and global advocacy groups to facilitate collective empowerment – to assist marginalized peoples everywhere to gain access to needed change that refosters commitment to the health and wellbeing of human communities and ecological systems".

According to Prigoff (2000: 216), John McKnight and John Kretzmann were the leaders in the field of "Asset Mapping". Concepts and asset mapping techniques are valuable tools for the implementation of a strengths perspective. It is of equal importance as an approach to social work practice. In the United States, like in many other parts of the world, plant closings, corporate downsizing and the drastic reduction of industrial and construction jobs devastated many communities (Rifkin in Prigoff, 2000: 6). The asset mapping approach focuses on assessment of community capabilities and resources. This is an approach where low-income areas are not seen exclusively in terms of the social and economic problems and difficulties, but the asset mapping approach facilitates the development of strategies to build on the strengths within the community. In the

277

words of McKnight and Kretzmann (in Prigoff, 2000: 217): "The process of identifying capacities and assets, both individual and organizational, is the first step on the path toward community regeneration. Once this new "map" has replaced the one containing needs and deficiencies, the regenerating community can begin to assemble its assets and capacities into new combinations, new structures of opportunity, new sources of income and control, and new possibilities for production".

Prigoff (2000: 217) stipulated that the primary building blocks for the rebuilding of neighbourhoods are the individual and organizational strengths within a specific community, which included the following elements:

- Individual Assets
    - Skills, talents and experiences of community members
    - Individual businesses
    - Home-based enterprises
    - Personal income
    - Gifts of identified people

- Organizational Assets
    - Associations of businesses
    - Citizen associations
    - Cultural organizations
    - Community organizations
    - Religious organizations

According to Prigoff (2000: 217) the secondary building blocks are assets located within the community but largely controlled by outsiders. Secondary building blocks are private, public and physical assets, which can be used for community-building purposes:

- Private and Non-Profit Organizations
    - Higher education institutions

- - Hospitals
  - Social service agencies

  - Public Institutions and Services
    - Public schools
    - Police
    - Libraries
    - Fire departments
    - Parks

  - Physical resources
    - Energy and waste resources
    - Vacant land, commercial and industrial structures, housing

McKnight and Kretzmann (in Prigoff, 2000: 218) urged that in any given community an existing organization should be found to lead the community-building process by facilitating the community involvement and by building bridges to outside resources. In their opinion social workers should take up this task. McKnight and Kretzmann (in Prigoff, 2000: 218) further stated the following in this regard: "It is clear that no low-income community can "go it alone." Indeed, every neighborhood is connected to the outside society and economy. It is a mark of many low-income neighborhoods that they are uniquely dependent on outside human service systems. What they need, however, is to develop their assets and become interdependent with mainstream people, groups, and economic activity".

Nader (in Prigoff, 2000: 218) commented that nations might be considered to have two economies. In his words: "The market economy, which the economists all analyze, and the household economy of family, neighborhood and community... Many of the serious problems our society faces come from the erosion of the second economy." Prigoff (2000: 218) concurred and in her

opinion the family economy, also known as the reciprocal economy, is not acknowledged as a source of value in the accounting systems utilized in the field of economics. The assets of the family are the foundations of the family or reciprocal economy and are extremely important sources of the kinds of investments that improve communities. Where there is a deterioration of the social fabric in a community, it often is as a result of the losses of the family assets.

According to Prigoff (2000: 188) communities can be rebuilt by "creating centers of alternative, life-sustaining culture". In her opinion such centers can rebuild a local self-sufficiency. When communities are able to control their own land and protect it from destructive development, produce much of their own food and housing, care for and educate their own children, organize local transportation and health care, and negotiate contracts for water and electricity, it is the beginning of self-reliance that is sustainable. In the words of Prigoff (2000: 188): "Organization is the essence of survival and recovery in this historic era. Self-help recovery programs and a wide range of social services will be in demand".

4.5.5 Expanding job training and placement to include the disabled, the mentally ill and substance abusers

Poverty, unemployment and disability are closely linked and have a detrimental impact on the level of inclusion in society and its overall development. In this respect Turmusani provided an important contribution in summarizing the links between poverty and disability. In the words of Turmusani (2003: 1): "Poverty leads to disability resulting in diseases and impairments. Equally true, disability leads to poverty in the sense that those with impairments will engender extra cost of living related to their specific needs". Poverty, like other consequences of discrimination within a society, restricts disabled people's rights and undermines their ability to fulfil their personal and social responsibilities. Poverty is not always the cause of disability but the symptom and the outcome of a disabling society,

by way of social exclusion and unemployment. The draft rural development strategy of the World Bank (2002) (in Turmusani, 2003: 2) recognized poverty as a factor causing ill health and disability especially in rural areas. It is clear that poverty affects people's health and can be the cause of an impairment and disability. Turmusani (2003: 2) referred to the data supplied by UNESCO (1995) and UNICEF (1998) where the relationship is shown between poverty and malnutrition, i.e. there are 100 million people globally with impairments caused by malnutrition and 200,000 children become blind every year as a result of Vitamin A deficiency. Iodine deficiency, which causes mental retardation, is widespread in rural areas of Jordan. In addition, weakened bodies can be prone to diseases, which in turn can lead to more impairment. This kind of deprivation is the everyday experience of millions of people in many developing countries.

Turmusani (2003: 1) emphasized that poverty alleviation is a key solution in preventing disability directly and indirectly, especially in countries with low resources such as in developing world where there is often very little in the form of welfare provision to cater for the needs of disadvantaged groups including those with impairments. Various measures can be considered as strategies in fighting widespread poverty amongst disabled people. This primarily includes different kinds of remunerated employment schemes as well as policies, legislation and welfare provisions. Turmusani mentioned that all these strategies together may facilitate the creation of an inclusive society, which allows disabled people to develop their economic potential and thereby enhancing their independent life. Unfortunately, although there is a growing awareness of the contribution disabled people make to life in a society, too often development plans do not include their interests with regard to education, training and employment. Turmusani (2003: 3) stated that because disabled people are seen as unable to contribute to the economy due to their functional limitations, they are being excluded from the market place and therefore suffer social and economic deprivation. This situation can be rectified by the provision of vocational training, placement services, and informing the disabled about the availability of aid. This

281

author (Turmusani, 2003: 9) suggested various economic strategies to assist the disabled:

- Self-employment: the development of a small business would involve training disabled people in small business development in order to plan their income generation activities in a structured, disciplined way; to assist disabled people in setting up their own income-generating activities, it is necessary for governments and non-governmental organisations to introduce loan and micro-credit mechanisms.

- Direct job placement: this involves helping disabled people find a suitable job opportunity and is most suitable for people who have vocational skills and experience in the form of technical or administrative skills.

Fadila Lagadien, a disability rights movement activist argues passionately for the rights of disabled people in the labour market. In her own words she states her case as follows: "My MBA dissertation is going to be to build a business case for the employment of disabled people. It's not about charity, it's not about social responsibility, it's not about doing us a favour. It's showing businesses you can make more money if you employ disabled people. I don't want them to see it as their social responsibility, because then we never gonna advance. We might enter into the workplace, but we will never advance" (Rowland, 2003: 16).

Overcoming the problems of disabled people has to be addressed through two main types of action. The first is the improvement of the quality of training. The development of new employment skills and qualifications are extremely important. The second type of action includes job creation, in particular through new partnerships with all sectors of the labour market to ensure equal opportunities for suitably qualified disabled people. Self-employment schemes can be an important mechanism in fighting poverty among disabled people.

Individuals with developmental and physical disabilities can face enormous challenges. People with physical or learning disabilities have not only to deal with

a disability but the social and environmental barriers, which can prevent them from playing a full part in the economy. Unemployment, underemployment and exploitation and low pay are very often still the norm for disabled people and are changing too slowly. A valid argument is that employers have miscalculated the value of disabled workers. Another point of view is that disabled workers are an untapped source of labour. The organisation "Creative Research Education and Training Enterprise South Africa" (CREATE SA) ([sa]: 1) argued that in many ways the negative representations of disability have become more disabling than disability itself. CREATE SA stated in this regard: "For a long time, South African media and advertising agencies have perpetuated the stereotyping of disabled people, in the process fuelling prejudices and myths regarding disability that have resulted in the exclusion of some of the most gifted people from contributing to the necessary process of nation-building". Negative perceptions of disabled people, based on fear, ignorance and denial can only harm the participation of disabled people as citizens and community members.

According to Thornton and Lunt (1998: 1) the last two decades have seen disability issues occupy an increasingly prominent place on the policy agenda. This included particular policy arenas – education, health, and housing, transport – as well as discussions around anti-discrimination and human rights legislation that embrace disability on a number of fronts. These authors stated that in recent years employment opportunities for disabled people have been elevated as a matter of policy concern. Work opportunities are perceived as central to an individual's self-worth and are crucial in ensuring a person has sufficient income to participate within the wider society. In policy terms, securing appropriate employment for disabled people has become less of a welfare and health issue and more of a labour market concern. In South Africa unemployment for the able bodied and the disabled population has become a dire reality. Finding jobs for the disabled in a country where all those employed in the industrial and service sectors are facing problems, is naturally not easy.

Thornton and Lunt (1998: 4) pointed out that deinstitutionalisation and changing conceptions of work present new challenges. Individuals with learning or psychiatric disabilities often had services provided through sheltered employment workshops with the focus on manufacturing tasks. These authors stated that this type of work is disappearing and are only found to be well organised in a few countries, for example Sweden, Netherlands, Germany and France.

Thornton and Lunt (1998: 4) stated that supported employment is defined as competitive, employer-paid work and continuing on-the-job support to those that needed it to maintain employment. It was initially developed in the United States of America and followed in Canada, Australia and the United Kingdom. Supported employment initiatives are also proliferating across the European Union. These authors emphasised that there is no single model of supported employment and often, different approaches operate side-by-side.

For many years social workers have served as rehabilitation workers, medical social workers, or case managers working with disabled clients to provide support and assist them to access resources and lead if possible more productive lives. The social work profession does offer community support services for people with persistent mental illness and disability. Services include: supported housing, vocational training and job placement, case management, assessment and treatment planning, crisis intervention, counselling, and development of interpersonal and life skills.

Midgley and Tang, (2001: 249) wrote that employment programmes also involve job creation, particularly for those who cannot cope in the open labour market. Sheltered employment facilities or special arrangements with employers have been effectively used in the past. Although these programmes are expensive and often operate at a loss, it is possible to make them profitable. Also, they have a positive impact on the self-esteem and work habits of clients. In addition, increasing use has been made of public-sector employment opportunities, and

recipients have also been assigned to work in various service programmes in exchange for income benefits.

Midgley (1996: 23) wrote that cooperative ventures are particularly well suited to special-needs clients such as the mentally ill or the physically disabled who derive strength from working in a mutually supportive environment. Job opportunities for substance abusers are particularly difficult. Chemical dependency is a diagnosable and treatable disease that affects not only the patient but also family members. Substance abuse, treatment and prevention programs have been the domains of social workers for many years. Social isolation, loss of self-esteem and dependence on family members are real issues in the lives of substance abusers.

Cannon (2000: 3) described the excellent work done by the entrepreneurial nonprofit organization called "Pioneer Human Services" in Seattle, Washington, United States of America. Since the early 1960s the organization has been providing the needy with training, employment counseling and most important, jobs in Pioneer's machine shops and other businesses. The organization was originally formed to assist former prisoners in finding job opportunities after release from prison. It now serves some 6000 clients/customers a year on a budget of $55 million. Its 10 business enterprises include a stylish cafe, two manufacturing plants, one of which produces cargo bays for the company Boeing. Pioneer has some 1000 people on its payroll, most of them ex-offenders or people with alcohol and drug problems. The President and Chief Executive Officer Mike Burns described their approach as follows: "We have a double bottom line. First, we run a surplus each year, which is important. And there's our mission, which is to give a second chance to people who are on the margins of society, usually ex-offenders or those with chemical addiction problems who are in recovery. We give them this second chance by offering housing, counselling, jobs and training".

Social workers in partnership with other disciplines, i.e. the medical profession, occupational therapy and psychology are in a position to play a supportive role in encouraging substance abusers to enter and re-enter the labour market. Working together as a multi-disciplinary team they could broaden and increase the job placements and locations for substance abusers and disabled people.

In summary it is fair to say that an overall objective should be to enhance the economic participation of the disabled and in every way possible support their access to training and to constructive, well paid job opportunities. Disability concerns should be incorporated into macro, socio-economic planning processes to ensure that disabled people's rights are taken into account.

4.5.6 Facilitating economic participation through productive employment, self-employment and the creation of cooperatives

The economic reality of the world has forced many governments, non-governmental organisations and social service providers to reconsider their role in development. Social workers can be instrumental in change and development by acting as partners, catalysts and facilitators in securing an improved economic environment for disadvantaged people.

Job opportunities and income-generating activities are extremely important for human productivity and self-esteem. The loss of job opportunities in commerce and industry has severely complicated the task of the social worker in assisting individuals and communities to better their own lives. In 1996 Jeremy Rifkin, author of "The End of Work" wrote that global unemployment has reached its highest level since the depression of the 1930s. Based on 1994 data more than 800 million people were unemployed or underemployed. In his own words: "That figure is likely to rise sharply between now and the turn of the century as millions of new entrants into the workforce find themselves without jobs, many victims of a technology revolution that is fast replacing human beings with machines in

virtually every sector and industry in the global economy...Already, millions of workers have been permanently eliminated form the economic process, and whole job categories have shrunk, been restructured, or disappeared" (in Prigoff, 2000: 5). Lombard (2003: 2) provided an important contribution in offering a perspective as to the reasons for the emergence of more entrepreneurs in the current socio-economic climate: "With retrenchment packages and corporate downsizing being facts of life, many entrepreneurs find themselves thrust into the role by default. Money from retrenchment packages is often used to start entrepreneurial activities. However, it is not those who lost their jobs that find themselves in the entrepreneur role by default. In Africa, specifically, there are socially excluded people who have no jobs or income because they simply have no access to job opportunities. These too, are entrepreneurs by default since they simply have no other choice but to find a way to make ends meet".

Social workers need to acknowledge the economic realities of the new century and invest their time and knowledge in creative thinking and networking for strategies to deal with growing unemployment and the social costs of poverty.

Narayan (2002: 249), in a discussion of institutional innovations to support micro and small enterprises, stated that many governments of developing countries perceived micro, small, and medium enterprises (SMMEs) as engines of employment, poverty alleviation, and broad-based economic growth. Growth and development of SMEs in developing countries can increase poor people's opportunities, security, and empowerment. (Compare Mupedziswa, 1996: 52.)
According to McBroom (1999: 5) one of the pillars of Midgley's "seven-point plan" for social investment is to encourage people to become self-employed by creating a micro-enterprise. This implies that the social worker could assist the client in obtaining a micro-enterprise loan, or support the person in becoming part of establishing a cooperative. Lombard (2003: 3) referred to the fact that often people do have the potential to become entrepreneurs, but do not have access to credit, knowledge and skills to put an entrepreneurial idea into action. (Compare

Raheim, 1996: 79.) Raheim (1996: 69) pointed out that micro-enterprise development among social work clients forms an important element in new thinking about social welfare. In her opinion, micro-enterprises created opportunities for clients to engage in productive self-employment which will restore self-respect, facilitate self-reliance and above all transform a condition of dependency to one of self-sufficiency in which clients no longer consume scarce public resources but instead contribute positively to their own and the community's well-being.

Midgley (1996: 22), drawing on his previous work (1984; 1989), stated that social workers have accumulated a good deal of experience in this field and many Third World countries have used social workers to assist special needs clients to participate in vocational educational programmes to find employment.

Social programs can contribute to economic development by assisting low-income people and welfare clients to find productive employment or self-employment. Rather than using scarce resources to maintain needy people on income transfers, the social development approach favours programs that help them to find employment or become self-employed. In this way, they not only earn money but also become self-respecting citizens who work, pay taxes and contribute to economic development. It is estimated that more than 500 million poor people worldwide operate profitable micro- and small enterprises, yet less than four percent receive financial services from sources other than moneylenders or friends and family.

Prigoff (2000: 195) emphasized that in the past, community development as addressed by social workers had focused primarily on the social and health needs of communities. In this author's opinion the recent decline of public commitment to the funding of social services in the United States of America, made it clear that community organizations in areas confronting reduced resources will need to develop income-generating projects in addition to the more

traditional forms of community service. Economic security is a priority need in every community. In Prigoff's opinion (2000: 201) social workers need to understand the critical role of economic assets in the physical and mental health of individuals, families, and communities with whom they engage. The involvement of the social worker in the economic development of a community and its members needs to be actively promoted. One aspect of community economic development would be to examine needs and goals, strengths and capabilities, and developing plans to turn potential assets into realistic sources of dependable support. Self-sufficiency for the family and the local neighbourhood are important economic goals. Pantoja and Perry (in Prigoff, 2000: 200) have extensive experience in community economic development in Puerto Rico. Their contribution to the discussion is extremely valuable: "Social work professionals, on the front line of community work, have to become knowledgeable about the economic processes that convert natural and human resources into the goods and services that can create business development and employment opportunities, equity capital funds, and physical infrastructure development. Although we may not be able to do all the work needed, we remain a profession vital to the processes of development, and the challenge is before us". Prigoff (2000: 200) emphasised that skills in program administration, training and supervision prepare social workers to function as managers, and therefore helping communities mobilize to achieve their own goals. There are a number of important tasks where the knowledge and skills of the social worker can be valuable. Social workers can facilitate the planning process for decisions on production schedules, production methods, and marketing campaigns; they can establish accounting procedures to measure anticipated revenues against fixed and variable costs and to generate wages and profits for the project; and, they can also contribute to community economic development as technicians and consultants.

From an entrepreneurial point of view, the challenge for community members who want to develop an income-generating project is to envision and then

develop a product or service that meets unmet needs of present and future populations (Prigoff, 2000: 209). All income-generating opportunities need to be considered by and for members of a community that does not produce sufficient income. In Prigoff's opinion (2000: 222) adults and young people without income-generating roles are at risk of becoming marginalised and abandoned unless networks of mutual exchange, which are features of a reciprocal economy, are activated and well established. Lombard (2003: 5) emphasised that the entrepreneurial route of community economic development is not only restricted to income generation, but it is also about developing people and their environment, alleviating poverty and thus creating improved circumstances for all involved.

The motivation for social workers to become involved with income-generating activities is obvious. The implications for human development because of an absence of food, shelter and other life-sustaining resources are extremely negative. Economic needs are essential to human existence. Economic participation via employment is also important because of the social value attached to "making your own way". Social workers are in a position to facilitate processes of participatory problem-solving, through planning and action. Social workers could assist the entrepreneur in marketing his or her merchandise, analyse the position of competition in a particular area and support the entrepreneur with maintaining a balanced approach to the business. Health and safety aspects of any new entrepreneurial venture are important for the individual concerned as well as for the community where the business is situated.

Livermore (in Prigoff, 2000: 222) provided a valuable perspective on the contribution that social workers could make to the promotion and development of micro-enterprises as a social development strategy. In the words of Livermore: "Social workers are uniquely placed to assist in micro-enterprise development programs targeted at low-income people because the profession has extensive experience of serving impoverished populations and the skills required to

implement the components of these initiatives....On the psychological level, social work assessment skills are invaluable in assisting client and program staff to identify assets and limitations to successful functioning in a business environment. Once a clear assessment is made, social workers can act as case managers, assisting clients to utilize their strengths and remediating their weaknesses by fostering the development of goals and plans of action.... Although economic development is foreign to many social workers, the profession has a number of skills that can also contribute to this task. In the initial effort to begin a micro-enterprise development program, for instance, social workers can be used to advocate for legislation favourable to the operation of such businesses.... Another role for social workers during the preliminary stages of program development could involve building relationships with financial institutions so that they are aware of the program and more disposed to provide financing". It is clear from the discussion that social workers can adopt a number of roles to assist clients in participating in the labour market as well as initiating their own income-generating ventures.

Authors like Livermore, Midgley and Prigoff emphasised that micro-enterprise development is not the sole solution to the dilemma of poverty, but it can serve as a component of a strategy to promote social development within the context of economic development efforts to better the lives of all people in a community. Raheim (1996: 80) supported this view and stated in this regard: "The idea that micro-enterprises offer a panacea for poverty and deprivation must be dispelled. Indeed, social workers need to emphasize that extensive social supports are needed to improve the well-being of the poor through micro-enterprise development". Sanders (2001: 2) concurred with this perspective and added to the discussion by stating the following: "This is not to say that micro-enterprise may not play a vital role in community development initiatives. However, the role should be carefully examined. Additionally, income gained through self-employment may play a critical role in the income package of poor families. Faced with limited economic opportunity and poor job prospects, poor families

291

commonly combine multiple sources of income to make ends meet". It is important that the development of micro-enterprises form part of an overall economic development package.

Nancy Rose is another social worker calling for more content on economics in social work education. Together with Prigoff their reasons were the following: "..analysis of the implications of economic globalization and recognition that few social workers possess even a rudimentary knowledge of economics.." (Prigoff, 2000: 256-257). Prigoff emphasized that many social workers have contributed to the profession's readiness to shift towards reframing the professional role as that of a helping agent, including a focus on economic development. In her opinion there is growing awareness that the traditional focus on interpersonal issues in work with clients is not necessarily the client's priority when there is a lack or total absence of basic requirements to keep a family fed, safe and warm. In the United States a change in the social work curriculum occurred after federal legislation replaced the entitlement program of Assistance of Families with Dependent Children with Temporary Assistance to Needy Families. Social workers are now expected to help families and communities mobilize and develop their own economic resources (Prigoff, 2000: 258 and Macarov, 1991: 112).

In Prigoff's opinion (2000: 76) social work education in social policy has sometimes failed to prepare students to understand the rather decisive differences between different political perspectives within societies and which differentiate the goals and agendas of political opponents. The study of interest groups, the resources available to them, goals, and objectives, and the outcomes of their political struggles can provide answers to questions about who benefits from policies and who loses.

Prigoff (2000: 223) stated that, based on the values, concepts and training of their profession, social workers are uniquely prepared to organize and facilitate the renewal of a reciprocal economy and to mobilize financial resources to

strengthen that endeavour through creation of new collaborative community-business partnerships with high standards of ethical conduct. In her opinion social workers function well as partners with communities in projects of economic development because they invest their time, energy, and creative thinking in the tasks required to protect and to promote healthy life.

Mupedziswa (1996: 52) added a very important dimension to the debate on the establishment of income-generating activities with regard to people living with AIDS and HIV. According to this author, in Zimbabwe emphasis is placed on removing people infected with the HIV virus from hospital settings into their homes, and promoting the home-based care of such patients. He emphasised that often people with HIV lose their jobs, not only because they are too weak to work but because of prejudice. Social workers have played a significant role in helping these people start income-generating projects, which enable them to be self-reliant.

According to a World Bank research report HIV/AIDS causes far greater long-term damage to national economies than previously assumed. (Compare Beresford, 2001: 1 and Fourie and Schönteich, 2002: 17.) The disease is robbing the children of AIDS victims of one or both parents to love, raise and educate them, and so undermines the basis of economic growth over the long haul. The suggestion is made in this report that a country like South Africa could face progressive economic collapse within several generations unless it combats its AIDS epidemic more urgently (World Bank Group, 2003: 1). According to the report "The Long-run Economic Costs of AIDS: Theory and an Application to South Africa" most studies of the macroeconomic costs of AIDS, do not pay enough attention to the way in which human knowledge and potential are created and can be eroded. Shanta Devarajan, co-author of the abovementioned report and Chief Economist of the World Bank's Human Development Network, stated in this regard: "Previous estimates overlooked the impact of HIV/AIDS on children if one or both parents die, how they suddenly become orphans, how they

293

become vulnerable to dropping out of school, and how in this way, the disease weakens the ability of today's generation to pass on skills and knowledge to the next" (World Bank Group, 2003: 1). Kofi Annan (2002: 1) agreed with this sentiment and stated in this regard: "But today, as AIDS is eroding the health of Africa's women, it is eroding the skills, experience and networks that keep families and communities going. Even before falling ill, a woman will often have to care for a sick husband, thereby reducing the time she can devote to planting, harvesting and marketing crops. When her husband dies, she is often deprived of credit, distribution networks or land rights. When she dies, the household will risk collapsing completely, leaving children to fend for themselves. The older ones, especially girls, will be taken out of school to work in the home or the farm. These girls, deprived of education and opportunities, will be even less able to protect themselves against AIDS".

The implications of the HIV/AIDS pandemic for the process of sustainable development and in particular for economic development are far-reaching. The South African Regional Poverty Network (SARPN) and the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) (2002: 1) added to this debate and described HIV infection levels in Southern Africa as the highest in the world. In Sub-Saharan Africa, HIV infection levels in the young adult population are in the region of 20%. The SARPN and the HSRC further emphasized that in Southern Africa, the rates of infection are considerably higher. One in three adults in Botswana and one in four adults in Zimbabwe and Swaziland are believed to be HIV positive, while one in five adults are infected in South Africa, Lesotho, Namibia and Zambia. AIDS is now increasingly the main cause of death of people between the age of 15 and 45 in these countries. According to the SARPN and the HSRC (2002: 2) virtually half of the populations in all southern African states are under the age of 18. Infant mortality, malnutrition and poverty indicators in countries such as Angola, Mozambique and Malawi are some of the highest in the world. These two organizations (2002: 2) further stated that the high levels of rural and urban poverty in these countries would be exacerbated by sharply rising adult mortality

294

and a declining capacity of the state to provide social services. In many countries already burdened by huge socio-economic challenges, AIDS/HIV threatens human well-being, developmental progress and social stability. Fourie and Schönteich (2001: 4) echoed this sentiment and emphasized that the HIV/AIDS pandemic destabilizes societies in profound ways. (Compare Beresford, 2001: 1-4.) According to Loewenson and Whiteside (1997: 40) HIV/AIDS will have a severe impact on social development, organisation and culture. The negative impact will include losses of key people at household and organisational level who play important roles in those organisations (parents in socialisation of children, elected leaders, people with experience) while placing increasing stress on survivors. Loewenson and Whiteside (1997: 41) and Fourie and Schönteich (2001: 4) emphasised that stresses in social systems in areas such as education and health can undermine social development at all levels and may have a strong negative impact for the future. These authors argued that economic stress has in itself created marital instability and domestic violence and undermined social cohesion.

The importance of job creation by means of micro- and small enterprises by, and for families living with HIV/AIDS cannot be overstated. This approach can provide valuable learning opportunities for the children of families facing this kind of crisis. An example of an organisation directing their time and efforts in this way is the Topsy Foundation. The Topsy Foundation in South Africa is a private and corporative initiative with its core response being to provide a multifaceted approach to HIV/AIDS. It has a holistic approach to fighting the AIDS pandemic. The Foundation has secured a large property in Grootvlei, Mpumalanga (South Africa) as the first Topsy Sanctuary. The Foundation grows its own vegetables on the land adjacent to the Sanctuary. Vegetables and fruit are for the consumption of those at the Sanctuary and also for the surrounding communities as supported by their various outreach programmes. The area surrounding the Sanctuary is a traditionally poor area. Compounded by the fact that work is scarce, the disease prevents people from gaining access to employment when opportunities are

available. When a person affected has progressed to full-blown AIDS, looking after their immediate families in terms of food and basic health care becomes challenging. The home-based care workers provide food to those in need, ensuring that those most vulnerable are able to build up their strength and resistance to other opportunistic infections through proper nutrition. Providing food also alleviate the burden of worry with regard to children being fed.

The Topsy Foundation promotes an economic approach to caring for people living with AIDS and this includes a series of training programmes, designed to help alleviate poverty and increase skills development and education. These projects have also been designed to assist the Topsy Foundation to become self-sustainable. Skills training workshops at the Topsy Sanctuary include pottery, glassware, ceramics, candle making, beadwork, and sewing. Commercial capacity brick-making machines, as well as thousands of tons of crusher dust, the raw materials required to make the bricks, have been donated to the Topsy Foundation. Bricks of a high quality are currently being made and contracts for the manufacturing of over 3,5 million bricks have been secured by the Foundation. The bricks are used in the development of low-cost housing schemes in the area, providing a steady income for the Foundation. The men involved in this initiative hail from the local community and gain valuable marketable skills as well as having an income. The Food Gardens Foundation in partnership with The Topsy Foundation has provided training to families in order to empower them to start their own vegetable garden to supplement their nutritional needs. The Topsy Foundation, through its innovative and creative approach, has secured a safe haven for those living with AIDS and HIV, as well as establishing a sound economic enterprise (The Topsy Foundation document, 2003).

Bell (in World Bank Group, 2003: 2) made a valuable contribution in this regard and stated the following: "Keeping infected people alive and well, especially parents, so they can continue to live productive lives and take care of the next generation, is not only the compassionate thing to do, but it is also vital for a

country's long-term economic future". Kofi Annan (2002:2) supported this viewpoint and in his opinion large-scale, innovative ways are required to care for families with specific measures that enable children in AIDS-affected communities to stay in school. He stated emphatically that education and prevention are still the most powerful weapons against the spread of HIV/AIDS.

From the above discussion it is evident that social workers will need to be open-minded regarding the different options for clients in creating income-generating opportunities. Social workers will need to be more actively involved in the protection and promotion of poor people's rights and interests in all aspects of daily existence and respond appropriately to the ever-changing context that they are working in.

4.5.7 Removing barriers to economic participation

Economic empowerment is critical for poor people's well-being. Freedom from hunger, adequate income, and security of material assets are central issues in poor people's lives. Poverty and vulnerability will not be reduced without broad-based growth fuelled by private sector activity. Economic growth cannot be sustained if poor women and men, who may be 50 percent or more of a country's population, are excluded from optimal engagement in productive activities. Involvement of such large numbers of poor people in more productive livelihoods can only happen when a country's overall domestic investment fosters entrepreneurship, job creation, competition, and security of property or benefit rights. When a person's opportunity for employment is compromised as a result of discrimination, unfair hiring practices, or labour law violations, workers are often powerless to oppose the system. Their inability to protect their rights is often due to a lack of language skills, a low level of education and a lack of resources. These are reasons for social workers to be involved in advocating for better bargaining positions for their clients.

In Narayan's opinion (2002: 78) understanding the investment climate for micro, small, and medium enterprises is a central part of poverty reduction strategies. It is true that while the overall business climate for investment is important, micro and small enterprises face constraints and exclusion that are not automatically corrected by improvements in the macro investment climate. There is a need for "liberalization from below." Poor people are often excluded from equal access to economic opportunity, because of regulations, because they lack information, connections, skills, credit, and organization, and because of discrimination. (Narayan, 2002: 50). The barriers that prevent poor people from entering new markets need to be addressed by various stakeholders, the social worker being one that has a significant stake in this.

Understanding the business investment climate for farmers, micro-entrepreneurs, and the small and medium business is all important to inform policy change that supports economic development, and therefore increases productivity, security and empowerment. According to Narayan (2002: 52) in many developing countries, poor people work primarily in the informal sector. They manage to scrape together an existence by surviving through a patchwork of economic activities or employed by small and medium enterprises (SMMEs). The informal sector is responsible for 83 percent of new jobs in Latin America and the Caribbean and 93 percent of new jobs in Africa. In Durban, South Africa, 60 percent of the estimated 20,000 street vendors are women. (Compare Narayan, 2002: 55.) Micro, small, and medium enterprises often lack information from two sides: in information regarding their own access to markets and business-related information; secondly, a lack of information as providers of services to poor people. Narayan (2002: 52) further emphasised that the informational costs of isolation and low volume could be reduced through the formation of groups, associations, business clusters, and franchising.

Regulations, corruption, and complicated business licensing and property registration procedures limit and add costs to poor people's entrepreneurial

activity. Poor people with limited information, contacts, and cash are the least able to pursue property or business registration, or buy protection. They remain excluded or vulnerable to high levels of exploitation and harassment.

Narayan (2002: 55) suggested various ways of improving market access of the poor:

- Diagnose and discuss overall domestic investment climate through surveys, including poor people's micro-entrepreneurial activities.
- Understand the constraints felt by poor entrepreneurs and their associations and networks.
- Understand the constraints felt by private providers in targeting the poor.
- Identify strategies for overcoming disadvantages of small size and distance from formal institutions.
- Promote dialogue between poor people's organizations, government officials and policymakers, and the private sector to initiate pro-poor regulatory change and encourage innovation in the private sector.
- Provide graduated subsidies to broker new linkages between poor people and their organizations, on the one hand, and markets and formal financial systems, on the other hand, with provision primarily by private sector actors.
- Consider ways of increasing poor people's access to information technology.

Narayan (2002: 57 and 78) also proposed certain key steps to overcome the barriers of small size and the isolation of micro-entrepreneurs, namely:

- Clarify property rights
- Strengthen membership-based groups, organizations, and networks of poor people: one of the most important and most overlooked development assets is the capacity of poor people to mobilize and organize for collective action. Membership-based organizations and networks of poor people have emerged in many places in response to the common needs of specific groups: rural producers, home-based workers, slum dwellers,

indigenous people, and landless workers. Poor people's organizations have the potential to play important roles in improving and expanding access to markets and opportunities.

- Educate and link groups with formal financial systems and service providers
- Support the creation of business clusters: In order to better compete in the marketplace, micro-enterprises in the same or related industries can form business collectives. Partnerships among businesses in geographic proximity are called "clusters", while businesses that team up to work on a joint development objective are called "networks." The term "networking" characterizes the overall process of building business relationships, whether through clusters or networks. Partnerships can reduce costs for individual enterprises when for example raw materials are purchased.
- Use information technology to connect people to each other and to markets
- Support changes in regulatory framework to encourage the sector to provide services to the poor
- Create incentives for the private sector to develop new products and organizations to "downscale" services; upgrade semiformal institutions and create new microfinance institutions; and franchise services and innovate to reach large producer organizations.

Prigoff (2000: 251) emphasised that social workers do understand that low-income individuals and families need constant care in order to be contributing members of society. In Prigoff's own words (2000: 252): "But they, along with the middle-income recipients of dismissal notices do need genuine opportunities to be productive, and that often means that they require training and education, childcare, affordable housing, transportation, youth programs, health insurance, realistic job placement, and a living wage". Macarov (1991: 114) wrote that increasingly social workers would have to deal with people ready, willing and able to work but for whom there simply are no job opportunities. These people

will live their lives with part-time or temporary jobs, and more often than not, unable to find secure, full-time, decent-paying employment at all. Social workers will need to view unemployment and the ways of addressing this, from a new perspective. Macarov (1991: 116) further provided valuable insight in this regard: "Meeting that challenge will require social workers to undergo a wrenching reorientation concerning the meaning of work and life – a reorientation that will necessitate use of all the instruments of socialization currently used to prepare social workers for their profession". (Compare Buthelezi, 2002: 18.)

South Africa has made a commitment to a developmental social welfare approach, the aim of which is to build a self-reliant nation in partnership with all stakeholders. This will be achieved through an integrated social welfare system which maximises its existing potential, and which is premised on principles of equity, sustainability, access and people-centeredness (White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997). As previously stated in chapter 3, a broad definition of poverty extends beyond income or consumption to include inequality, health, education, and vulnerability. These dimensions of poverty in turn impact the elements of well-being: security, empowerment and opportunity.

4.5.8   Creating a social climate conducive to development

According to Midgley (1999: 15) many economists recognize that economic development does not only depend on conventional economic inputs such as capital, labour, and human skills, but also on the wider social and political context in which development takes place. It is quite obvious that political instability, civil conflict, and institutionalised corruption have been a major cause of economic stagnation in many parts of the world. Many economies have been devastated by conflict. In Africa today, Zimbabwe, Burundi and Liberia are sadly examples of such devastation. Midgley (1999: 15) referred to Yugoslavia as a case in point. Economically viable regions of the former Yugoslavia have been desolated and reduced to poverty by social disintegration. Midgley continued to elaborate on the

destruction of local economies in the United States of America, where crime, violence and social disintegration have succeeded in destroying communities. Midgley wrote that the extraordinary degree of crime and violence in the United States of America is expensive both in human and economic terms. The costs of wasted human resources associated with crime, drug abuse, violence, and the other manifestations of distorted development that characterize the country's economic growth are huge and a major threat to sustained long-term progress. Unemployment not only carries high social costs but also reduces consumption among the unemployed that in turn depresses demand with resulting wider negative economic effects. Palmary (2001: 2) emphasized recent international research, highlighting a few identifiable risk factors that contribute to high levels of crime. These include:

- Poverty and unemployment deriving from social exclusion particularly from the youth.
- Dysfunctional families with uncaring and incoherent parental attitudes, violence and parental conflicts.
- Social valuation of a culture of violence.
- Presence of facilitators such as firearms and drugs.
- Discrimination and exclusion deriving from sexist, racist or other forms of oppression.
- Degradation of urban environments and social bonds.
- Inadequate surveillance of places and availability of goods that are easy to transport or sell.

According to Palmary the youth should be a primary and essential focus for crime prevention. Many of the factors that lead to crime are ones that require early intervention.

Roopa [sa] wrote that South Africa's struggle for freedom before the watershed elections of 1994 was predominantly a struggle for civil and political rights. After 1996 with the adoption of the country's Constitution and Bill of Rights, the

302

struggle for freedom has largely shifted to a struggle for socio-economic rights. According to Roopa [sa] the extent of unemployment in South Africa and elsewhere is such that its negative externalities call for going beyond basic needs satisfaction, to considerations of the broader association between employment and human dignity. Sen (in Roopa, [sa]) made a strong case for the negative externalities of unemployment to be addressed through coordinated government action and states that: "There is plenty of evidence that unemployment has many far-reaching effects other than loss of income, including psychological harm, loss of work motivation, skill and self-confidence, increase in ailments and morbidity, disruption of family relations and social life, hardening of social exclusion and accentuation of racial tensions and gender asymmetries". Roopa [sa] emphasised that a lack of employment is a major contributing factor that gives rise to insecurity and vulnerability, the latter itself seen as a form of poverty. South Africa's notoriously high crime rate may to a large degree be due to high and rising unemployment, especially since the South African population is a predominantly young one.

The need for a strategy that reduces the high social costs and enhances economic participation is only too obvious. Creating a social climate conducive to development seeks to achieve a number of important objectives, namely:
- Promote entrepreneurship.
- Encourage innovation.
- Foster a commercial and regulatory environment in order for business ventures to flourish.
- Improve the financial environment for businesses.
- Improve the access to markets.
- Promote the cooperation between enterprises.
- Through education and life-long learning seek to develop entrepreneurship as a life skill.

In conclusion, Keeton (2001: 3) provided a very valuable perspective on sustainable development, namely: " Development is not about solving problems and eliminating need. Rather it is about helping tap new resources and direct energies to better address existing problems. Poverty cannot be engineered away or eliminated by direct assault. It is chipped away slowly by people themselves rather like the Berlin Wall, the focus of decades of military investment, that was simply taken down brick by brick when ordinary people sensed they had the space, the confidence and the courage to confront it. Big social problems seem to demand commensurately big solutions. However, looking for them is counterproductive, as they do not exist. For when the bulldozers and the planners go home from a major development project, as they inevitably must, the people remain. The only question is whether the intervention has been sustainable – has left them in a better position to deal with their own circumstances and continue living their own lives, or not".

By promoting sustained economic development and encouraging participation in the productive economy among all sections of the population, social development seeks to minimize costs. The social work profession will be instrumental in creating such a climate by assisting the client population with skills development, creating social and economic networks and actively supporting all efforts to better living conditions with advice and motivation.

4.6   CONCLUSION

> "Some people see things as they are
> and say "why"?
> We dream things that never were
> and ask "why not"?
> (Bernard Shaw in Jahan, 2001:1)

From the above discussion it is evident that the quality of material, social, cultural and political conditions in all communities are crucial for the development of healthy, productive individuals. The problems of absolute physical poverty pose serious obstacles to achieving prosperous communities. Prevailing negative conditions in society, which include amongst other things, a lack of basic services and employment opportunities, have led to a severe breakdown in the social fabric and social cohesion of many communities. A vibrant economy where every member of a community has the opportunity to participate in the economic, social and political dimensions of daily life is essential to sustain continuous growth and development.

A great number of subsystems within a community, such as health and social welfare, education and crime prevention, environment and political participation, depend on the strength of the economic system of that community. Healthy social systems support healthy economic systems, and vice versa. Economic activity has wide ranging impacts on social norms, values, ideals, opportunities and human well-being within a community but also within the broader society. A truly sustainable society is one where wider questions of social needs and welfare, and economic opportunity, are integrally connected to environmental concerns.

The challenge to the social work profession in the 21st century is enormous. Social workers have the tools and the training to extend the domain of the profession to include active participation in economic growth and development. Social workers can be the facilitators of community economic development and political actions that are empowering and transformational.

Development is not about giving away or handing out resources, nor is it about benefits from the trickle down effect of economic development – development is all about people taking charge of and accepting responsibility for their own well-being and progress in life. It is realistic to recognise that not all social work clients

and every member of a community can be economically active. On the other hand, so many individual clients and communities need to be actively encouraged and supported through economic empowerment and capacity building to accept that the way out of poverty is through hard work, determination and commitment. Social workers need to be open to changing circumstances for their clients and for themselves. A continuous process of learning and relearning will enable social workers to proactively address the issues of a changing environment. It is therefore significant that the social work should be part of this quest to enhance the quality of people's lives.

In summary, intervention strategies with an ecological approach where the emphasis is on transactions between people and environment, stressing the importance of linking social development and economic objectives, would be most suited to alleviating poverty. Within a sustainable development paradigm a comprehensive and integrated socio-economic strategy is advocated.

The following chapter will focus on the empirical study, exploring the perceptions and attitudes of social workers with regard to the concept sustainable development and the role, place and value of the social worker within the sustainable development paradigm.

CHAPTER FIVE

EMPIRICAL STUDY AND FINDINGS

5.1   INTRODUCTION

The aim of this empirical study was to explore current social work practice with regard to sustainable development and identify new challenges and opportunities for sustainable social work practice in the changing South Africa. The concept of sustainable development has evoked considerable controversy. (Compare Hunter, 1997: 233-235 and Bremner and Visser, 1997: 219-220.) According to Ngobese and Cock (1997: 256) the concept "sustainable development" itself is subject to various criticisms because it means different things to different people. (Compare Novartis Foundation for Sustainable Development, 1999: 1 and United Kingdom, Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (DEFRA), 2004.) Visser and Sunter (2002: 15) drew attention to the fact that the concept is almost a cliché now; but the idea behind it remains a powerful source of inspiration and according to these authors, is responsible for an umbrella movement encompassing a diverse group – academics, avant-garde entrepreneurs, mother-earthers, pop singers, students, housewives, activists in nongovernmental organizations, organic farmers, green scientists, and politicians. They all share one thing in common: an interest in improving human wellbeing by seeking a proper balance between social, economic and environmental change.

This study was as an exploration of the perceptions and knowledge base of social workers with regard to the sustainable development paradigm. In this chapter, a brief overview of the research methodology and the findings of the qualitative study will be presented and discussed. It further will describe the way in which information was processed and integrated with the literature study. The information obtained from the focus group discussions are discussed in themes.

The themes presented the most significant aspects identified from the data obtained.

5.2   RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.2.1   Research approach

As cited in the first chapter of this study, this research was of a qualitative nature. According to Krueger (in Smith and Stewart, 2001: 11) qualitative research and analysis has three principal phases. The first phase is planning and background research, the second phase is data collection and finally, an analysis phase. Smith and Stewart (2001: 2) defined qualitative research as a systematic, empirical strategy for answering questions about people in a bounded social context. These authors (2001: 2) stated the following: "Like most other methodological approaches, qualitative research seeks to answer the question: "What's going on here?" Brown, Stevens, Troiano and Schneider (2002: 1) are of the opinion that although qualitative research means different things to different people, it generally refers to research that leads to understanding people's lives, stories, behaviours, or is about organizational functioning, social movements, or interactional relationships. Pope and Mays (1995: 3) contributed to this discussion and in their opinion qualitative studies are concerned with answering questions such as "What is X and how does X vary in different circumstances, and why?' rather than "How many Xs are there?"

CERIS ([sa]: 23) contributed a valuable perspective of particular relevance to this research study, when the following statement is made: " Qualitative methods of observing and interviewing are useful for gaining a holistic understanding, especially of complex socio-economic changes, and empathy with participants and their situation". Thomas (2000: 4) emphasized that a prominent feature of qualitative data is the richness and holism, with a strong potential for revealing complexity. In Thomas's opinion such data provide "thick descriptions" that are

308

vivid, nested in a real context, and have a ring of truth that has strong impact on the reader.

Although sustainable development in its broad context is not a new concept, the position of social work and its applicability within the sustainable development paradigm, is new. The significance of social work within the sustainable development paradigm and the perceptions, knowledge and attitudes of social workers are extremely important not only to the social work profession, but also to the functioning of society. (Compare Abrahams and Adair, 1997: 46.)

This study was a process of discovery and not the testing of a hypothesis. The researcher entered the realm of the participants' everyday experience and through conversation extracted detailed descriptions of their perceptions, ideas and concerns. In this research the emphasis was on understanding the experiences, attitudes, assumptions and perspectives of the participants. In Leedy's opinion (1997: 156) in these instances, a qualitative study can help define what is important.

5.2.2 Type of research

According to Fouché (2002: 108) basic and applied research are complementary and she noted in this regard that the advancement of knowledge and the solution of problems are both scientific necessities. Fouché (2002: 108) supported the position of Arkava and Lane (1983) and Grinnell (1993) in that basic and applied research are the broad goals of research.

For this research study the researcher utilized applied research. According to Fouché (2002: 108-109) applied research is aimed at solving specific policy problems or at helping practitioners accomplish tasks. It is focused on solving problems in practice. With this in mind the researcher's aim was to gather data on various aspects of the sustainable development paradigm and the position of

the social work profession within this paradigm. Within this research study the focus was on achieving a clearer understanding of the role and functions of social work practice within the sustainable development paradigm, and how this can be implemented to ensure sustainable social work practice. According to Fouché (2002: 109) most applied research findings have implications for knowledge development. The primary focus was on the outcome of the investigations to increase the knowledge of the social work profession and use this to devise new applications for the pressing problems in communities and broader society.

5.3 THE RESEARCH STRATEGY

As previously discussed in chapter one of this research study, Fouché (2002: 271) used the term "strategy" for the equivalent of research design in the quantitative approach. Fouché further stated that researchers undertaking qualitative studies have a number of choices of strategies. Creswell (in Fouché, 2002: 272 and Oliver and Linkon, 2003) identified five strategies of inquiry, the case study being one of these strategies. Yin (in Dubé and Paré, 2001: 5) defined the scope of a case study as follows: "A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident". Dubé and Paré (2001: 5) further stated that case research is useful when a phenomenon is broad and complex, where the existing body of knowledge is insufficient to permit the posing of causal questions, when a holistic, in-depth investigation is needed, and when a phenomenon cannot be studied outside the context in which it occurs. These authors concluded by stating that case study research is more widely used for exploration and hypothesis generation. CERIS ([sa]: 15) stated that case studies become particularly useful where it is needed to understand some particular problem or situation in great depth, and where it is possible to identify cases rich in information in the sense that a great deal can be learned from a few exemplars of

the phenomenon in question. Mark (in Fouché, 2002: 275-276) referred to three types of case studies, namely: the intrinsic case study, the instrumental case study and the collective case study. For the purpose of this study, the researcher utilized the instrumental case study. As discussed in chapter one of this study, the instrumental case study is used to elaborate on a theory or to gain a better understanding of a social issue.

In this research study, the instrumental case study was used to provide insight into sustainable development as a new paradigm within the social welfare field and to discover the issues and challenges faced by the social work profession as they pertained to sustainable development. Furthermore its purpose was to develop guidelines and intervention strategies to address the issues of poverty, underdevelopment and unemployment in a sustainable manner.

5.4 FOCUS GROUPS AS A DATA-COLLECTION TECHNIQUE

The researcher utilized focus group discussions as a method of generating data. According to Schurink, Schurink and Poggenpoel (1998: 314) a focus group interview can be described as a purposive discussion of a specific topic or related topics taking place between participants with a similar background and common interest.

The researcher utilized an exploratory research purpose as little is known about the topic of investigation and the utilization of focus groups are particularly useful in its ability to explore the topic and generate hypotheses. Researcher wanted to gain insight into the everyday experience of social work practice and the frame of reference of participants regarding sustainable development. Greeff (2002: 306) stated in this regard that focus groups allow the researcher to investigate a multitude of perceptions in a defined area of interest.

An important assumption of the focus group method is that people will become aware of their own perceptions when confronted with active disagreement of others and thus be prompted to analyze their own views more intensely. Schurink, Schurink and Poggenpoel (1998: 314) stated that this enables the researcher to develop concepts, inductively from the bottom up rather than the top down. The focus groups were conducted as a form of open conversation on the specific topic and a number of questions were designed to stimulate and guide the discussion. The abovementioned authors (1998: 315) stated clearly and accurately the nature and value of such a focused discussion: "Focus group interviews are designed to do exactly what the name implies – focus. Far from free-wheeling conversations among group members, focus groups have focuses and clear agendas. In fact, the topics of discussion in a focus group interview are carefully predetermined and sequenced in an understandable and logical way. As such they facilitate the natural, spontaneous discussion of events or experiences by the participants. Participants in focus group interviews need not reach consensus. Instead, emphasis is placed on finding out as much as possible about participants' experiences and feelings about a specific aspect of social reality, such as an event, product or service". Greeff (2002: 307) was in agreement with this point of view and according to this author focus groups draw on three of the fundamental strengths that are shared by all qualitative methods, namely:

- Exploration and discovery
- Context and depth
- Interpretation

According to Nitzke (2000: 10), the researcher who uses focus groups is interested in the kinds of data produced by in-depth interviews, as well as the process of negotiation among participants. Barbour (1999: 129) contributed the following in this regard: "Potentially, therefore, focus groups offer a more critical or reflexive framework for research on the very nature of attitudes, on the construction of the issue at hand, as well as on the constructive role of the social

scientist as interpreter or part-constructor of such views". The focus groups conducted in this study provided a platform for discussion around the concept of sustainable development and the realities of social work practice in an ever-changing society. Participants were able to voice their own perceptions and concerns and exchanged information with others in order to clarify a number of burning issues within the social work profession.

Questions were carefully selected in order to elicit the maximum amount of information. According to Strauss and Corbin (1998: 41) the research question in a qualitative study is a statement that identifies the phenomenon to be studied. It tells the reader what the researcher specifically wants to know about this subject.

5.5 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

Strydom and De Vos (1998: 190) defined a population as the totality of persons, events, organisation units, case records or other sampling units with which the research problem is concerned. Strydom and Venter (2002: 198) also referred to the definition by Seaberg, namely: "A population is the total set from which the individuals or units of the study are chosen". The population in this study was all social workers in the Pretoria area that do developmental work. It was not feasible to utilize the whole social work community; therefore a sample was selected from different social work organizations and non-governmental organizations, in and around the Pretoria area. Smith and Stewart (2001: 3) stated that qualitative research typically utilizes a small sample representing the key constituents in the market under scrutiny.

For the purpose of this research study purposive sampling was used. Fossey, Harvey, McDermott and Davidson (2002: 10) contributed the following with regard to qualitative sampling: "Qualitative sampling is described as purposive (or purposeful) when it aims to select appropriate information sources to explore meanings, and theoretical when its aim is the selection of people, situations or

313

processes on theoretical grounds to explore emerging ideas and build theory as data analysis progresses".

Merriam (2002: 12) added the following to the discussion: "Instead, since qualitative inquiry seeks to understand the meaning of phenomenon from the perspectives of the participants, it is important to select a sample from which the most can be learned. This is called a purposive or purposeful sample". D'Onofrio (2001: 1) contributed to the discussion as follows: "Sampling is purposive. One makes an effort to seek out those with credible and authentic experiences. One focuses on whose voice will tell a representative and complete story. One might seek out deviant cases along with centrally positioned respondents in order to create a multifaceted sense to the story of a place". Patton (in Merriam, 2002: 12) agreed with this point of view and argued that it is important to select "information-rich cases" for study in depth. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research.

Strydom and Delport (2002: 334) postulated that clear identification and formulation of criteria for the selection of respondents in the case of purposive sampling are of cardinal importance. Creswell (in Strydom and Delport, 2002: 334) commented as follows in this regard: "The purposeful selection of participants represents a key decision point in a qualitative study. Researchers designing qualitative studies need clear criteria in mind and need to provide rationales for their decision". In this research study the researcher consulted with the management of various social service organizations, government departments and non-governmental organizations, in and around the Pretoria area, to assist researcher in identifying those social workers meeting the following criteria: In their working experience involved in one or more of the following:
- Community development
- The development of social networks

- Income-generating projects and small business development
- Human development programmes, namely skills development and adult basic education.

The researcher contacted in excess of forty organizations in and around the Pretoria area. These organizations ranged from "traditional" welfare organizations, non-governmental organizations, various national government departments, local governments, and church or faith-based organizations. At the initial stage of contact all of the organizations claimed to be involved in "development work". All of these organizations were kindly requested to assist the researcher in identifying those social workers involved in one or more of the abovementioned areas of social work practice. The researcher purposefully selected the participants that in the view of the researcher were in a position to best answer the research questions and provide a unique perspective to this study.

The researcher requested that all the social workers that were willing to participate in the focus group discussions complete and sign a consent form. (See Appendix 3) The researcher proposed six different dates and times for the focus group discussions after consultation with various organizations with regard to the availability and work schedules of social workers involved in community development and development work. Many of the social workers that committed themselves to participating in this research provided the researcher with a firm commitment (verbal and written) to be present at a focus group discussion on a given date and time. The researcher made use of written reminders two to three days before the actual focus group discussion to the different organisations as well as the individual social workers involved. The day before each group interview, the researcher contacted each participant by telephone to confirm his or her involvement. Unfortunately some of the participants could not attend due to circumstances beyond their control for reasons of work pressure, or in some instances, unexpected court appearances. Other participants simply failed to

notify the researcher that they were either no longer able to attend, or wished not to be part of the research project. In all instances the researcher again made contact with these participants and suggested alternative dates and times for the discussions in an attempt to accommodate their work schedules. In spite of this continuous effort to convince all of those social workers identified by the various organizations to be part of this research study, many were not willing to participate. The researcher had to respect the decisions of those not willing to participate, as it was their right to withdraw at any stage of the research process. (Compare Strydom, 2002: 65.)

The difficulty in getting social workers to commit themselves to participating in the focus group discussions proved to be a financially expensive part of this research. Many weeks of preparation and hundreds of telephone calls and electronic mail communication preceded the actual focus group discussions. Morgan (in Greeff, 2002: 312) stated that the sheer availability of participants could be a concern. Pretorius (2004: 56) indicated that in her study concerning the prevention of relationship violence, she also encountered the problem of extremely low actual participation. In this study the potential participants engaged enthusiastically in the discussion of the purpose of the research but for various reasons did not follow through on their commitment to participate.

Gibbs (1997: 4) added another dimension to this difficult issue and stated the following in this regard: "On a practical note, focus groups can be difficult to assemble. It may not be easy to get a representative sample and focus groups may discourage certain people from participating, for example those who are not very articulate or confident, and those who have communication problems or special needs. The method of focus group discussion may also discourage some people from trusting others with sensitive or personal information".

Fossey, Harvey, McDermott and Davidson (2002: 10) entered this debate and indicated that qualitative sampling may involve small numbers of participants,

while the amount of data gathered can be large, with many hours of participant interviews, or multiple data sources related to one setting including interviews, observation-based field notes and written documents. These authors (2002: 10) stated in this regard the following: "No fixed minimum number of participants is necessary to conduct sound qualitative research, however, sufficient depth of information needs to be gathered to fully describe the phenomena being studied". The researcher is of the opinion that she would not have gained more information if more respondents participated in this research study.

5.6 PILOT STUDY

According to Strydom and Delport (2002: 337) it is important to conduct a pilot study, whether it is a qualitative or a quantitative study that is undertaken. These authors stated that in qualitative research the pilot study is usually informal and a few respondents and or participants possessing the same characteristics as those of the main investigation can be involved in the study. They further emphasized that a statistically correct pilot study does not play as important a role in qualitative as in quantitative research. In their view, the pilot study allows the researcher to test certain questions. By testing the nature of questions in an interviewing schedule or for focus groups in the pilot study, the qualitative researcher is able to make modifications to ensure quality interviewing during the main investigation.

In contrast to this view van Teijlingen and Hundley (2002: 1) maintained that the term "pilot studies" refers to mini versions of the full-scale study, also called "feasibility studies", and should be regarded as a crucial element of a good study design. In their opinion (2002: 2) one of the advantages of conducting a pilot study is that it might give advance warning about where the main research project could fail, where research protocols may not be followed, or whether proposed methods or instruments are inappropriate or too complicated. Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2002: 2) stated that pilot studies are used for collecting

317

preliminary data and for assessing the proposed data analysis techniques to uncover potential problems.

According to Strydom (2002: 214) an overview of the literature, conducting discussions with experts, exploring the actual research area, as well as undertaking an intensive study of strategic units, are all necessary tasks that the prospective researcher should undertake. An intensive study of strategic units means that the researcher should expose a few cases that are similar to the planned main inquiry to the same procedures as are planned for the main investigation. In this research study, the researcher had a focus group discussion, attended by four social workers, fitting the criteria as set out in the section on sampling and sampling procedures. The researcher obtained valuable insight with regard to the type of questions in the interview schedule from these participants.

The pilot study for this research study, therefore, included an extensive literature study; interviews with experts; a preliminary exploratory study, as well as a study of strategic units.

5.7 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF EMPIRICAL DATA

According to Lal (2001: 4) in research, data analysis is a process. The goal of this process is to bring order, structure, and meaning to the vast amounts of data collected. Marshall and Rossman (in Thames Valley University, [sa]) agreed with this point of view and offered this graphic description: "Data analysis is the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data. It is a messy, ambiguous, time-consuming, creative, and fascinating process. It does not proceed in a linear fashion; it is not neat. Qualitative data analysis is a search for general statements about relationships among categories of data". According to Fossey, Harvey, McDermott and Davidson (2002: 13) qualitative analysis involves more than simply coding data. According to these authors (2002: 13) developing an understanding of qualitative data requires conceptual

318

level processes of exploring the meanings, patterns or connections among data that involves the researcher's own thought, reflection and intuition. Strauss and Corbin (1998: 11) stated the following with regard to qualitative analysis: "In speaking about qualitative analysis, we are referring not to the quantifying of qualitative data but rather to a nonmathematical process of interpretation, carried out for the purpose of discovering concepts and relationships in raw data and then organizing these into a theoretical explanatory scheme".

In this research study, the researcher did a qualitative content analysis. Schurink (1998: 242) described the qualitative content analysis as an emphasis on the development of concepts, insights and understanding from the patterns in the data rather than exact figures gained from precise measurement. Lal (2001: 4) stated in this regard: "Qualitative data analysis is a search for general statements about relationships among categories (themes and patterns)". According to Fossey, Harvey, McDermott and Davidson (2002: 7) qualitative research aims to give privilege to the perspectives of research participants and to illuminate the subjective meaning, actions and context of those being researched. In their opinion central to the quality of qualitative research is whether participants' perspectives have been authentically represented in the research process and the interpretations made from information gathered (authenticity), and whether the findings are coherent in the sense that they "fit" the data and social context from which they were derived. These authors (2002: 14) further stated that qualitative research stresses the importance of understanding findings in the particular contexts and settings of the research. They concluded with the following statement (2002: 14): "The aim is not to generalize about the distribution of experiences, or processes. Therefore qualitative research makes no claim of the generalizability of findings to a specified larger population in a probabilistic sense. Rather, qualitative researchers are interested in the applicability of their findings, based on how the nature and processes involved in experiences generalize".

319

5.7.1 Analysis phase

The analysis phase of this qualitative research study proceeded with the following four-step process, utilized for the purpose of data analysis in the study.

Step 1: Three focus groups were conducted during the months of March and April 2003. Audiotapes of the discussions were comprehensively transcribed. Comprehensive notes were taken during the focus group discussions. These notes were compared with the transcriptions of the audiotapes.

Step 2: The text was read through as a whole to refamiliarise the researcher with its content and to note patterns or themes that were recurring in the data. Both Creswell and Tesch (in East Carolina University [sa]: 1) were of the opinion that an overview of the data is necessary before the process of data explication starts. These authors gave the following advice: "Before beginning to unfold the data it is important to examine what is right there on the surface. By reading through all the collected information you are able to attain an overall sense of the data similar to identifying the major landmarks in an area prior to mapping a route through".

Step 3: The data was re-read. Thames Valley University ([sa]: 2) identified content analysis as a process of reading and re-reading the transcripts while looking for similarities and differences in order to find themes and to develop categories. Marshall and Rossman (in Zelna, [sa]: 15) described this process as follows: "The researcher does not search for the exhaustive and mutually exclusive categories of the statistician but, instead, identifies the salient, grounded categories of meaning held by participants in the setting".

Step 4: A number of key themes/categories emerged from the data. Excerpts related to these key themes were then grouped together.

A review of the literature reflected that in quantitative research most procedures have a definite beginning and end. The question arises, when conducting

interviews and observations, when does the researcher knows that enough data has been collected? Theoretical saturation is the term used to describe the point at which no new information or concepts emerge from the data and when themes or theories that have emerged from the data have been well-supported. (Compare Strauss and Corbin, 1998; Smith and Stewart, 2001: 5; Brown, Stevens, Troiano and Schneider, 2002: 5.)

Strauss and Corbin (1998: 136) contributed a substantial description of the concept "saturation" by explaining that a category is considered saturated when no new information seems to emerge during coding, that is, when no new properties, dimensions, conditions, actions/interactions, or consequences are seen in the data. These authors further stated the following: "Saturation is more a matter of reaching the point in the research where collecting additional data seems counterproductive; the "new" that is uncovered does not add that much more to the explanation at this time".

Brown, Stevens, Troiano and Schneider (2002: 7) highlighted that theoretical saturation is achieved when each category is dense enough to cover variations and process, and the relationships between categories are delineated satisfactorily as well. Beveridge (2003: 2) also explained this concept by adding that when a researcher is able to recognize themes or categories in the data, the researcher can then decide that if the next few data samples fit into these categories, then the categories represent the phenomena being studied. At this point the data is saturated and data collection is complete. The researcher found this situation to be applicable in this research study.

The following section will focus on analyzing and interpreting the information derived from the focus group discussions.

5.8   CONTENT ANALYSIS FROM FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

5.8.1   Demographic profile of the participants

5.8.1.1   Gender of participants

The gender of participants is reflected in Figure 2.
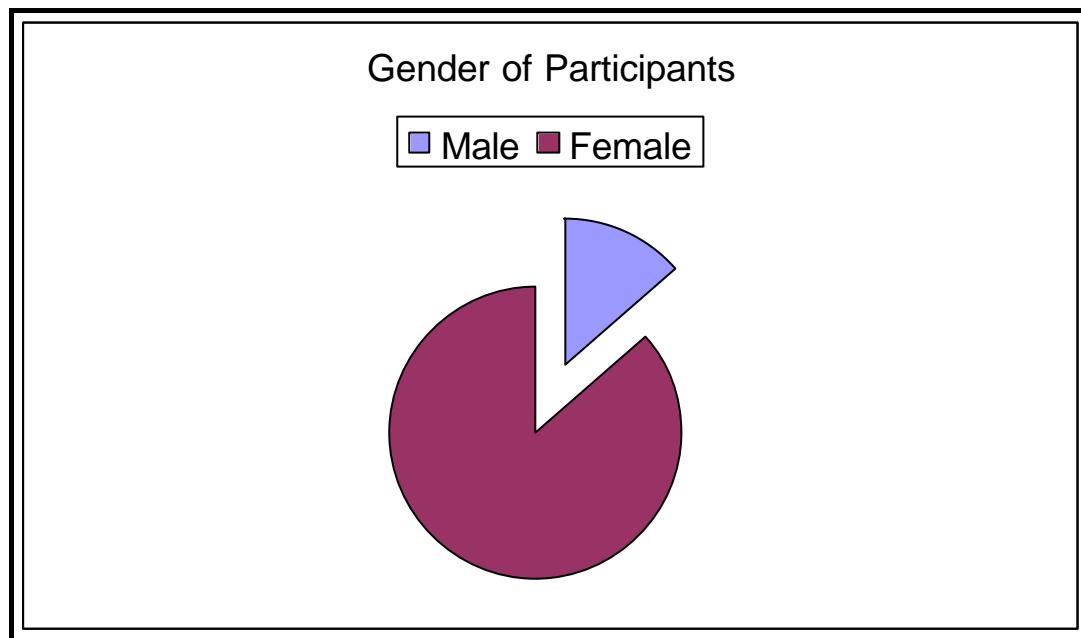
Figure 2:   Gender of participants

From the sample of 22 participants three were males and nineteen were females. There were considerably more female participants. The number of males in the study was determined by the availability within the different service fields. These figures confirm the gender composition of the social work profession as being mainly female.

5.8.1.2 Field of experience

Table 6 reflects the different organisations represented by the participants.

Table 6: Organisations represented by participants

Field of Experience	Number of Participants
Church-based activities	3
Department of Social Development	1
Community Development Trust Faith-based charitable trust	3
Non-profit Organisation Generic social work	2
Non-Governmental Organisation Faith-based organization	6
Non-Governmental Organisation	1
Section 21 Organisation Faith-based	1
Non-profit Organisation Exclusively disabled population	3
Section 21 Organisation Exclusively disabled population	1
Other	1

There was a representative spread of organizations that participated in the focus group discussions.

5.8.2   Themes

The content was analyzed through themes that could be identified from the focus group discussions. The data was subjected to a literature control, which enabled a process of verification against existing knowledge. The following themes and questions were identified from the discussions deriving from the interviewing schedule:

- Theme One: Sustainable development

> *Question 1: "What is your perception of the concept "sustainable development?"*
>
> *Question 2: "How sustainable do you think the interventions on individual, family, group and community level are in your working environment?"*
>
> *Question 3: "How do social service providers, social workers and administrators within your working environment plan and strategize to ensure sustainability of interventions"?*
>
> *Question 4: "When would you say a project or programme is sustainable?"*

- Theme Two: Entrepreneurial activities/ entrepreneurship

> *Question 5: "What are your perceptions of a business focus in social work?"*
>
> *Question 6: "What is your perception of social workers willingness or readiness to change with regard to a business focus in social work practice?"*
>
> *Question 7: "Are social workers motivated to explore extending the core areas of knowledge and skills to include business skills?"*
>
> *Question 8: "What should social workers do to encourage the client population to develop entrepreneurial skills?"*
>
> *Question 9: "How would skills and knowledge on entrepreneurship assist social workers to facilitate sustainable human, social and economic development?"*

- Theme Three: Training and education of social workers

> *Question 10: "Do you think social workers and managers are adequately skilled to facilitate sustainable development?"*
>
> *Question 11: Do you think social workers are equipped to deal with the many changes in the new South Africa?"*

- Theme Four: Networking and partnership between government departments and non- governmental organizations (NGOs) and social service providers

Question 12: *"What should be in place for social workers to be empowered to facilitate a developmental paradigm, i.e. to integrate human and economic development?"*

Question 13: *"What plans/strategies do you have in place to enhance people's participation in projects/enterprises as a means to improve sustainability?"*

Question 14: *"What plans/strategies, in your organisation, are in place to equip people with knowledge and skills to improve the general quality of their lives?"*

THEME ONE: THE CONCEPT "SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT"

During the focus group discussions it became evident to the researcher that a significant number of the participants were uncertain as to the meaning of the concept "sustainable development". Throughout the focus group discussions it also became clear that participants were aware of some aspects of the concept "sustainable development", but were not informed as to the overall place and value of sustainable development within the context of their working environment. Participants were unable to define the concept or articulate the various interrelated and interdependent elements of sustainable development. This was evident in the discussions by the participants and one of the participants articulated the following perception:

> *"Economic sustainability is one side".*

Consistent with literature in this area, sustainable economic development is indeed one of the pillars of sustainable development. Together with social development and ecological conservation, economic development constitutes the foundation for sustainable communities. A further review of the literature (compare Lee, Holland and McNeill, 2000: 16; Novartis Foundation for Sustainable Development, 1999: 1; United Nations Economic and Social Council, 2001: 1 and Teferra, [sa]: 2) with regard to the concept "sustainable development" reflected the general consensus that sustainable development is concerned with economic, social and ecological objectives. Visser and Sunter (2002: 57) added another dimension to this concept and stated the following in this regard: "Essentially, sustainability – the ability of something living to sustain itself – is about surviving over the long term".

According to the World Bank Group (1998: 2), industrial and agricultural growth, equity and efficiency are economic objectives and are prerequisites for obtaining economic sustainability. Economic sustainability is hardly possible without the empowerment, participation and social mobility of communities. Visser and Sunter (2002: 122) defined a sustainable economy as one which ensures the provision of appropriate goods and services to enhance the quality of life of all citizens; and done in a way that is socially just and equitable as well as ecologically sustainable and responsible. This together with social cohesion and institutional development, are the desired social objectives necessary to achieve social sustainability. Ecological sustainability as the third pillar of sustainable development implies maintaining the integrity of ecosystems, carrying capacity and biodiversity, necessary for ecological sustainability. (Compare Brackett, 2002: 61.) These objectives evolved over a number of years through a process of consultation and negotiation by a whole range of global institutions, government organizations and private enterprise. The development of the abovementioned objectives, as a result of many world conferences and summits was discussed in detail in chapter 2 of this study.

Wagiet (2002: 28) reinforced the now widely accepted holistic conceptualization of sustainable development, by defining it as a complex medley involving economic, social, political, cultural and ecological dimensions that are interacting and interdependent. Visser and Sunter (2002: 65) supported this view and described this concept as the three prongs of the sustainability fork, namely economic prosperity, environmental quality and social justice. According to these authors the ultimate goal in society is an integrated and balanced performance across these three dimensions. Dalal-Clayton (1999: 4) agreed with this perspective and contributed the following: "Sustainable development will entail integration of these three objectives where possible, and making hard choices and negotiating trade-offs between objectives where integration is not possible".

In the context of this study, the picture painted by some of the participants appeared to be that of scepticism and an uncertainty whether sustainable development as a paradigm is aligned with the social work profession. This is evidenced in the following quotation:

"It [sustainable development] is not a recipe for everything".

Sustainable development is not a "recipe" but entails a holistic approach to economics and social organization, as well as environmental controls and conservation strategies. Fakir (2002: 14) stated the following in this regard: "The entire strategy for sustainable development is premised on the idea that the linkages between political governance, social and economic programmes, are intertwined with environmental considerations". Dalal-Clayton (1999: 4) supported the abovementioned perspective and contributed the following: "There is no blueprint for sustainable development. It needs to be defined to meet and respect the particular needs and circumstances of individual countries, societies and cultures".

A review of the literature (compare Mayfield, 1997: 420; Dalal-Clayton, 1999 and 2003 and Hart, [sa]) suggested that sustainable development encompasses cost effective development that do not degrade environmental quality and recognizes that people are central to the success of development. It is for that reason that alleviating poverty has significant implications and practical consequences for sustainable development since there are close links between poverty, environmental degradation and rapid population growth. Ngobese and Cook (1997: 256) stated the following in this regard: "It is now generally recognized that the environment and development are inseparable. The one is linked to the other and the integral nature of this relationship is generally beyond dispute. In the past development has often been at the expense of the environment, and, in particular, the methods used to affect economic development have invariably led to environmental degradation". These authors (1997: 269) also highlighted the fact that poverty reduction has been shown to have a significant effect on environmental conditions, the reason being that poverty is both a cause as well as a consequence of environmental degradation.

Mayfield (1997: 421) postulated that sustainable development entails making full use of human resources by improving education and health services and combating hunger. Sustainable development would mean redirecting or reallocating resources to ensure that basic human needs, such as literacy, primary health care and clean water are satisfied. Mayfield (1997: 421) stressed that beyond basic needs, sustainable development means improving social well-being, protecting cultural diversity, and investing in human capital – training the educators, health-care workers, agricultural extension workers, appropriate technology technicians, and community development workers. Making development sustainable is thus ensuring that people's basic needs are being met, that the resource base is conserved and that the environment and business sectors are integrated into decision-making processes and that communities are empowered. A review of the literature (compare Naudé and Jansen van Rensburg, 2002: 9 and United Kingdom Sustainable Development Commission,

2004) in this regard indicated that sustainable development is concerned with addressing basic needs within a multisectoral approach. Dalal-Clayton (1999: 5) concluded with the following statement: "The aim of sustainable development is thus to optimize the realization of a society's many and different social, environmental and economic objectives at one and the same time".

There were a number of participants who, at times, seemed unclear about whether sustainable development underpins social work interventions in their work with individuals and communities. The participants, however, did make a connection between sustainable development and the sustainability of community projects and programmes. The following quotation indicated the views of some of the participants:

> *"It means the social worker must assess all the time if a*
> *project or programme is working".*

A number of participants expressed the perception that empowerment and participation are integral parts of sustainable development. A review of the literature in this regard reveals that sustainable development is indeed concerned with social and economic development from a grassroots level. The sustainability of projects and programmes depends on the empowerment of all stakeholders in development. Cook (1997: 289) contributed a valuable perspective to the discussion, and in his opinion: "Sustainable development is dependent on the empowerment of people to sustain their own development in order to be the sustainers of development in their communities". This can be attained through capacity building and skills training. Empowerment, community participation, and the bottom-up approach to power and decision-making at a grassroots level are the key ingredients for successful and sustainable development. Cook (1997: 290) stated the following in this regard: " In a community, development can only be sustainable if the people concerned have the capacity – and the will to use that capacity – to manage development themselves". This was congruent with

330

the views of some of the participants. The following quotations described the perceptions of the participants:

> *"It is not giving handouts! It means that there are no quick fixes".*

> *"It means the way in which social workers help people to develop. People must be given the opportunity to develop themselves".*

It became clear from the focus group discussions that participants wanted communities and individuals to take greater responsibility for their own development and were in favour of an empowering approach to assisting clients in bettering their lives. This is in line with the perspective of Van Zyl (in Bremner and Visser, 1997: 226) expressing the following view: "A central proposition of this approach is that development occurs inside people; either they do it themselves or it does not happen at all". It follows that it is simply not possible to give or hand out "development" to people. People can indeed be given objects (goods and services) but if "development" is to occur they have to get actively involved themselves. In short, they have to learn to "deliver" their own development, i.e. to become more self-reliant". The views expressed above appeared to be similar to the perceptions voiced by participants.

The following quotations pointed to the perceptions of participants that real development can only be a reality when and if communities are actively encouraged to take responsibility for their own development:

> *"It means the community must have a say in what the money is used for".*

> *"It means involving the client. The client must be fully involved and come with own ideas" .*

The social work profession is often confronted and challenged by individuals and communities locked in poverty by illiteracy and unemployment. Individuals and communities are faced with a lack of employment opportunities, inadequate financial resources, spreading homelessness and the expansion of squatter settlements, increased poverty, growing insecurity and rising crime rates, a lack of health and educational facilities, inadequate water supply and sanitation and uncoordinated urban development (Narayan, Patel, Schafft, Rademacher and Koch-Schulte, 1999: 6). Max-Neef (in Bremner and Visser, 1997: 231) asserted: "But poverties are not only poverties. Much more than that, each poverty generates pathologies". Social workers are thus concerned with human well-being, including equity and within the sustainable development paradigm, with the stress that development places on the environment. Unfortunately, as O'Brien and Mazibuko (1998: 136) clearly stated, social workers have been criticised in the past for their failure to reach the poor. These authors made the following valuable contribution: "Poverty is no longer centred in remote rural areas inaccessible to social workers. It is increasingly a phenomenon of the urban environment, as the rapid movement of people into our cities has given rise to street children, pavement people and squatters, and social problems which social workers can no longer avoid". According to these authors (1998: 140) social work as a profession has established a reputation for specialised and centralised therapeutic services, but has made few real contributions to long-term strategies and programmes to alleviate poverty. They maintained the following in this regard: "In its interventions, social work has lacked the capacity for social analysis in order to examine the social environments of clients and the socio-political baggage brought by the client systems through the presenting problems. The person-in-environment approach has been lost somewhere in practice". From the above discussion it is clear that development is often defined in economic or political terms but the psychosocial aspects should receive equal attention. (Compare Mayfield, 1997: 92.)

Lélé (1991) made a significant contribution to the analysis of the concept sustainable development. According to Lélé (1991: 614) the removal of poverty, sustainability and participation are in essence the three fundamental objectives of the sustainable development paradigm. Poverty is the lack of options. Poverty can also be defined as the lack of choice in a given situation. Poverty is a condition where people have very few opportunities. Poor people are faced with numerous obstacles to change that which they would like to change, with environmental (economic, political, and social), physical (productive stamina and freedom from disease) and mental (educational, emotional and intellectual) constraints blocking these people from improving their way of life. (Compare Mayfield, 1997: 41 and Parnell and Mosdell, 2003.) Bremner and Visser (1997: 225) endorsed the view expressed by Max-Neef: "Quality of life depends on the possibilities people have to adequately satisfy their fundamental human needs".

The call has been made for social workers to acknowledge their role within an interdisciplinary approach to sustainable community development. According to O'Brien and Mazibuko (1998: 137) there are ever-increasing calls made for the social work profession to get back to its roots and assist in the empowerment of all those disempowered by societal systems. These authors (1998: 144) encapsulated the essence of the social development paradigm with the following statement: "Relevance, sustainability and appropriateness are the critical issues at stake for social work within the social development framework". Researcher is in agreement with the abovementioned perspective and supports the view that social workers are in a position to address the spiral of poverty, confront waste and resource degradation and actively work towards increasing the economic strength of the family unit and the social advancement of the community. (Compare Dominelli, 2002: 83.)

The picture that seemed to emerge from the data was that the participants displayed a lack of knowledge regarding the interdependent nature of different systems within community life. It became clear from the focus group discussions

that participants were inadequately equipped to deal with the extensive number of problems confronting poor communities. Participants were uncertain as to how, when and where social work interventions form part of sustainable development. It was noted with interest that the participants did not indicate that they had ever attended a course or lecture regarding sustainable development. The World Summit on Sustainable Development was held in Johannesburg, South Africa from August, 26 to the 4th September 2002. No indication was given during the focus group discussions that participants actively participated in this significant event or attended one or more of the various lectures and workshops dealing with all aspects of sustainable development. The media coverage of the World Summit was extensive and lasted for many months before the actual event. Since there was no direct question relating to the World Summit on Sustainable Development, researcher can only speculate as to why participants did not indicate their involvement, if any with the World Summit. It may be that the participants did not see their day-to-day involvement with individuals and communities as part of a sustainable development strategy. It may also be that the participants were merely ignorant with regard to the significance of the World Summit.

Whatever the reason, this was of concern to the researcher as, stated by O'Brien and Mazibuko (1998: 144), the Reconstruction and Development Programme and welfare policy (White Paper [for RDP], 1994) are undergirded by a combination of six complementary principles, namely integration and sustainability, people-driven process, peace and security, nation-building, meeting basic needs and building infrastructure. The Developmental Welfare Governance Bill (in National Progressive Primary Health Care Network, 1999: 4) defined *developmental social welfare* as "planned social change designed to promote social and economic development of the people of South Africa by utilizing social welfare services, programmes, methods and approaches which are responsive to the specific conditions and needs of South Africans. The goal is

to prevent, alleviate and eventually eradicate the social problems of individuals, groups and communities".

The White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997 (Department of Welfare, 1997: 2) stated that the goal of developmental social welfare is a humane, peaceful, just and caring society which will uphold welfare rights, facilitate the meeting of basic human needs, release people's creative energies, help them achieve their aspirations, build human capacity and self-reliance, and participate fully in all spheres of social, economic and political life. These goals in turn correspond with the basic tenets of sustainable development (Sewpaul, 2001: 315 and Midgley, 1996a: 7). From the data it appeared that participants' perception of sustainable development lacked real understanding of the interrelationship between social, economic, political and cultural aspects within any given community.

It was further of concern that participants did not make a connection between social development and sustainable development. A review of the literature (Gray, 1998: 58; Midgley, 1995: 1 and 2001: 2; Noyoo, 2000: 453) indicated that social development is the implementation of comprehensive solutions to poverty involving all sectors including health, housing, employment, welfare and education. The abovementioned authors also highlighted the fact that social development recognised the relationship between these sectors in providing for the well-being of people.

Another theoretical viewpoint concerning social development came from O'Brien and Mazibuko (1998: 150). These authors concurred with the viewpoint of Gray (1998) and that of Potgieter (1998: 243) and reaffirmed that social work needs to examine its relations to the economic institutions and to the concepts of work and economic productivity. A more skilled and productive workforce and an overall commitment to lifelong learning are necessary to address the absolute poverty that exists in many communities. Dominelli (2002: 131) added another valuable perspective to this debate. She contributed the following viewpoint of social

335

development: "Social development is a process of intervention that locates the individual in their physical and social environments with the aim of improving individual and community well-being through collective action. It aims to develop people as well as their localities and often involves extending local resources through networking initiatives and campaigning to secure social and economic justice within national and international jurisdictions".

An interesting aspect came to the fore with regard to the sustainability of social work interventions and the way social service providers plan and strategize to ensure sustainability of interventions. From the data it appeared that some participants were of the opinion that religious and spiritual counselling constitutes the basis for restoring the lives of individuals and communities. A number of participants made direct reference to the role they perceive religious and spiritual counselling play in contributing to the upliftment of people. The following quotations reflected the perceptions of the participants in this regard:

"We have an intensive program to uplift the person
so that the person can carry something through!
In the beginning there is resistance but we
have people not believing in themselves.
We have to invest in the person".

"The focus is from a Christian perspective
but we have all kinds of South Africans".

"These people are homeless and have
lost their employment. It takes months but
we have to restore their faith".

From the data it was clear that a number of the participants firmly expressed the view that people need assistance on a very personal level. In their opinion all

336

interventions, whether on a person-to-person basis, or on group level or within the community, should start with an intensive program to help people believe in themselves. In their opinion projects are doomed to failure if people are not assisted in a process of personal growth. The emphasis was placed on accepting responsibility and acknowledgement of the importance of perseverance. As social workers they felt strongly that homeless and unemployed people should receive the opportunity to attend courses, learn skills and have their spiritual faith restored. In this instance the focus was undoubtedly on a religious perspective in pursuing sustainable development for the client population.

The following theme dealt with entrepreneurial activities, sustainability of such activities, and the development and encouragement of entrepreneurship.

THEME TWO: ENTREPRENEURIAL ACTIVITIES/

It was stated in chapters one and two of this research report that sustainable development encompasses economic growth and development, social progress and environmental conservation. These three dimensions are inextricably interconnected and interrelated. Economic growth and development is necessary to ensure the provision of basic needs for individuals and communities. Economic development is necessary to facilitate sustained progress and improvement in the standard of living for all people. Economic growth implies an increase in average wealth but does not necessarily mean that all people in a given society reap the benefits from the growth. According to Schoeman (2001: 325) South Africa experienced economic growth, but not economic development, as the majority of its population remained poor.

The development of small, medium and micro enterprises constitutes an invaluable part of an overall economic strategy to better the lives of all people in South Africa. A review of the literature (compare Mataira, [sa]: 2; Midgley, 1999:

337

14; Sewpaul, 2001: 319; Raheim, 1996: 69; McBroom, 1999: 2; Bent-Goodley, 2002: 298; Mupedziswa, 1996: 51 and Cannon, 2000: 1) with regard to the stimulation of entrepreneurial ventures confirmed the importance of such activities to bridge the cycle of dependence and deepening poverty.

The concept of entrepreneurship has a wide range of meanings. The word *entrepreneur* originates from the French word, *entreprendre*, which means, "to undertake". In a business context, it means to start a business. The Merriam-Webster Dictionary presented the definition of an entrepreneur as one who organizes, manages, and assumes the risks of a business or enterprise (QuickMBA, 2004: 1). Dees (2002: 1) postulated that at its heart, entrepreneurship is about getting things done or changing the way things are done. In almost all of the definitions of entrepreneurship there is an agreement that entrepreneurship implies a kind of behaviour that includes:

- initiative taking (finding the "opportunity niche")
- the organizing and reorganizing of social and economic mechanisms to turn resources and situations to practical application, and
- the acceptance of risk and failure.

The following definitions obtained from the Canadian Foundation for Economic Education ([sa]: 1-4) provided valuable insight into the concept of entrepreneurship:

- *Willingness to take the risks involved in starting and managing a business.*

- *Entrepreneurship is a process through which individuals and groups pursue opportunity, leverage resources, and initiate change and create value. Thus, an entrepreneur is one who creates and manages change by pursuing opportunity, acting with passion for a purpose, living proactively, and leveraging resources to create value.*

338

- *Entrepreneurship involves the recognition of opportunities (needs, wants, problems, and challenges) and the use of resources to implement innovative ideas for new, thoughtfully planned ventures.*

- *Entrepreneurship involves bringing about change to achieve some benefit. This benefit may be financial but it also involves the satisfaction of knowing you have changed something for the better.*

- *Entrepreneurship is essentially the act of creation requiring the ability to recognize an opportunity, shape a goal, and take advantage of a situation. Entrepreneurs plan, persuade, raise resources, and give birth to new ventures.*

The questions relating to entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial- and income-generating activities elicited substantial comments in the focus group discussions. The majority of participants had a positive attitude towards the development and encouragement of entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial activities were recognized in all the discussions and identified as a substantial part of the empowerment of individuals and communities. Although the encouragement of entrepreneurial activities on the part of the social worker was seen as a way of empowering individuals and communities by allowing them to actively participate in their own progress towards a better life, participants were not experienced or knowledgeable in securing economic opportunities for communities or individuals. The following quotations indicated the perceptions of participants:

> *"I am not skilled enough although I am interested*
> *in initiating income-generating projects".*

> *"I believe the emphasis is on entrepreneurial skills.*
> *What is it that you can do to relieve the*

339

burden on the social worker?"

*"Many newly founded non-governmental organizations
do not know how to manage money and cash flow.
They need a basic course in business administration".*

*"The basic stuff is important – more than entrepreneurial
skills, very often it is a question of mismanagement
because people are not skilled in office management".*

Congruent with the perceptions of participants on this theme, several authors (compare Gray, 1998; Lombard, 1996: 171 and 2003; Potgieter, 1998: 242-243; Raheim, 1996: 69; Midgley, 1995, 1996a; 1996b and 2001; Kehler, 2000: 4 and Gray and Crofts, 2001: 4) have made reference to social and economic strategies to empower people and address prevailing poverty. Within the spirit and climate of the new democratic South Africa, social workers are challenged to develop new ideas and strategies to deal with the tragedies of poverty. Gray (1998: 56) elaborated on this perspective when she stated the following: "However, social workers, both in South Africa and abroad, have shown a preference for individual and group therapy and counselling and have not practised community development on a wide scale (Cox, 1994; Fraser, Taylor, Jackson and O'Jack, 1991; Gray, 1989; Midgley, 1995; Muller, 1989). Social workers in South Africa can no longer afford the luxury of this choice". (Compare Sturgeon, 1998: 34.) Bent-Goodley (2002: 291) contributed substantially to this debate and stated the following: "Most social workers are not trained to start, build, and maintain a business (Gold, 1994; Lawless, 1997; Tropman, 1989) and without formal preparation, they must acquire entrepreneurial knowledge on their own. This is not an effective way to train social workers within the profession, and private practices and other social organizations often fail due to a lack of business skills (Brown, 1990; Gold, 1994)".

According to Gray (1998: 56) the need is emphasized for social work to move away from small-scale, isolated local development initiatives focusing only on non-material issues towards income-generating programmes, which empower people from a social and economic perspective. Gray (1998: 59) and Potgieter (1998: 244) stressed the fact that it is necessary to link social and political empowerment to economic development. In Gray's opinion (1998: 59) new development models stress the importance of economic growth linked to income-generating programmes and small business development in communities. Visser and Sunter (2002: 143) contributed to this debate with such a significant statement when they argued that a fundamental re-perception needed to occur about the way society structure work and welfare. These authors stated the following in this regard: "We have to move our focus from creating employment to creating livelihoods. We have to empower people to put whatever skills and talents they may have to good use. People should not have to spend all their energy and resources on struggling to survive. Nor should they have to wait to be offered a job or to be told that they are economically valuable only when they engage in productive work for someone else in the private or public sector".

It became clear from the focus group discussions that many of the participants had some, though limited knowledge regarding entrepreneurial ventures, but were unable to put this into practice. In addition to this some of the participants displayed a lack of knowledge regarding business skills, business planning and the technical know-how of obtaining financial resources. Participants did not indicate that they had established relationships and networks with industries and the banking sector in an effort to secure more job creation opportunities for individuals or groups within communities. Participants displayed a lack of initiative and confidence with regard to assisting individuals and communities to overcome obstacles in establishing income-generating ventures.

Some participants were rather adamant that not every person is an entrepreneur, and for that reason did not see entrepreneurial ventures as a solution to many of

the problems faced by their clients. In their opinion some clients have personal limitations that cannot be ignored and for that reason cannot be thrust into establishing any entrepreneurial activity that is doomed to fail. The participants voiced the following perceptions and ideas:

"Not everyone is an entrepreneur!"

"People need to be trained in business skills. Not all people are entrepreneurs, but can be involved in business, working for somebody else. Learning business skills should be part of personal development".

A number of participants had negative perceptions of entrepreneurial activities with the objective of making people financially independent. One of the participants for example was very despondent with regard to establishing food gardens as a sustainable source of income for families. In the view of this participant the obstacles encountered in such a project are overwhelming and resulted in very little income for those community members who worked in the gardens. From the discussions it became clear that participants often encountered setbacks in their efforts to establish income-generating projects. In their opinion these setbacks or problems had very little to do with business skills and business acumen.   Participants cited crime and vandalism in some communities as reasons for the failure of establishing food gardens. From the data it appeared that a combination of factors inhibited the establishment of job creation projects. The majority of participants were eager to facilitate projects that could lead to providing some financial income for their clients, but experienced so many incidences of frustration that it left them impotent to pursue job creation as a priority in various communities.

In one particular instance a participant reported the vast amount of money paid to "consultants" to establish the viability and sustainability of food gardens in a

specific community. According to this participant this exercise resulted in very little positive outcome for the community. According to the participant the consultants knew from the outset that this particular entrepreneurial initiative could not succeed. They allowed second-hand materials to be used with the result that the food garden hardly produced enough fresh produce for the two people involved to use at home. The participant felt that the practical experience she gained over a number of years with regard to entrepreneurial activity was in fact very negative. The extreme negative experiences voiced by this participant were echoed by a number of other participants. The following selected quotations are indicative of these views as expressed by participants:

> *"I want to see something working! Even with the sewing*
> *project in our organization people are making little money.*
> *People are still desperate".*

> *"I have never seen a sustainable project anywhere!*
> *I have asked everywhere and have not seen one!*
> *I think a sustainable project should provide at least*
> *an income of R 800.00 per month. Why should a*
> *person be satisfied with a few bunches of spinach?*
> *People have the same hopes and needs as people in rich areas.*
> *I would like to see examples of entrepreneurship with good results".*

> *"People worked day and night and after four or five months*
> *they earned R400.00 to R500.00 between five of them!"*

The picture that emerged from the data was that any negative experience regarding job creation projects impacted significantly on the motivation and perception of participants to pursue entrepreneurial activities.

In the discussion of this theme, the perceptions of some of the participants that community projects where large numbers of people were involved were destined for failure, emerged quite strongly. These participants reported that in their experience community projects were often characterized by power struggles and disagreements. In their opinion more could be gained from assisting an individual to initiate a business venture that had the potential to blossom into a business where more people could be employed. The following quotations indicated the perceptions expressed by participants of the importance of finding that one "champion" in the community that has the initiative and the ability to succeed in an entrepreneurial venture:

> *"Sometimes you need to start with one person!"*

> *"In my opinion community projects do not work.*
> *There are always in-fighting. It is better to help one person*
> *start for example a daycare operation and that person can*
> *then employ more people. I have a good example of a person*
> *starting a daycare with 3 children and now look after 25 children,*
> *all are paying for the service".*

One participant reported that income-generating activities where a production line was involved, for example the packaging of products, had the best outcome. This participant also indicated that this kind of activity is often reserved for people with disabilities. According to the participant contracts for the packaging of products are not easy to obtain as companies can choose to employ able-bodied people at very low wages.

Another participant expressed the opinion that job creation for people with disabilities has become increasingly difficult due to various laws that have been passed in favour of Labour Unions. In the opinion of this participant the Labour Unions supported first and foremost job opportunities for able-bodied people and

344

showed very little understanding for the need to assist the disabled in securing paid employment. According to this participant the Labour Unions are of the opinion that people with disabilities are entitled to receive a disability pension and for that reason should not be eligible for the available positions in the open labour market. For social workers working in the field of care for the disabled, the position of various Labour Unions has become a significant obstacle in serving their clients effectively. Turmusani (2003: 1) contributed the following in this regard: "The relationship between poverty, disability and employment is in fact a vicious circle". Turmusani (2003: 2) expanded on this discussion and added the following perspective: "Yet, poverty, social and economic deprivation is the everyday experience of people with impairments in developing countries. Their access to various services is often restricted and their opportunity to secure enough income to meet their basic needs is almost non-existent. This makes remunerated employment a matter of economic survival for disabled people and their families".

The following quotation reflected the perception of one of the participants with regard to income-generating activities for people with disabilities:

> *"Job creation for people with disabilities in this country*
> *is more difficult than ever. Because of the stance of*
> *Labour Unions we are confronted on a daily basis*
> *with Unions that would rather not have the disabled*
> *compete for the available jobs out there!"*

The literature reviewed (compare Mayfield, 1997: 417-419; Swilling and Wooldridge, 1997: 487; Munslow, Fitzgerald and McLennan, 1997: 3-13; and Sparks, 2003: 331) reflected the general consensus that development and underdevelopment are extremely complex phenomena.

Visser and Sunter (2002: 162) added to this discussion regarding the difficulties and obstacles on the path to sustainability and voiced the following opinion: "And being a complex issue, the problem is not going to go away at any time soon. For decades to come, poverty will remain the single biggest threat to social sustainability".

The encouragement and development of entrepreneurial activities are important ways of enhancing the physical, material, social and cultural welfare of people. Sunter (1998: 28) referred to the views expressed by Dr Pundy Pillay from the Deputy President's Office. Dr Pillay pointed out that antipoverty strategies in developing countries had two predominant objectives: a growth-oriented economic policy to increase employment and the provision of basic social services as a safety net. Dr Pillay stressed that the Malaysian experience showed it takes time to conquer the problem of poverty. He also indicated that government should no longer be considered a major source of job creation. Thus, welfare initiatives would have to be structured in such a way that they were not hand-outs to passive recipients but a source of empowerment which led people to take charge of their own lives. Sunter (1998: 28) concluded in the following way: "Basically, don't look for quick fixes because even the poor don't expect them; don't waste time any more with rhetoric but concentrate only on ideas that can easily lead to action; and help people to help themselves".

Gray (1998: 59) emphasized this viewpoint by stating unequivocally: "True empowerment comes with economic independence". James-Mseme (2002: 51) was in agreement with the view of Gray and in her opinion poverty alleviation is a critical national priority, and must be at the forefront of all initiatives. This author stated that job creation must be aggressively promoted in all sectors of the South African society. Lee and Woolard (2002: 1) also supported this view and stated that policy measures to combat unemployment should be as diverse as possible in nature. Sunter (1998: 40) added his voice to this debate and stated the following in this regard: "Thus, to eliminate poverty and create a full employment

economy, the focus must now be on microeconomics and the family – and should move away from macroeconomics and grand solutions".

The majority of the participants regarded skills training and development of people as important, but not specifically and exclusively with the objective of creating or establishing entrepreneurs. The impression was created that participants believed that should their clients obtain business skills and knowledge, they would prefer that the client try to secure paid employment in an established industry. The general opinion was that successful income generating projects were few and far between. In their opinion entrepreneurship based on theoretical knowledge was quite far removed from the practical experience and severe difficulties they encountered in their daily contacts with individuals and communities.

The perceptions and experiences recounted by the participants appeared to suggest that the creation of entrepreneurial ventures and income-generating projects were not regarded as a priority. From the data it appeared as if the participants believed that their unemployed clients have a better chance of finding employment in the established formal labour market. Unfortunately the situation in the formal labour market seems to be less than favourable. The literature reviewed highlights the fact that South Africa's extraordinary unemployment levels exist within the context of specific employment shifts that have occurred in the economy over the last few decades (Bhorat, 2001: 3; Proudly South African, 2003: 1). Bhorat (2001: 3) indicated that in terms of skill levels, the sectoral change in employment reveals that the need for highly skilled workers (concentrated in the service sectors) has risen dramatically. Unfortunately, the demand for unskilled workers has plummeted. Dominelli (2002: 82) contributed the following to this discussion: "Poverty is another social ill that has been aggravated by the loss of highly paid, full-time posts. Both men and women lose out in these trends". Other authors (compare Sparks, 2003: 338; Erasmus and Steyn, 2002: 11 and Mulholland, 2002: 200) concurred with this

347

sentiment and indicated that job opportunities within the formal sector are shrinking at an ever-increasing rate. Blaauw and Bothma (2003: 2) clarified this perspective and added their view to this discussion: "Unemployment is expected to increase because the number of new entrants into the labour market far outweighs the employment opportunities that can be created in the formal sector, given the current economic conditions in South Africa".

Erasmus and Steyn (2002: x) further elaborated on this theme and contributed the following perspective: "South Africa re-entered the world economy with several disadvantages of which an exceptionally high unemployment rate and a low-skilled labour force were the most challenging. Each year over the past decade increasing numbers of jobs have been destroyed in South Africa. There are virtually no jobs for the hundreds of thousands of (apparently better qualified) new entrants to the labour market, let alone the backlog of millions who have been unable to find a job or who cannot generate an income on their own initiative".

Sunter (1998: 17) expounded on the perspective that the macroeconomic system will not provide job opportunities for the millions of job seekers. Sunter stated the following in this regard: "I believe that we have to destroy the myth that if big government, big business and big labour get together they can somehow pull a rabbit out of the hat and create millions of new jobs. It just isn't going to happen that way. Rather, it will be because we create a climate conducive for existing entrepreneurs to grow their businesses and for new entrepreneurs to open up additional enterprises. Hence, I have been advocating for some time that the focus of the RDP should be changed from home ownership to the creation of a new entrepreneurial class in South Africa. The reason for promoting this is that joblessness is more fundamental than homelessness. If a person has a job, he can buy a house; but if he doesn't have a job, even if you give him a house he can't maintain it". Sunter (1998: 17) concluded that it is only through the creation of millions of enterprises that millions of jobs will be created. Sparks (2003: 338)

348

supported this view and in his opinion the informal sector is ballooning everywhere in the developing world. Globalization, with its downsizing and outsourcing, drives more people out of the formal economy. According to Sparks (2003: 339) the informal sector accounts for between 40% and 60% of the total workforce in most of the developing countries. Bhorat (2001: 6) contributed more ideas to this debate and in his opinion employment trends over the last few years indicated nothing surprising, i.e. that aggregate employment grew at modestly low levels, with the informal sector being a job creator and the formal sector a job shedder.

Some of the participants in discussing the encouragement and development of income-generating projects, focused more directly on the emotional or moral support provided by the social worker to persuade people to act on those possibilities and activities that they are able to do. These participants expressed the opinion that the social worker needs to unleash the inner potential of the client and that the motivation of people can be instrumental in obtaining an improved standard of living. The picture painted by these participants seemed to be one of not giving too much direct advice or suggestions to their clients. These participants expressed the opinion that people should not be "pushed" into job creation projects or income-generating activities. The following quotations pointed to the perceptions of some of the participants that people in fact need direction and vision more than anything else:

> *"What is most important is that you give people vision,*
> *for example that you can grow vegetables in your*
> *own backyard! At least you can have enough*
> *for supper. People have the potential to do*
> *something for themselves. The best thing for*
> *me is not to push them. In their own time*
> *they will know that they are not completely helpless".*

"The relationship between the social worker and
the individual client or the community is very important.
People need to make informed decisions based
on adequate information. People need to know that
there are different options. We can do this together.
People can't be forced to do certain things. They need skills".

"The decision is with the group. Ownership is
important. Give them the option –
they must buy into the project – ownership".

The following theme relates to the training and education of social workers and their perceptions of the skills and knowledge required from social workers to deliver effective services.

THEME THREE: TRAINING AND EDUCATION OF SOCIAL WORKERS

The training and education of social workers was recognized in all the focus group discussions as extremely important and most of the participants were in agreement as to the significance of including business skills and training as part of the social work curriculum.

A review of the literature also endorsed the findings with regard to business skills and training, forming an integral part of the knowledge base of social workers.
The reviewed literature (compare Potgieter, 1998: 242-243; Midgley, 1999 and Sewpaul, 2001: 317) indicated that social workers needed to be educated on the subject of economics and be informed as to the extent that economic development and trade policies create the structural context of the communities in which they work. Sewpaul (2001: 309) contributed an accurate description as to the reasons for this perspective: "There are several compelling reasons for

social workers to understand how macro-economic policies impact on welfare. Social work, as a core human service discipline, is often left to pick up the consequences of macro-socio-political and economic policies as they impact directly on people's lives at the micro-level". Bent-Goodley (2002: 293) emphasized this perspective and contributed the following: "Training social workers to view themselves as producers of entrepreneurial programs may help them to stop allowing other professions to dictate the tone of human services". The participants that do support a business perspective in the social work profession are in line with the opinion of Prigoff. According to Prigoff (2000: xii) economics to a great extent, determine the resources that will be available to social workers and their clients. In Prigoff's opinion (2000: xii) it is in the interests of social work clients and the service profession itself that its practitioners should understand economic processes and policies, and should be able to apply that knowledge to current local and global issues. This author stressed the fact that in these years of economic volatility, social work professionals must be informed if they are to be effective in promoting a better life for their clients and for the society in which they work. It is important for social workers to encourage the full integration of clients into all aspects of community life and therefore also to be part of the economic activity in a community. (Compare Noyoo, 2000: 463.) Encouraging the economic independence of clients is a significant part of the empowerment of the individual client or a community. Bent-Goodley (2002: 298) expressed very clear views in this regard and emphasized the following: "Social workers should be encouraged to be creative and to take risks, which encourages entrepreneurial ventures to innovate inside of service delivery, to undertake new initiatives, and to take a chance in creating better opportunities for clients".

The following quotations pointed to the perceptions of participants that business skills and knowledge are necessary tools in the armour of social workers:

"In the social work degree – in our training –
the business plan is very important".

"It is important that student training be improved".

"I agree with business skills training. The Department of Labour
should now provide that training for us".

"Look at the training for social work students. They should not only
learn business jargon but also have an analytical approach. If you
have that you are more equipped and more effective".

"Social workers do not have the theoretical skills. They go back to
the supervisor all the time. They should be more exposed to
business knowledge and in that way be more effective".

Most participants agreed that there should be business skills training for undergraduate social work students. There was overall agreement as to the importance of social workers being able to write a business plan. There was also agreement as to the importance of having the necessary business knowledge in order to empower clients. Participants expressed the view that the Department of Labour should provide the necessary business training for social workers that never had exposure to business knowledge during their university training as social workers. The researcher is of the impression that most of the participants acknowledged that the traditional approaches to social work were not successful in addressing the socio-economic needs of communities in the new South Africa.

Sturgeon (1998: 27) referred to the White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997, in this regard where it is stated as follows: "The challenge facing the welfare system is to devise appropriate and integrated strategies to address the alienation and the economic and social marginalisation of vast sectors of the population who are

living in poverty, are vulnerable, and have special needs". Sturgeon's (1998: 28) interpretation of the guidelines provided by the White Paper for Social Welfare (1997) entailed that new programmes will be devised and community development strategies will be employed to address material, physical and psycho-social needs. In her opinion the intention is to shift the emphasis from social work intervention on an individual basis to more holistic strategies, which can reach the broader community.

Another participant felt strongly that social workers could no longer ignore and neglect the very important business aspect of social development and more specifically of community development. According to this participant social welfare organizations should take cognizance of the potential of the social worker and encourage him/her to optimize his or her potential. The participant stressed that very often the real problem lies with the management of welfare organizations who are unable and seem to be unwilling to change according to the demands of the new South Africa.

The following quotation indicated the perception of the participant:

> *"Too many social workers are narrow-minded.*
> *Social workers need to constantly develop*
> *themselves to keep one step ahead.*
> *What is needed is a holistic approach".*

A participant employed by a non-governmental organization was of the opinion that the management of an organization is all-important with regard to the execution of the task at hand. From the data it appeared that the participants were of the opinion that very often management needs to be persuaded to implement the necessary procedures to ensure sustainability of projects. This is indicative of a resistance to change. Social workers have to be empowered to render effective and sufficient social work services. There are multiple roles,

353

responsibilities and expectations placed on social workers. Cronje (1998: 104) was of the opinion that the transition from traditional, bureaucratic, authoritarian management models to participatory, empowering, capacity-building approaches in welfare agencies and in local communities, is the greatest challenge facing social work managers in South Africa today. In Cronje's (1998: 104) words: "Welfare agencies can no longer ignore the changing social context within which they operate". Dominelli (2002: 159) made a substantial contribution to this debate by claiming that initiating organizational change in welfare institutions is very often not an easy task. She stated the following in this regard: "For social workers, organizational change has to occur within their own organizations, in their relationships with clients and in the broader society within which they are embedded. Engaging in organizational change means that social workers have to subject their own agencies to scrutiny and find ways of making good the shortcomings they find within their own institutions".

In direct contrast to the above discussion one participant felt strongly that social workers do not need to have a business perspective. This participant questioned whether it is part of social workers' responsibility to address the basic economic needs of a community. In the opinion of this participant, a social worker with an interest in business studies should study and develop his or her skills in their own time. According to this participant the particular interest of the social worker is of paramount importance and should guide the person and the organization as to how the social worker will be deployed as to best serve the profession. This particular participant stressed the fact that in the current socio-economic climate in South Africa, there will always be the need for individual casework because of the growing phenomena of child neglect and family violence and the failure of the extended family to care for orphaned children. The participant alluded frequently to the dire position of social workers in South Africa, swamped with many hundreds of individual cases and was of the opinion that there is more than enough work for social workers dealing with "traditional" social work.

In Gray's opinion (1998: 24) there is general agreement that while there will always be a need for clinically trained social workers, they can only cater to a very small part of the South African population. Gray (1998: 24) stated in this regard the following: "The changed political scenario is forcing social workers to confront poverty, to re-evaluate their helping methods and to fulfil their commitment to social justice". McKendrick (in Sturgeon, 1998: 25) added to this debate and summarised this particular dilemma as follows: "one cannot "casework people out of poverty".

However, some participants also had a negative perception about what they regarded as being another load placed on the social worker. In their opinion social workers have to deal with an excessive workload. Many social workers are responsible for individual casework, conducting group sessions and initiating community projects. From the data it appeared that the participants were of the opinion that business skills and training, job creation and the encouragement of entrepreneurship are areas of concern only for the social worker specializing in community work. According to these participants it is unrealistic of the management of social work organizations to expect these social workers to handle individual casework and conduct group therapy. The impression is created that many social workers are "overloaded" with the result that it is very difficult for them to educate themselves with regard to business skills and knowledge. It is for that reason that job creation projects are often haphazardly put together with very little positive results. It is the researcher's opinion that this can have a severe negative influence on the quality and quantity of future job creation ventures.

The following quotations pointed to the perceptions of participants that the establishment of entrepreneurial ventures, income-generating projects and business development places an additional responsibility on social workers, one for which they were not always sufficiently knowledgeable or adequately equipped:

355

"More and more is expected of the social worker.

Marketing and job creation should be with different departments.

Social workers need other professionals".

"What is needed in a "One-Stop-Shop" where

social workers can network and obtain business

referrals and information. An information

network for social workers is desperately needed".

"The person comes to me for help but I don't know where I am!"

One participant in response to this discussion reported that in their organization, because of the specialized nature of the work, a specifically appointed community worker dealt with skills development, marketing and job placement for clients.

The following theme dealt with the place, value and role of important relationships within the working environment of the social worker.

> **THEME FOUR: NETWORKING AND PARTNERSHIPS BETWEEN STATE DEPARTMENTS, NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS AND SOCIAL SERVICE PROVIDERS**

It became clear from the focus group discussions that the participants were often frustrated with the lack of support and coordination from the various government departments. Many of the participants felt powerless to effectively serve their clients because of the obstacles they encounter in dealing with various government departments. Most of the participants felt that they wasted many hours on duplicating documents and trying to locate the official dealing with their

applications. In their opinion there exists very little continuity in the services offered by the various departments. The following quotation illustrated the perception of participants:

> *"Social services are fragmented. There is no coordination.*
> *Social Development is unable to coordinate services".*

Although various departments offer training and support in terms of literacy and skills training, participants express the concern that many obstacles are put in the way of accessing the training. The participants raised a number of key issues regarding the perceived lack of support and services from various government departments:

> *"We are told that training through the Department of Labour*
> *is available but a person comes to the social worker*
> *but the social worker is frustrated!*
> *We cannot solve the problem because there*
> *is not one single source where we can find help for our clients!"*

> *"They* [Department of Labour] *will only train for*
> *projects they have identified. "Their projects"*
> *are given preference. Projects must be up and*
> *running! How do you have a project without training*
> *the people first? Department of Education says that*
> *people with disabilities are not their problem!*
> *People need skills to get a job or any work!"*

> *"You first need literacy training for people before*
> *you can start a business. You need*
> *a step-by-step approach. You need a business plan.*
> *You need to determine the needs first".*

357

It became clear from the focus group discussions that participants wanted the various government departments to acknowledge the contributions made by social workers and social service providers in meeting social service needs and promoting development. Participants expressed the view that the various government departments need to acknowledge social workers from non-governmental organizations and other social service providers as partners in community development. Some of the participants were of the opinion that their relationships with the various government departments are characterized as an "us and them" situation. From the discussions it became clear that the participants did not experience synergy in their working relationships with the government departments.

In the context of this study, the picture painted by the participants appeared to be that they do not have the financial or structural means to support their clients in their efforts to better their own circumstances. They resented the fact that they were not consulted as to the priorities for spending what they perceive as vast amounts of money received from overseas donors. They further expressed concern regarding the difficulty in raising funds for their own organizations due to the fact that many national and international donors are now donating money directly to the various government departments. (Compare Johnson, 2002: 3.) The Charities Aid Foundation ([sa]: 2) confirmed this perspective. This organization stated the following in this regard: "Following the transition to democracy, the non-profit sector in South Africa is facing severe problems. The most important of these is the drastic reduction in funding from outside South Africa. In the final apartheid years, huge sums poured into the South African non-profit sector from governments and other overseas sources, reflecting the desire of European governments and the USA to put pressure on the South African authorities. Now the funds have largely dried up or are being directed to government departments".

In the view of the participants it has become increasingly difficult to raise funds for development projects because leading companies now have their own social responsibility departments and allocate funds to support those causes that they have identified as important. It is also true that companies that do donate funds insist on regular and consistent feedback coupled with accurate financial audited reports. The following quotation reflected the perception of a number of the participants:

> *"The government received many millions of donated funds for development. Why do we have to struggle to receive some of that money for bona fide projects? We submit documents to the Department. They claim that they have never received those documents. We have to photocopy documents again and again. So many hours are lost trying to locate the contact person! It is extremely frustrating working with the Department".*

The description appeared to suggest that for the participants, the perception was that generally the various government departments have the funds and the technical means to address those very pressing issues in community development, but for various reasons fail to do so. Dominelli (2002: 125) stated clearly that accountability has become an important part of supporting social responsibility programmes. Participants expressed the view that social workers have to be provided with resources, e.g. finances to do their work effectively. It is clear from the sentiments expressed by the participants that clear communication channels between private welfare organizations and government departments can go a long way to create better partnerships in the future.

Participants expressed concern and frustration regarding the many changes made by the various departments with regard to procedures and documentation

required by the departments. Participants made it clear that they wished to empower their clients by providing technical assistance and financial and emotional support. Their daily efforts in this regard were often in vain due to the ineffectiveness of bureaucracy. The following selected quotations made reference to the ways in which participants perceived the various government departments as not being supportive:

"There are millions of people without jobs.
There are empty government-owned buildings in
our area but the authorities will only allow certain
projects to go ahead. We have done all the homework
at great financial cost. The Department of Social
Services and Development would not consider
the merits of our proposal. The church did everything
required to deliver a well-researched business plan
and proposal but because it did not fit one of the
seven projects identified by the Department,
it was rejected. We will not approach the Department again".

"Policies, rules and regulations should be clear
and precise for all to understand. I have encountered
two officials from the same department with
totally different views and interpretations of the same policy
document!"

"It is clear that the policymakers do not know what
it is we are dealing with on ground level. Social workers
need to be involved in the formulation of policies".

"The government is looking for signs of "empowerment",
but will not assist us financially or support our efforts!"

In addition to this participants felt that their own management needs to be clear on the direction of their approach to poverty alleviation, job creation and overall community development. In the literature reviewed, Cronje (1998: 106) referred to the contribution of Abels and Murphy in outlining the key principles pertinent to the development of empowering management practices. According to Abels and Murphy (in Cronje, 1998: 106) agencies should have a clear vision of their aims and solutions to organisational and social problems. In Cronje's opinion (1998: 107) welfare agencies are rethinking their intervention strategies and philosophies. In his view it is no longer acceptable for an organization to be a closed system, separate from and unresponsive to its environment. The present situation demands that agencies be open to new policies, which emphasises the participation and involvement of staff, client constituencies and key community people in decision-making.

With regard to the plans and strategies in place to enhance people's participation in projects to improve sustainability, one of the participants voiced the following perception:

> *"The decision is with the group. Ownership is important.*
> *Give them the option – they must buy into the project – ownership***".**

Another participant expressed the opinion that a change in service delivery strategy needs to be in place before the sustainability of projects can be ensured. The following quotations reflected this sentiment:

> *"The question whether a project is sustainable or not,*
> *cannot be answered. It is a question of trail and error!"*

> *"It is really about a paradigm shift. We have to provide*
> *a service but also be able to provide people*

with life skills so that they can contribute to the business side".

From the data it appeared that participants were of the opinion that without a sound organizational foundation and solid structure they have great difficulty in making meaningful contributions to communities. In their opinion all services needed to be streamlined. These questions drew a number of substantial comments and ideas from participants. The following quotations reflected the views and perceptions of the participants:

> ***"In one organization where I spent a year, things have***
> ***not changed in 30 years! Very often the same forms***
> ***are used! New, enthusiastic workers are confronted***
> ***by social workers with an uncompromising, rigid***
> ***approach. I have personal knowledge of two***
> ***very big traditional welfare organizations where the***
> ***social workers are extremely rigid in their thinking.***
> ***They have done things in a particular way for many,***
> ***many years and want things to remain the same!"***

From the data it appeared that an openness and readiness to embrace change from the management of organizations seemed to be very important for some of the participants. The following quotations reflected these perceptions:

> ***"NGOs, social service organizations and others should***
> ***be flexible. You have to keep pace with change.***
> ***We do experience resistance from our own management***
> ***from time to time and then you have to convince***
> ***them to make certain changes".***

> ***"The future is not "welfare". We need to combine***
> ***social work skills with those skills needed in business.***

A "welfare approach" will not satisfy employers and
companies in the future. Companies want some return
on their investment when they employ people;
able-bodied or people with disabilities. Companies want
to know what they can get from the "deal".

We can no longer afford to beg! In all partnerships the
question is: What are you doing from your side for
job creation? NGO's should have a service unit on the
one side and a business unit on the other side".

"We need so many things to make our projects work-
money, transport, job creation, permanent jobs
and other professionals to help!"

The picture that seemed to emerge from the data was that participants recognized that small-scale employment, i.e. micro-enterprises can contribute significantly to poverty alleviation. It must be stressed that participants also expressed the view that the encouragement of entrepreneurs was only one avenue of addressing large-scale unemployment. A number of participants expressed the view that government should support any large-scale employment opportunity, i.e. factories and public works projects in order to create employment opportunities on a large scale. Participants wanted to see evidence of good collaboration between government departments and the private welfare sector.

With regard to networking it became clear to the researcher that the participants were not involved in networking or collaboration to a great extent. A review of the literature in this regard revealed that collaboration is to work with another person or professional in order to achieve set objectives jointly. According to Woods (1998: 204) there is the need for coordination of resources in communities as well as having a regularly updated directory of services. In his opinion effective

coordination depended on professional workers having contact with each other, including formal conferences, workshops and forums. Rogge and Darkwa (1996: 402-403) were very clear on the importance of interdisciplinary collaboration and for the social work profession to become informed about the physical, mental and economic consequences of environmental problems. Dominelli (2002: 125) contributed to this debate and stated the following: "Social workers can form alliances with others concerned about enfranchising marginalized people to hold governments and corporations accountable. They can also engage in consciousness-raising endeavours that are aimed at ensuring that the population more generally accepts the idea of being responsible for others unknown to them as part of their own explication of citizenship".

The picture that seemed to emerged from the data was that participants for example were not aware of literacy projects in their area and did not know where to turn for help in setting up literacy training for illiterate clients. The significance of adult literacy training and the important role for the social work profession in addressing the backlog in adult literacy training and lifelong learning was discussed in detail in chapter four of this research report. A review of the literature reflected the general consensus that social workers need to collaborate with other professionals in various fields. Participants did not indicate any collaboration with professionals from the health profession regarding support for people living with HIV/AIDS. Woods (1998: 208) made a valuable contribution in this regard: "In addition, HIV/AIDS in South Africa is dealt with not only by social workers operating directly in the health sector, but also by those working in the spheres of welfare, social development, education, employment and law. If social workers work together and focus on networking, then social work as a profession can make a worthwhile contribution to the war against HIV/AIDS". Batschari (2002: 72) emphasized that HIV/AIDS is one of the biggest challenges to sustainable development, not only for communities but also for all stakeholders involved in development work. The scourge of HIV/AIDS with particular reference to Southern Africa was discussed in great length in chapter three of this research

report. The poverty implications of this disease and the impact on the lives of children and young adults were highlighted in chapter four of this report. From the literature reviewed it was clear that HIV/AIDS require responses from multiple pedagogical, organizational and developmental frameworks simultaneously (Walters, 2001: 3).

Participants did not indicate that they were involved in any collaboration with education authorities, including schoolteachers and headmasters, as far as financial or social support for learners in primary and secondary schools were concerned. No indication was given that any collaboration existed with the criminal justice system and law enforcement agencies. Shapiro (1998: 152) expressed the following in this regard: "To date probation has been the traditional area of social work involvement within the criminal justice system. Increasingly, however, social workers are changing to a people-centred developmental approach. Social workers have the capacity to organise community safety initiatives, to contribute to crime-prevention programmes and to provide advocacy and leadership in creating a strong, safe and free alternative to fear-filled lives which many South Africans lead". (Compare Charities Aid Foundation, [sa]: 1.) According to Shapiro (1998: 168) social workers have an important role to play in dealing with the causes of crime and can engage in crime-prevention work on different levels of intervention: through direct service, by strengthening networks and through advocacy. Venter (2002: 161) supported this perspective without reservation and stated the following in this regard: "High levels of crime lead to lower levels of financial investment in an economy; this leads to fewer resources, which increases conflict and induces higher levels of social stress, which produces damaging childhood environments and upbringing practices, which create a more violence-prone society, which becomes conducive to rising authoritarianism, which stifles the human spirit, which inhibits enterprise, which produces poverty, which takes one back to the crime you started with…. For the chain reaction to begin again, soon becoming a downward-spiralling vortex". Social workers in collaboration with other role-players could lobby for changes in

legislation that could lead to a greater emphasis on preventative work, for example in school settings.

Gray (1998: 72) made a valuable contribution in this regard: "At the same time, however, we must remember at all times that community development is an intersectoral, multidisciplinary approach. The community development worker has to learn how to network and interact with other role-players involved in the development of the community". Co-operation, information exchange and collaboration can enrich a person's understanding and awareness and encourage projects and initiatives vital to the positive development of social work practice. Popple (2002: 156) added his voice to this debate and contributed the following valuable perspective on community work: "We must remember that community work is about working with people in ways to encourage and empower them to do things for themselves. Therefore, the role of the worker centres on helping people to learn new skills, build self-confidence and develop talents and abilities. A good deal of community work focuses on gaining and disseminating information that can be applied by the neighbourhood or community". Popple further stated that this kind of information is usually concerned with welfare and housing but may include strategic information about local authority plans for the area. In Popple's (2002: 156) opinion community work has often been associated with the slogan "information is power". He emphasized the fact that with adequate and appropriate information, communities can make informed decisions and take action. The perspective voiced by Popple is of particular significance in the context of this research study. Social workers need to harvest the efforts and contributions of local voluntary organizations, as well as organizations with a national profile to maximize the amount of information available to all stakeholders concerned with community upliftment. The direction advocated by Bailey and Brake (in Langan, 2002: 213) as far back as 1975 rings true today: "We are supposed to "help" our "clients" by making them "accept responsibility" – in other words, come to terms as individuals with basically unacceptable situations. We must counterpose to this

366

the possibility of changing their situation by collective action. We can only do this by acting collectively ourselves".

In summary Mackintosh (1998: 135) provided valuable insight when he stated that the challenge for social work in South Africa is to develop, to the fullest possible extent, a range of appropriate responses to the most critical and difficult issues that face South Africa at this time. (Compare Drower, 2002: 9-10; Sewpaul, 2001: 320.)

The researcher is of the impression that a combination of a lack of recognition for accomplishments from their own management and from various government departments, coupled with the demands and work-related stress, created a mindset with the participants that very little can be achieved to uplift the standard of living in poor communities in a sustainable manner.

5.9   CONCLUSION

Following the focus group discussions, the data was organized around emerging themes and subsequently examined in relation to the literature reviewed in chapters two, three and four. The four themes discussed above were the most prominent ones identified throughout the focus group discussions. The focus group discussions provided opportunities for participants to express their perceptions and ideas regarding sustainable development and the role of the social worker within the sustainable development paradigm. As indicated at the beginning of this chapter, this research was an exploratory study and resulted in a process of discovery regarding the frame of reference, perceptions and ideas of the participants concerning sustainable development.

The following chapter will focus on the conclusions drawn from this study as well as recommendations for possible future action.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1   INTRODUCTION

In chapter five the qualitative data was presented and discussed. The purpose of this final chapter is to focus on the conclusions drawn from the study and to offer recommendations for a future research agenda. The conclusions and recommendations made in this chapter are based on the literature study and the findings of the empirical research. In order to determine whether or not, and to what extent, the research has achieved what it set out to achieve, it is necessary to compare the qualitative data against the objectives of the research, which is directly linked to the research questions as formulated in chapter one. The researcher will therefore indicate how the objectives of this study were achieved. First, the researcher will indicate conclusions with regard to the broad, overall sustainable development paradigm (Objective 1). Thereafter, the researcher will indicate the conclusions drawn from the perceptions, attitudes, frame of reference and knowledge base of social workers with regard to the concept of sustainable development and the application of social work practice within this paradigm (Objective 2). Finally, based on the key findings and conclusions of the study, recommendations are made (Objective 3).

6.2   PURPOSE, GOAL AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

6.2.1   Purpose of the research study

As stated in chapter one of this research report, the purpose of this study was to explore and construct a foundation of general perceptions and tentative theories

368

with regard to sustainable development and the position and value of the social work profession within the sustainable development paradigm.

6.2.2 Goal of the research study

The goal of this research study was to explore current social work practice with regard to sustainable development and identify new challenges and opportunities for sustainable social work practice in the changing South Africa.

6.2.3 Objectives of the study

In the following discussion the respective objectives of the study will be given with a brief indication of how they have been achieved in this study.

Objective 1: To explore, through a literature study, the theoretical framework of the concept sustainable development and its applicability in social work.

Chapter One highlighted the broad theoretical framework of this research study. Included in chapter one were the definitions of the main theoretical components used throughout the study.

Chapter Two "The Sustainable Development Paradigm" focused extensively on the exploration of the concept sustainable development. The history, development and various descriptions of the concept were thoroughly explored. The various perspectives regarding the sustainable development paradigm were described in detail. The very essence of the sustainable development paradigm, namely, the three pillars of sustainable development: economic development and growth, social development and progress (encompassing cultural and political aspects) and environmental protection and conservation, and the

369

interconnectedness and interrelationships between the three dimensions were of particular significance in the context of this study.

Chapter Three of this research study focused extensively on poverty, underdevelopment and unemployment as the most important elements/ phenomena to be addressed in the process of working towards achieving sustainable development.

Chapter Four dealt with the discipline of social work within the context of the sustainable development paradigm. A number of innovative intervention strategies to address the problems of poverty, underdevelopment and unemployment, were discussed.

The first objective was achieved and in summary the following conclusions were reached evident from the reviewed available literature, with regard to the broad, overall sustainable development paradigm:

- A significant number of crucial environmental, economic and social issues confront most communities all over the world today. The situation is no different for South Africa as a society and part of the world.   Critical environmental threats together with persistent poverty need to be addressed without delay.

- From the literature survey, detailed descriptions of the concept "sustainable development" were derived. The literature study indicated that there indeed exists a wide spectrum of different understandings regarding the sustainable development paradigm.

- Sustainable human development, sustainable industry and sustainable agriculture are all related to the quality of life in a community. Sustainable development implies that the economic, social and environmental systems

370

that are integral parts of the community are providing a healthy, productive and meaningful life for all community residents, present and future.

- The economic, social and environmental dimensions are inextricably linked and inextricably interconnected.

- The literature study further indicated that a great number of economists, environmentalists, community developers and politicians are actively supporting sustainable development because of the promise of a better world that it holds.

- In the context of sustainability, economics is about the material goods and services necessary in the lives of people, from basic necessities to those goods and services that make life more enjoyable and serves as a means to a better life for people everywhere.

- All countries, rich and poor, face environmental problems that are often closely linked with efforts to reduce poverty and thereby improve the standard of living of communities.

- The relationship between economic development and the environment is indeed a complex issue and the escalation of economic activity can both cause environmental problems and, with the appropriate policies and institutions, help solve them.

- Economic development is a crucial component of the sustainable development process to enable communities to progress. Economic growth and development is necessary to generate the resources needed for all kinds of development. The increasing level of unemployment, the lack of job security, an increase in the cost of utilities such as sanitation and water services, electricity, telecommunications and transport, have resulted in

increased levels of frustration for many millions of people living in sprawling townships and underdeveloped rural areas.

- Greater economic strength and higher standards of living in all countries contribute to a healthy, vigorous and competitive world economy.

- The increased interdependence among countries that accompanies economic growth and development can be of benefit to all countries.

- The transfer of entrepreneurial skills and business knowledge to unemployed people and disadvantaged communities is essential to break the cycle of economic dependence and deepening poverty.

- A great need exists for innovative social architects. There is a need for reshaping social, cultural and physical existence to better the lives of millions of people living in squalid conditions.

- Communities must be tied to place and the sense of social responsibility for creating healthy, supportive surroundings. A community torn apart by fear and mistrust or exposed to undue hazards from inadequate housing, uncontrolled pollution, environmental destruction and degradation, crime or violence can only lead to more hardship and social instability. Any community finding itself in this kind of predicament cannot establish a sense of cohesion needed for the process of sustainable, comprehensive community development.

- The preservation (or acquisition) of basic human rights and the fulfilment of basic human needs are the fundamental driving forces behind economic transactions, social interactions, and resource consumption. When people are operating under duress in any of these areas, concern for immediate needs overwhelms any consideration for long-term needs, thereby underpinning the whole principle of planning for the future.

- The mission of social workers with regard to sustainable human development should be to widen every possible economic and social development opportunities available to individuals.

- The lack of education facilities and opportunities, coupled with undernourished individuals and inadequate housing contribute to a process of eroding human capital. The development of human capital is a crucial component in the process of sustainable development. Education, skills training, and comprehensive health care contribute significantly to an increase in human capital and subsequently to an increase in social capital.

- A community that allows the quality of its social interactions and networks to decline through lack of trust, respect, and tolerance is eroding its social capital.

- A community that allows its buildings, roads, parks, power facilities, and waste processing capability to decay is eroding its built capital. Social destitution occurs when decay, neglect and waste of resources are not adequately addressed.

- The social and economic realities of people cannot be separated and social workers need to deal with such problems on a multiple system level.

Objective 2: To explore the perceptions, attitudes, frame of reference and knowledge base of social workers and social work administrators towards the concept of sustainable development and social work practice

This objective was achieved through the qualitative study. The empirical study, through a series of focus group discussions, allowed the researcher to identify the perceptions, attitudes, frame of reference and knowledge base of social

workers with regard to the concept of sustainable development and the position of social work practice within this paradigm. Linking the findings of the literature survey and the empirical research led to a number of key findings and conclusions regarding the current position of the social work profession within the paradigm of sustainable development. The participants were not representative of the entire population of social workers involved in community development, job creation initiatives and the establishment of social networks, and therefore, the findings cannot be extrapolated to the universum.

Objective 3: To make recommendations, based on the findings of the study
for sustainable social work practice, social work education
and training, as well as influencing policy-making decisions
and processes.

This objective is met in this chapter (see 6.4 Recommendations).

6.3 KEY FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

In the following discussion the major findings of the study will be synthesized and highlighted as a guiding framework for the conclusions of the study. Four themes emanated from the process of data-analysis. The themes identified were:

- The concept "sustainable development"
- Entrepreneurial activities/ Entrepreneurship
- Training and education of social workers
- Networking and partnerships

6.3.1 The concept "sustainable development"

The key findings indicated that there were general uncertainty amongst participants as to what sustainable development entailed, and more specifically

as to the position, place and value of social work practice within the sustainable development paradigm. It was clearly shown, though, that the participants were aware of some concepts related to sustainable development, but within their working environment had no focus on sustainable development as such. An overview of the literature reinforced the now widely accepted holistic conceptualization of sustainable development, by defining it as a complex, varied mixture of economic, social, political, cultural and environmental aspects that are interacting and interdependent. This broad description is in line with the perspective adopted by the Department of Social Welfare in the promotion of a developmental approach to social welfare. This description also recognized the very important holistic, multisectoral approach to community development. The different dimensions are not neatly packaged separate aspects of community life, but interrelated, enmeshed components of society. Integrating social development with responsible ecological management and sustainable economic development is undoubtedly necessary for achieving sustainability.

The following conclusions were drawn with regard to the key findings:

- Many of the participants perceived sustainable development as something "different" or separate from social work practice.

- This narrow view is partly responsible for the lack of knowledge, insight and understanding as to a true implementation of a developmental approach within the social work profession.

6.3.2 Entrepreneurial activities/ entrepreneurship

An overview of the available literature indicated that the economic dimension of sustainable development (economic growth and development) is a crucial component in the fight against poverty, underdevelopment and unemployment. Economic progress for all people is undeniably a key component of poverty

alleviation. The development of small, medium and micro enterprises are an integral part of an overall economic strategy to advance the progress of all people in South Africa.

The available literature indicated the importance of stimulating entrepreneurial activities as a potential source of income for the unemployed and as a measure to counteract the cycle of dependence and despair. From the research findings it was evident that most participants in the focus groups discussions recognized that entrepreneurial activities could make a substantial contribution to the creation of financial income within a community. Most participants also acknowledged that stimulating entrepreneurial ventures could enhance the empowerment process of individuals and communities. It became clear from the empirical data that the participants were inadequately skilled to effectively assist the client population in economic empowerment.

The research findings indicated that a lack of knowledge and skills regarding entrepreneurship, business development and marketing characterized the frame of reference of the participants. It is clear though that supporting economic activities based on small and medium enterprises and social economic activities are an essential part of the role of the social worker in the new South Africa. This perspective was supported by Ncube (2004: 58) when he emphasized the following: "It is vitally important that South Africa attacks unemployment and social destitution and the only way to do that is education and, of course, economic growth". The growth of formal employment will increase resources for poor communities, but unfortunately the outlook is not that optimistic. The perspective of Ntombazana Botha, Deputy Minister for Provincial and Local Government (2003: 8) further supported these findings. The Deputy Minister believed that her department had an important role in the battle to eradicate poverty and offered the following advice to all stakeholders in addressing the challenges with regard to poverty alleviation: "We need to tackle them on many fronts. We have to support the farmers in every way that we can. We also have to

encourage people to start enterprises of their own. People who start small enterprises that employ only themselves are encouraged, but we particularly like people to start enterprises that function as co-operatives. In this way more people will be employed and more homes will receive an income. An example of this that is already taking place is groups of women doing high quality beadwork for the tourism industry. We have to rekindle the spirit of enterprise in areas where it died during the years of repression". The Deputy Minister (2003: 10) further emphasized that the main challenge facing South Africa is the alleviation and ultimately the eradication of poverty. She stated the following in this regard:

"We have no choice but to improve the quality of life for those of our people who are impoverished. Jobs are getting fewer. The only answer is to redirect people into their own enterprises. To do this, we have to see that our skills base grows. The purpose of the national skills development programme, led by the Department of Labour, is to make people employable both in the job market and in their own enterprises. This is part of the challenge that lies ahead". Small, medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs) are important vehicles to create jobs and promote growth and equity. According to Cross (2001: 1) home-based small businesses form the largest part of the entire info rmal sector. These alternative employment options outside the formal sector are already providing income to unemployed people and this trend needs to be supported and enhanced. In this regard Cross (2001: 2) emphasized that the success of informal enterprises depends centrally on the capacity of the person at the centre – the business operator. Ramarumo (2001: 5) confirmed this viewpoint and stated emphatically in this regard: "The role of poverty alleviation, in close co-operation with other social sectors, is crucial. There is no single country that has succeeded without educating its people. Not only is education an important element of sustaining development but inevitably, it is also a key to wealth creation". The immense task of creating an economic model to combat and overcome the historical challenge of social exclusion demands the active participation of many actors. The effects of poverty and material deprivation confront social workers daily. The destructive effects on the individual's self-esteem, the limitations placed on community

participation and the consequent reduction in the quality of life have been discussed at great length in previous chapters.

The following conclusions were drawn with regard to the abovementioned findings:

- Enterprise development is not only necessary to create more income but serves the important purpose to educate people about their options and different opportunities and encourage the taking of responsibility for their own lives. Intervention strategies have to focus on creating job opportunities through self-employment and small enterprise support. Small, medium and micro-enterprises have the capacity to contribute significantly to South Africa's macro-economy.

- In addition to a more proactive role in the achievement of the objectives relating to the creation of income generating activities, supporting co-operatives, and small and medium enterprises, social workers will have a strategic role to play in advocating for the provision of infrastructure.

- Social workers need to be at the forefront of educating disadvantaged people with low levels of education to become more economically aware and develop the skills to participate and contribute to the economy. This implies not only education at the level of basic numeracy and literacy, but also training that focuses on the needs and problems of micro, small and medium enterprises. Further training courses are needed for semi-literate and literate adults to accelerate learning and overcome low levels of literacy and language problems.

- Social workers cannot limit their actions and responsibilities to short-term interventions. Sustained growth and improvement in the lives of poor, struggling people will ensure a better future for all.

378

- A lack of knowledge regarding entrepreneurship prevented participants from initiating and stimulating business ventures as an integral part of an economic strategy to address poverty and unemployment.

- There is a need to develop appropriate courses to enhance the economic and financial literacy of social workers.

- The social work profession needs to actively contribute to processes and structures that support sustainable economic progress and development in communities. Social workers need to participate in initiatives aimed at strengthening and stimulating economic power in communities.

- A basic knowledge of economics and market forces could serve the social worker well in planning and executing economic activities for the client population. Very often unemployed people have existing skills and resources. Social workers are often responsible for managing and allocating resources. Social workers are responsible for the assessment, planning and monitoring and liaising with other organizations with regard to the implementation of job creation projects and income-generating activities. The social worker needs to have a sound knowledge base of entrepreneurship to motivate the individual to direct his or her efforts to income-generating activities.

6.3.3 Training and education of social workers

Most participants in this research study agreed that there was a need for business skills training and further education with regard to important economic principles for all social work students. The research findings indicated that there was overall agreement as to the importance of social workers being able to construct a business plan. There was also agreement as to the importance of having the necessary business knowledge in order to empower clients. The

research findings further indicated that most of the participants acknowledged that the traditional approaches to social work were not successful in addressing the socio-economic needs of communities in the new South Africa. Sturgeon (1998: 27) referred to the White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997, in this regard where it is stated as follows: "The challenge facing the welfare system is to devise appropriate and integrated strategies to address the alienation and the economic and social marginalisation of vast sectors of the population who are living in poverty, are vulnerable, and have special needs". Sturgeon's (1998: 28) interpretation of the guidelines provided by the White Paper for Social Welfare emphasized that new programmes will be devised and community development strategies will be employed to address material, physical and psycho-social needs. In her opinion the intention was to shift the emphasis from social work intervention on an individual basis to more holistic strategies that can reach the broader community. The paradigm shift in social work service delivery towards developmental social work practice has increased the responsibilities of social workers placing more demands on them for effective and efficient service delivery.

Communities are facing multiple adversities and it is within that context that social workers are needed to assist communities to create better living conditions.

The following conclusions were drawn with regard to the abovementioned findings:

- There is a need for more knowledge regarding sustainable development and the application thereof within the social work domain. Social workers can contribute significantly to the process of equipping people to enable them to claim their rightful place in the economy. Social workers need to recognize not only the multiplicity of causes but also the many interrelationships between and among such causes.

- Social workers need appropriate skills and knowledge to integrate social development with responsible and wise environmental management, coupled with sustainable economic progress and growth. These are the essential components of a holistic approach for sustainable social work practice in an ever-changing society.

- Specific knowledge regarding entrepreneurship, skills development and the creation of income-generating activities are urgently needed. The researcher is of the impression that continuing professional development for social workers in the field of community development could contribute significantly to improved services in all communities. Continuing professional development would improve the social workers' theoretical and practical knowledge. Social workers should be empowered through continuous ongoing education so that they in turn can be actively involved in capacity building in communities. A key learning area would be to facilitate the implementation of sustainable integrated socio-economic development strategies. Social workers need to develop the skills and knowledge to integrate creative solutions and opportunities with available resources. The South African Council for Social Service Professions initiative to launch a pilot project for continuous professional development in 2004 with a view to implement the policy in 2005 is a huge step forward for learning through accredited service providers.

- The challenge remains to develop a "culture of continuous learning" whereby social workers upgrade their skills and extend their knowledge to include business studies and entrepreneurship training. The willingness and ability of social service providers, traditional welfare organizations and non-governmental organizations to respond to the dramatic changes affecting their services will determine whether these institutions and organizations will survive and prosper.

6.3.4 Networking and partnerships

The research findings indicated that participants were often frustrated with the perceived lack of support and continuity in services from various government departments.

The following conclusions were drawn with regard to these findings:

- Social work services are fragmented to the point where social workers find it extremely difficult, or at times, impossible to render effective services to clients.

- The perspective of the participants stemmed from the failure between organizations and various government departments to communicate and collaborate as to what constitute effective service delivery.

- There is a need for focused efforts in the areas of collaboration, the exchange of information and effective coordination of available resources. Procedures to obtain resources and support needed to be streamlined and communicated clearly.

From the perspective represented by the participants the research findings further indicated that community work service delivery were negatively influenced by the lack of synergy and cooperation between various government departments and social work organizations.

The following conclusions were drawn with regard to these findings:

- Participants felt apprehensive and unmotivated to "experiment" with new ideas and strategies to address the social and economic issues confronting communities.

- The challenge remains to develop better ways of cooperation and collaboration between all stakeholders in the social welfare field.

- Networking and effective partnerships are crucial elements in successful service delivery. Networking facilitates exchanging essential knowledge and information. This is not only for the own benefit and career enhancement of social workers, but is in the best interest of communities. Sustained efforts in this regard are necessary to address the vast number of social and economic issues as integral parts of sustainable development.

- Collaboration and cooperation as crucial components in the process of sustainable development are particularly needed in the following areas:

- The **HIV/AIDS pandemic** is a cross-cutting issue in that it impacts on just about every aspect of a community's life. Social workers need to collaborate and exchange information within the profession and with other disciplines with regard to a holistic approach to address the many issues confronting families living with the disease. Walters (2001: 1) emphasized that the HIV/AIDS pandemic is one of the greatest educational challenges facing Southern Africa.

- **Adult Basic Literacy and Training**: literacy promotes citizenship. Education plays an undeniable role in the development of a community. It enables people to demand from governing institutions and lawmakers to act against conditions of poverty and underdevelopment. Literacy is a crucial part of real empowerment.

- Places of learning (**primary, secondary, and tertiary institutions**) should be encouraged to **promote partnerships** that will increase parental and community involvement and participation in promoting the social, emotional,

and academic growth of children and young adults. The **development of human capital as a crucial part of a developmental approach** needs to be recognized by social workers. Social workers need to be proactively involved in places of learning to promote the development of much needed skills and knowledge with regard to entrepreneurship and business development.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings and conclusions drawn, the following recommendations are made:

6.4.1 Information management

- The social work profession needs an information-sharing platform. Networking facilitates the sharing of individual and institutional experience and learning as an element of capacity building. Networking implies information communications technology, in addition to seminars, conferences, discussion groups and the development of practice communities.

- Collaboration is essential and must be reinforced. Social workers need to collaborate with established entrepreneurs and business leaders. There is a need for social workers to have a more thorough understanding of the technical and business aspects of entrepreneurship which will form the basis of improved decision making skills and innovation.

- Social work practitioners have to become self-directed and lifelong learners who will be able to adapt to the changing circumstances in society. Furthermore, social workers in South Africa have to keep up with developments in the profession and have the necessary motivation to develop the relevant specialized skills and qualifications to fulfil the needs of the country.

- A system of sharing best practices and building networks of excellence in targeted research areas can facilitate the advancement of the social work profession. An enabling environment to facilitate sustainable development, require the full involvement of national and local government, non-governmental organizations, the private sector and civil society. This will require all stakeholders to actively contribute to strengthen the "tools" in the amour of the social worker.

- The extent of poverty, despair and misery in many of the communities in South Africa today, compel social workers to deliver the best possible solutions without delay to individuals and communities. Exchanging valuable experiences, strategic information and ideas about working solutions prevent the same mistakes being made. It saves valuable time and enhances people's creativity.

- Social work practitioners as service providers are in a position to create links between various stakeholders that can be of benefit to both. It is only through supportive and continuous feedback processes that successful implementation of projects and programmes can become reality. Social work practitioners need to develop creative strategies within a multidisciplinary approach to address the issues of poverty, underdevelopment and unemployment in a sustainable manner.

- Policy decisions should reflect a holistic, multi-sectoral, integrated process of social and economic development within a sustainable development paradigm. Policy regarding sustainable social work practice needs to allow for more investment in social and human capital.

Information management can be achieved through the establishment of an independent non-governmental organization to facilitate a system of information sharing for the social work profession. All stakeholders in the social and health

service delivery field on a national, provincial and local level need to contribute to the establishment of such an organization.

6.4.2   Continuing professional development

Deliberate educational and knowledge distribution strategies are needed within the social work profession to facilitate the core issues within the sustainable development paradigm.
Extensive emphasis on education with regard to the following areas are needed:

- Within the social work profession a greater emphasis should be placed on, and the redefining of strategies with regard to **Adult Education and Training**. Adult Education and Training serves to strengthen social relations and networks, and the building of cohesion and involvement by individuals. Social work practitioners need to actively contribute to processes and structures that support the delivery of adult literacy and training efforts. Social work practitioners need to provide the impetus for the development of literacy and lifelong learning programmes as a gateway for individuals and communities to fuller participation in social, economic and political life. How people participate in the development process is an important component of sustainable community development.

- **Entrepreneurship knowledge and skills**: Employment training and job creation, is more than ever of great importance in South Africa. Knowledge and skills with regard to promoting the development of small, micro and medium enterprises for the creation of employment is a necessity. Social work practitioners need to explore ways and means of facilitating economic opportunities by addressing the obstacles and/or regulations that prevent people from accessing available markets.

6.4.3 Areas for further research

It is recommended that each of the themes which emerged from the process of
data analysis are the subject of further investigation and therefore contribute to a
more holistic, integrated socio-economic process within the sustainable
development paradigm.

6.5 BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abdelmadjid, A. 2002. *Speech by Mr Azzèdine Abdelmadjid.* [O]. Available:
www.atd-quartmonde.org/irfrh/Sessions/pros p0102EN/AbdelmadjidEn.htm
Accessed on 2003/06/02

Adams, R. 2002. In Adams, R., Dominelli, L. & Payne, M. 2002. *Social Work. Themes, Issues and Critical Debates.* Second Edition. New York: Palgrave.

Adams, R., Dominelli, L. & Payne, M. 1998. *Social Work. Themes, Issues and Critical Debates.* London: MacMillan.

Adams, R., Dominelli, L. & Payne, M. 2002. *Critical Practice in Social Work.* New York: Palgrave.

Adams, R., Dominelli, L. & Payne, M. 2002. *Social Work. Themes, Issues and Critical Debates.* Second Edition. New York: Palgrave.

Adato, M. & Haddad, L. 2001. *Targeting poverty through community-based public works programs: A cross-disciplinary assessment of recent experience in South Africa.* [O]. Available:
www.ifpri.org/divs/fcnd/dp/papers/fcndp121.pdf
Accessed on 2003/05/24

Affolter, F. 2000. Development Policies for Socio-Emotional Well-Being. Centre for International Education, University of Massachusetts at Amherst. [O]. Available:
www.umass.edu/cie/Themes/socio_emotional_well_being.htm
Accessed on 2004/05/30
Africa Action. [Sa]. Speak out on Poverty: The People's Voices. [O]. Available:
www.africaaction.org/docs98/sa9810.htm
Accessed on 2004/05/22

Agyeman, J., Bullard, R.D. & Evans, B. 2003. *Just Sustainabilities: Development in an Unequal World.* London: Earthscan Publications Ltd.

Alcock, P. 1997. *Understanding Poverty*. Second Edition. New York: Palgrave.

Alcock, P. & Craig, G. 2001. *International Social Policy*. New York: Palgrave.

Anand, S. & Sen, A. 1994. *Sustainable Human Development: Concepts and Priorities.*
[O]. Available:
http://meltingpot.fortunecity.com/lebanon/254/sen.htm
Accessed on 2003/01/04

Anarfi, J. K. 2003. The impact of HIV/AIDS on Africa. *New Agenda: South African Journal of Social and Economic Policy.* (9) First Quarter 2003. 33-45

Annan, K.A. 2002. *In Africa, AIDS Has a Woman's Face*. [O]. Available:
www.globalpolicy.org/socecon/develop/africa/2002/1229kofi.htm
Accessed on 2003/07/28

Annecke, W. 2002. The rich get richer and the poor get renewables: the WSSD, energy and women, a malevolent perspective. *Agenda: Empowering Women for Gender Equity.* 52:8-16.

Appleby, G.A., Colon, E. & Hamilton, J. 2001. *Diversity, Oppression and Social Functioning. Person-In-Environment Assessment and Intervention.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

ATD Fourth World Research Institute and the Futuribles group. 2002. *Precariousness and extreme poverty in Europe by 2010: Forecasting possible futures.* [O]. Available:
www.atd-quartmonde.org/irfrh/Sessions/prosp0102EN/tendlourd_en.htm
Accessed on 2002/06/03

Atkinson, A. 2000. *Promoting Sustainable Human Development in Cities of the South: A Southeast Asian Perspective.* [O]. Available:
www.sais-jhu.edu/depts/asia/syllabi/welsh-dev_issues_sea.pdf
Accessed on 2003/01/11

Attanasio, O. & Szekely, M. 1999. *An Asset-Based Approach to the Analysis of Poverty in Latin America.* [O]. Available:
http://www.iadb.org/res/index.cfm?fuseaction=Publications.View&pub_id=R-376
Accessed on 2003/09/16

Ayee, J.A. 2001. *Corruption and the Future of the Public Service in Africa.* [O]. Available:
www.aaps.co.za.zw/Publications/AIJP/Ayee.html
Accessed on 2003/06/16

Babbie, E. 1989. *The Practice of Social Research.* Fifth Edition. London: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Bailey, K.D. 1982. *Methods of Social Research.* Second Edition. New York: Free Press London: Collier Macmillan.

Banerjee, S.B. 2003. *Who Sustains Whose Development? Sustainable Development and the Reinvention of Nature.* [O]. Available:
http://articles.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m4339/is_1_24/ai_98595130
Accessed on 2003/03/15

Barberton, C., Blake, M. & Kotzé, H. 1998. *Creating Action Space. The Challenge of Poverty and Democracy in South Africa.* Cape Town: Idasa & David Philip Publishers.

Barbour, R.S. & Kitzinger, J. 1999. *Developing Focus Group Research: Politics, Theory and Practice.* London: SAGE Publications.

Barnett, T. & Whiteside, A. 2002. *Aids in the Twenty-First Century. Disease and Globalization.* New York: Palgrave MacMillan.

Barrett, M. 1995. Practical and Ethical Issues in Planning Research. In Breakwell, G.M., Hammond, S. & Fife-Schaw, C. 1995. *Research methods in psychology.* New Delhi: SAGE Publications.

390

Bartelmus, P. 1999. *Sustainable Development – Paradigm or Paranoia?*
[O]. Available:
www.wupperinst.org/Piblikationen/WP/WP93.pdf
Accessed on 2003/01/11

Bartle, P. 2003a. *Enabling Community Empowerment. Political and Administrative Factors Affecting Self Reliance. Laws, rules, regulations and practices that affect self reliance.* [O]. Available:
http://www.scn.org/ip/cds/cmp/modules/en-en.htm
Accessed on 2004/04/21

Bartle, P. 2003b. *Key Words E of Community Development, Empowerment, Participation.* [O]. Available:
www.scn.org/ip/cds/cmp/key/key-e.htm
Accessed on 2003/03/23

Batschari, A. 2002. Community initiatives for sustainable development. *Agenda: Empowering women for gender equity.* (52):68-72.

Belshaw, D., Claderisi, R. & Sugden, C. 2001. *Faith in Development. Partnership between the World Bank and the Churches of Africa.* Oxford: Regnum Books International.

Bent-Goodley, T.B. 2002. Defining and conceptualizing social work entrepreneurship. *Journal of Social Work Education,* 38 (2):291-302.

Beresford, B. 2001. Aids Takes an Economic and Social Toll. [O]. Available:
http://www.un.org/ecosocdev/geninfo/afrec/vol15no1/151aids9.htm
Accessed on 2003/06/17

Berg, B.L. 1995. *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Besthorn, F. 2003. *Radical Ecologisms*: *Insights for Educating Social Workers in Ecological Activism and Social Justice.* [O]. Available:
www.criticalsocialwork.com/CSW_V3_N1_Besthorn.pdf
Accessed on 2004/05/18

Beveridge, S. 2003. *Sampling in qualitative research.* [O]. Available:
www.ischool.washington.edu/harryb/courses/LIS5
Accessed on 2004/04/18

Bhorat, H. 2001. *Essays on the South African Labour Market.* [O]. Available:
http://www.commerce.uct.ac.za/DPRU/essays.pdf
Accessed on 2003/03/22

Blaauw, P.F. & Bothma, L.J. 2003. (pfb@eb.rau.ac.za). 2004/02/06. *Informal Labour Markets as a solution for Unemployment in South Africa – A case study of car guards in Bloemfontein.*
E-mail to I McKinlay (jpm@zamail.co.za)
Accessed on 2004/02/06

Bless, C. & Higson-Smith, G. 1995. *Fundamentals of social research methods: an African perspective,* 2nd ed. Cape Town: Juta.

Bloem, M., Biswas, D. & Adhikari, S. 1996. Towards a sustainable and participatory rural development: recent experiences of an NGO in Bangladesh. In De Koning, K. & Martin, M. 1996. *Participatory Research in Health: Issues and Experiences*. Johannesburg: National Progressive Primary Health Care Network (NPPHCN).

Bloor, M., Frankland, J., Thomas, M. & Robson, K. 2001. *Focus Groups in Social Research.* London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Bhola, H.S. 2001. *Logic and context of adult education for sustainable development: The practice and promise in Sub-Saharan Africa.*
The Project Literacy, National Department of Education and USAID Conference on Adult Learning and Poverty Alleviation. 2001. [O]. Available:

www.projectliteracy.org.za/tmpl/HarbansBhola.htm
Accessed on 2002/04/06

Boersema, J. J. & Bertels, J. 2000. Sustainable Development in the Developed Countries: Will Theory and Practice Meet? In Lee, K., Holland, A. & McNeill, D. 2000. *Global Sustainable Development in the 21st Century*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Boody, G. & Krinke, M. 2001. *The Multiple Benefits of Agriculture. An Economic, Environmental & Social Analysis.* [O]. Available:
www.landstewardshipproject.org/mba/mba_report_layout_final.pdf
Accessed on 2003/04/07

Booth, D., Hanmer, L. & Lovell, E. 2000. *Poverty and transport.* [O]. Available:
www.odi.org.uk/pppg/publications%5Cpapers_reports%5Cdfid%5Cissues%5Ctrans02.pdf
Accessed on 2003/05/25

Botha, N. G. W. 2003. The fight against poverty. In Service to the Nation: Department of Provincial and Local Government. An ESSENTIAL/SUCCEED special publication 2003. (8-10)

Brackett, D. 2002. Shifting Focus: A new approach to sustainable development. *Earthyear: The Essential Environmental Guide.* (2): 61-62. Johannesburg: M & G Media.

Breakwell, G.M., Hammond, S. & Fife-Schaw, C. 1995. *Research methods in psychology.* New Delhi: SAGE Publications.

Bremner, D. & Visser, P. 1997. Negotiation, conflict resolution, and human needs. In FitzGerald, P., McLennan, A. & Munslow, B. 1997. *Managing Sustainable Development in South Africa.* Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Brock, K. 1999. *"It's not only wealth that matters – it's peace of mind too": a review of participatory work on poverty and illbeing.* Prepared for the Global Synthesis Workshop. Consultations with the Poor, World Bank, Washington. [O]. Available:

www.worldbank.org.ngorev.pdf

Accessed on 2003/04/27

Brown, S.C., Stevens, R. A., Troiano, P. F. & Schneider, M. K. 2002. *Exploring Complex Phenomena: Grounded Theory in Student Affairs Research.* [O]. Available:

www.mtholyoke.edu/offices/careers/cdcintro/staff/grounded.pdf

Accessed on 2004/03/14

Bryant, C. & White, L.G. 1982. *Managing Development in the Third World.* Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press, Inc.

Burger, D. 1997. *The political and social dimension of sustainable development.* Presentation to the workshop "Sustainable Development – Yeguare Programme", Honduras, 1997. [O]. Available:

www.cefe.net/forum/burger.pdf

Accessed on 2003/03/23

Burke, B. & Harrison, P. 2002. *Anti-oppressive Practice.* In Adams, R., Dominelli, L. & Payne, M. 2002. *Social Work: Themes, Issues and Critical Debates.* 2nd ed. New York: Palgrave.

Buthelezi, R. T. 2002. *The Politicization of citizenship: Challenges for social work in post-apartheid South Africa.* [O]. Available:

www.aforts.com/colloques_ouvrages/colloques/actes/interventions/buthelezi_rt.doc

Accessed on 2003/06/27

Bynner, J. 2002. *Social and Human Capital for Sustainability: Consensus and Conclusions. Social and Human Capital in the Knowledge Society: Policy Implications.* Brussels, 29-29 October 2002. [O]. Available:

www.europa.eu.int/comm/employment_social/knowledge_society/bynner.pdf

Accessed on 2003/04/27

Byrne, J. 1999. *Literature Review on Community Development.* New Zealand Department of Labour. Occasional Paper Series. [O]. Available:

www.dol.govt.nz/PDFs

Accessed on 2003/04/07

Camerer, L. 1997. *Poverty and Corruption in South Africa: Government Corruption in Poverty Alleviation Programmes*. *Part Two.* [O]. Available:

www.iss.co.za/Pubs/Monographs/No15/Part2.html

Accessed on 2003/05/18

Canadian Foundation for Economic Education. [Sa]. What is Entrepreneurship? [O]. Available:

http://mvp.cfee.org/en/aboutentrepreneurs.html

Accessed on 2004/05/24

Cannon, C.M. 2000. *Charity For Profit.* National Journal. [O]. Available:

www.communitywealth.org/art_charity_for_profit.htm

Accessed on 2003/06/30

Carmen, R. & Sobrado, M. 2000. *A future for the excluded: Job creation and income generation by the poor:* Clodomir Santos de Morais and the Organisation Workshop. London: Zed Books.

Casiem, S., Perry, H., Sadan, M. & Streak, J. 2000. *Child Poverty and the budget in South Africa.* [O]. Available:

www.hri.ca/children/welfare/Safrica_povertybudget.pdf

Accessed on 2003/06/28

Catford, J. In Johnson, S. 2002. Social Entrepreneurship Literature Review. [O]. Available:

http://text.sen.org.au/resources/papers/1044853770_18331.html

Accessed on 2003/06/30

Centre of Excellence for Research on Immigration and Settlement (CERIS) [Sa]. *Introduction to Qualitative Research Methods in Immigration and Settlement.* [O]. Available:

www.ceris.metropolis.net/frameset_e.html
Accessed on 2004/03/11

Charlton, G. 2000. *Human Habits of Highly Effective Organisations.* Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Christian Commission for Development in Bangladesh. In Bloem, M., Biswas, D. & Adhikari, S. 1996. *Towards a sustainable and participatory rural development: recent experiences of an NGO in Bagladesh.* In De Koning, K. & Martin, M. *Participatory Research in Health: Issues and Experiences*. Johannesburg: National Progressive Primary Health Care Network (NPPHCN).

Clark, C. 2002. *Identity, Individual Rights and Social Justice.* In Adams, R., Dominelli, L. & Payne, M. 2002. *Critical Practice in Social Work*. New York: Palgrave.

Coates, J. 2000. *From Modernism to Sustainability: New Roles for Social Work.* [O]. Available:
www.ecosocialwork.org/jcoates2.html
Accessed on 2003/06/17

Coates, J. [Sa]. *Social Work and the Environment: A Progressive Step Forward.* [O]. Available:
www.ecosocialwork.org/jcoates.html
Accessed on 2003/06/18

Cohen, R. & Kennedy, P. 2000. *Global Sociology*. New York: Palgrave.

Confucius. [Sa]. [O]. Available:
www.brainyquote.com/quotes/quotes/c/q136380.html
Accessed on 2003/06/03

Cook, J.1997. Empowering people for sustainable development. In FitzGerald, P., McLennan, A. & Munslow, B. *Managing Sustainable Development in South Africa.* 1997. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR). 2002. *Sustainability Analysis of Human Settlements in South Africa. Chapter 2: The International Sustainability Debate.* [O]. Available:
www.csir.co.za/akani/2002/nov/sahs_chap.pdf
Accessed on 2003/07/29

CREATE SA (Creative Research Education and Training Enterprise South Africa). [Sa]. [O]. Available:
www.createsa.org.za/disability.htm
Accessed on 2003/07/29

Cree, V.E. 2002. The Changing Nature of Social Work. In Adams, R., Dominelli, L. & Payne, M. 2002. *Social Work: Themes, Issues and Critical Debates.* 2nd ed. New York: Palgrave.

Cronje, J. 1998. *Social work management: An empowerment model.* In *Developmental Social Work in South Africa:* Theory and Practice. Gray, M. (Ed). Cape Town: David Philip Publishers.

Cross, C. 2001. The education gap in the invisible economy: What are microenterprises needs in relation to adult basic education? The Project Literacy, National Department of Education and USAID Conference on Adult Learning and Poverty Alleviation. 2001. [O]. Available:
www.projectliteracy.org.za
Accessed on 2002/05/25

Dahl, A. L. 2001. *From Stockholm via Rio to Johannesburg: Thirty Years of International Action on Environment and Sustainable Development.* [O]. Available:
www.bcca.org/ief/ddahl101c.htm
Accessed on 2004/05/02
Dalal-Clayton, D. B. (BDalalclay@aol.com). 2003/04/14. Dalal-Clayton, D. B. & Bass, S. 1995. What is sustainable Development? EC Aid and Sustainable Development Briefing Paper No. 4. IIED. Prepared for European Commission.
E-mail to I McKinlay (jpm@zamail.co.za).

Accessed on 2003/04/14

Dalal-Clayton, D. B. 2002. Evolving Approaches to Sustainable Development Strategies. International Institute for Environment and Development. [O]. Available: www.gtz.de/poverty-Conference/dokumante/results/sustainability/Dala-Clayton%20-%20SD%20Strategies.doc
Accessed on 2004/04/09

Dalal-Clayton, D. B. 2003. Strategies, plans, impacts and people: IIED's role in changing the world of planning and environmental assessment. In Cross, N. (Ed.) 2003. *Evidence for Hope: The search for sustainable development*. London: Earthscan.

Davis, J. 1991. *Greening Business. Managing for Sustainable Development.* Oxford: Blackwell.

De Koning, K. & Martin, M. 1996. *Participatory Research in Health: Issues and Experiences*. Johannesburg: National Progressive Primary Health Care Network (NPPHCN).

De Leo, G. A. & Levin, S. 1997. *The Multifaceted Aspects of Ecosystem Integrity*. [O]. Available:
www.ecologyand society.org/vol 1/iss 1/art3/main.frames.html
Accessed on 2004/04/26

De Vos, A.S. (Ed.) 1998. *Research at grass roots: a primer for the caring professions.* Pretoria: J. L. van Schaik Academic.

De Vos, A. S., Strydom, H., Fouché, C. B. & Delport, C. S. L. 2002. *Research at grass roots for the social sciences and human service professions. 2nd ed.* Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
Deane, N. 2003. In for a penny. Mail & Guardian, 9 May: 14.

Deane, N. 2003. The essential A to Z of NEPAD. *Mail&Guardian*, 30 May: 38.

Dees, G. 2002. *Social Entrepreneurship: Mobilizing Resources for Success.* [O].
Available:
www.tgci.com/magazine/01summer/social1.asp
Accessed on 2004/03/17

Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y. S. 1994. *Handbook of Qualitative Research.* Thousand Oaks,
CA: Sage Publications.

Department of Economic and Social Affairs: United Nations, New York. Financing Global
Social Development Symposium. New York, 7 February 2002. [O]. Available:
www.un.org/esa/socdev/forum/Symposiumagenda.doc
Accessed on 2003/06/13

Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism. National State of the Environment
Report – South Africa. Social Environment. 1999. [O]. Available:
www.ngo.grida.no/soesa/nsoer/issues/social/index.htm
Accessed on 2003/04/03

Department of Social Development. Consolidated Report: Strategic Plan 2002/03 –
2004/05. March 2002. Transforming the Present – Protecting the Future.

Dixon, Y. & Pretorius, J. G. 2002. *Sustainable Development: A South African
Perspective.* [O]. Available:
www.africavenir.org/fulltext/fulltext07.html
Accessed on 2003/04/20

Dobriansky, P. J. 2002. *The World Summit on Sustainable Development: Beginning a
New Chapter in Sustainable Development History.* [O]. Available:
http://usinfo.state.gov/journals/itgic/0402/ijge/gj02.htm
Accessed on 2002/10/08

Dobson, A. 2000. Sustainable Development and the Defence of the Natural World. In
Lee, K., Holland, A. & McNeill, D. 2000. *Global Sustainable Development in the 21st
Century.* Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

399

Dodds, F. (Ed.) 2000. *Earth Summit 2002: A New Deal.* London: Earthscan Publications.

Dominelli, L. 2002. Anti-oppressive Practice in Context. In Adams, R., Dominelli, L. & Payne, M. 2002. *Social Work. Themes, Issues and Critical Debates.* 2nd ed. New York: Palgrave.

Dominelli. L. 2002. *Anti-oppressive Social Work Theory and Practice.* New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

D'Onofrio, A. 2001. *Grounded Theory: Qualitative Research Methods in Education.* [O]. Available:
http://muse.widener.edu/ˆaad0002/714grounded.html
Accessed on 2004/03/11

Drower, S.J. 2002. Conceptualizing social work in a changed South Africa. *International Social Work* 45 (1): 7-20.

Drucker, P.F. 1985*. Innovation and Entrepreneurship: Practice and Principles*. London: William Heinemann Ltd.

Drucker, P.F. 1985*. Innovation and Entrepreneurship: Practice and Principles*. New Preface 1993. London: William Heinemann Ltd.

Dubé, L. & Paré, G. 2001. *Case Research in Information Systems: Current Practices, Trends, and Recommendations.* [O]. Available:
gresi.hec.ca/SHAPS/cp/gescah/formajout/ajout/test/uploaded/cahier0112.pdf
Accessed on 2004/02/29

Dubois, J-L. 2003. *Food Security, Vulnerability and social sustainability*. [O]. Available:
www.sarpn.org.za/documents/d0000222/dubois/FAS-Food_security.pdf
Accessed on 2004/04/27

Dubois, J-L., Mahieu, F-R. & Poussard, A. 2002. Social Sustainability as a component of Human Development. [O]. Available:

www.st-edmunds.com.ac.uk/vhi/research/dubois.pdf
Accessed on 2004/04/27

DuBose, J. 1997. Definitions of Sustainable Development. Georgia Institute of
Technology. The George W. Woodruff School of Mechanical Engineering and the Center
for Sustainable Development. [O]. Available:
www.srl.gatech.edu/education/ME4804/definitions.html
Accessed on 2003/03/15

Earth Negotiations Bulletin. 1995. Summary of the Fourth World Conference on Women:
4-15 September 1995. [O]. Available:
www.iisd.ca/linkages/women.html
Accessed on 2003/04/04

Earth Negotiations Bulletin. 1996. Second UN Conference on Human Settlements
(Habitat ll) 3-14 June 1996. [O]. Available:
www.iisd.ca/linkages/download
Accessed on 2003/04/04

Ecotrust. [Sa]. *Social Capital*. [O]. Available:
http://www.conservationeconomy.net/content.cfm?PatternID=2
Accessed on 2002/08/11

Elbadawi, I.A. & Hartzenberg, T. 2000. *Development Issues in South Africa.*
Basingstoke: MacMillan Press.

Elkington, J. & Trisoglio, A. 1995. *What do we mean by Sustainable Development?* EPE
Sourcebook. [O]. Available:
www.epe.be/workbooks/sourcebook/1.0.html
Accessed on 2004/05/02

Encyclopedia of Life Support Systems. 2001. *Global Crisis and Sustainable
Development: The inspiration for the EOLSS.* [O]. Available:
www.eolss.net/eolss/eolss_inspiration.asp

Accessed on 2003/03/15

Engel, J.R. 1990. in DuBose,J. 1997. *Definitions of Sustainable Development.* [O].
Available:
www.srl.gatech.edu/education/ME4804/definitions.html
Accessed on 2003/03/15

Erasmus, J. & Steyn, S.C. 2002. *Changes in the South African Education System.* [O].
Available:
http://research.hsrc.ac.za/outputDocuments/2160_ErasmusChangesintheSouthAfricaEd
ucationSystem.pdf
Accessed on 2004/03/22

Escobar, A. 1995. *Encountering Development: The Making and Unmaking of the Third
World.* Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press.

Estes, R. J. 2002. *"Poverties" and "Wealth": Competing Definitions and Alternative
Approaches to Measurement.* [O]. Available:
http://caster.ssw.upenn.edu/~restes/praxis/Estes_Papers.html
Accessed on 2004/05/22

European Commission. 2002. Capitalising on People and Institutions. [O]. Available:
http://europa.eu.int/comm/research/iscp/10years/inco-capitalising_en.pdf
Accessed on 2004/05/01

Fakir, S. 2002. Poverty and environment linkages in the context of the World Summit on
Sustainable Development (WSSD). In *The Long Walk To Sustainability: A Southern
African Perspective.* World Summit Publication. Johannesburg: HIS South Africa. (14-16)

Falk, I. & Kilpatrick, S. 1999. *What is social capital? A study of interaction in a rural
community.* [O]. Available:
www.crlra.utas.edu.au
Accessed on 2003/04/07

Feit, M.D., Ramey, J.H., Wodarski, J.S. & Mann, A.R. 1995. *Capturing the Power of Diversity.* New York: The Haworth Press.

Fife-Schaw, C. 1995. *Bivariate Statistical Analyses.* In Breakwell, G.M., Hammond, S. & Fife-Schaw, C. 1995. *Research methods in psychology.* New Delhi: SAGE Publications.

Fossey, E., Harvey, C., McDermott, F. & Davidson, L. 2002. *Understanding and evaluating qualitative research.* [O]. Available:
www.usq.edu.au/users/patrick/PAPERS/qualitative%207.pdf
Accessed on 2004/03/10

Fouché, C. B. 2002a. Problem formulation. In De Vos, A. S., Strydom, H., Fouché, C. B. & Delport, C. S. L. 2002. *Research at grass roots for the social sciences and human service professions. 2nd ed.* Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Fouché, C. B. 2002b. Research strategies. In De Vos, A. S., Strydom, H., Fouché, C. B. & Delport, C. S. L. 2002. *Research at grass roots for the social sciences and human service professions. 2nd ed.* Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Fourie, P. & Schönteich, M. 2002. *Die, The Beloved Countries: Human Security and HIV/AIDS in Africa.* [O]. Available:
www.sarpn.org.za/documents/d0000177/P170_Security_HIVAIDS.pdf
Accessed on 2003/06/22

Fricker, A. 1998. *Measuring up to Sustainability.* [O]. Available:
www.metafuture.org
Accessed on 2002/03/03

Frye, I. 2002. Can we afford not to think Big? *Mail & Guardian,* 8 February: 25.

Gannon, C., Gwilliam, K., Liu, Z. & Malmberg Calvo, C. 2001. *Transport: Infrastructure and Services.* [O]. Available:
www.worldbank.org/poverty/strategies/chapters/transport/tran0509.pdf
Accessed on 2003/05/25

Gibbs, A. 1997. *Focus Groups*. [O]. Available:
http:///www.soc.surrey.ac.uk/sru/SRU19.html
Accessed on 2002/03/09

Gilder, G. 1981. *Wealth and Poverty.* New York: Basic Books, Inc.

Gilder, G. 1992. *Recapturing the Spirit of Enterprise.* [O]. Available:
www.amazon.com/exec/obidos/tg/detail/-/1558152016/ref=lib_dp_TT01/002-1743342-0083205?=glance&s=books&vi=reader&img=4#reader-link
Accessed on 2003/08/03

Girishankar, L., Hammergren, M., Holmes, S., Knack, S., Levy, B., Litvack, J., Manning, N., Messick, R., Rinne, J. & Sutch, H. 2001. *Governance and Poverty Reduction.* [O]. Available:
www.worldbank.org/poverty/strategies/chapters/governance/gov0427.pdf
Accessed on 2003/05/25

Global Science Panel. [Sa]. [O]. Available:
www.iiasa.ac.at/Admin/INF/hague/GSP_final_statement.pdf
Accessed on 2003/05/25

Godwin, J. [Sa]. George Gilder. [O]. Available:
www.geocities.com/divine_principle/1_fw/fw_1c5.html
Accessed on 2003/08/03

Goebert, B. & Rosenthal, H.M. 2002. *Beyond Listening. Learning the secret language of Focus Groups.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Goodstein, E.S. 2002. *Economics and the Environment.* 3rd ed. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Goss, J.D. & Leinbach, T.R. 1996. In Gibbs, A. 1997. *Focus Groups.* [O]. Available:
http://www.soc.surrey.ac.uk/sru/SRU19.html

Accessed on 2002/03/09

Goulet, D. 1995. Authentic Development: Is It Sustainable? In Trzyna, T. C. 1995. *A Sustainable World: Defining and measuring sustainable development*. London: Earthscan Publications Ltd.

Grant, J.A. 2002. The Janus Face of Globalisation*. New Agenda: South African Journal of Social and Economic Policy. (7*): 111-117.

Gray, M. 1996. Towards an understanding of developmental social work*. Social Work Practice.* March 1996 (9-13).

Gray, M. (Ed.) 1998. *Developmental Social Work in South Africa*: *Theory and Practice.* Cape Town: David Philip Publishers (Pty) Ltd.

Gray, M. 1998. Approaches to Social Work in South Africa: An Overview. In Gray, M. 1998. *Developmental Social Work in South Africa: Theory and Practice.* Cape Town: David Philip Publishers (Pty) Ltd.

Greeff, M. 2002. Information collection: interviewing. In de Vos, A. S., Strydom, H., Fouché, C. B. & Delport, C. S. L. 2002. Research at grass roots for the social sciences and human service professions. 2nd ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Green, M. [Sa]. *Representing Poverty: Attacking Representations. Anthropological Perspectives on Poverty in Development.* [O]. Available:
http://idpm.man.ac.uk/cprc/Conference/conferencepapers.htm
Accessed on 2003/05/27

Grinnell, R.M. 1997. *Social Work Research and Evaluation: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches.* Itasca ILL: F. E. Peacock.

Grinnell, R.M. & Williams, M. 1990. *Research in social work: A primer.* Itasca, ILL: Peacock.

Groener, Z. 2001. *The political and social contexts of adult education and training in South Africa.* The Project Literacy, National Department of Education and USAID: Conference on Adult Learning and Poverty Alleviation. 27-29 November 2001. [O]. Available:
www.projectliteracy.org.za/tmpl/Prof_Zelda_Groener.htm
Accessed on 2002/04/08

Grootaert, C. 1998. Social Capital: The Missing Link? Social Capital Initiative Working Paper No. 3. [O]. Available:
www.worldbank.org/poverty/scapital/wkrppr/wrkppr.htm
Accessed on 2004/05/27

Grootaert, C. & van Bastelaer, T. 2001. *Understanding and Measuring Social Capital: A synthesis of findings and recommendations from the social capital initiative.* Centre for Institutional Reform and the Informal Sector. University of Maryland. [O]. Available:
www.iris.umd.edu/publications/detail.asp?ID=wp&number=250
Accessed on 2004/03/11

Gubrium, J. F. & Holstein, J. A. 1997. In Centre of Excellence for Research on Immigration and Settlement (CERIS). [Sa]. *Introduction to Qualitative Research Methods in Immigration and Settlement.* [O]. Available:
www.ceris.metropolis.net/frameset_e.html
Accessed on 2004/03/11

Halweil, B. 1998. *Is Progress Speeding Up: Our Multiplying Multitudes of Blessings.* [O]. Available:
www.findarticles.com/cf_dls/m1374/n4_v58/20979804/p3/article.jhtml?term
Accessed on 2004/05/02

Hannibal, J. [Sa]. *The Case Study Method.* [O]. Available:
http://web.isp.cz/jcrane/IB/Casestudymethod.html
Accessed on 2004/04/18

Hardi, P. & Zolan, T.J. 1997. *International Institute for Sustainable Development.* [O].
Available:
http://iisd.ca/measure/faqindex.htm
Accessed on 2002/05/04

Hart, M. 1998a. What is an indicator of sustainability? [O]. Available:
www.sustainablemeasures.com/Indicators/WhatIs.html
Accessed on 2002/01/19

Hart, M. 1998b. What makes a good indicator? [O]. Available:
www.sustainablemeasures.com/Training/Indicators/Section2.html
Accessed on 2003/04/12

Hart, M. 1998c. Key term: Sustain. [O]. Available:
www.sustainablemeasures.com/Sustainability/KeyTermSustain.html
Accessed on 2002/01/19

Hart, M. 1998d. *Sustainable measures. An introduction to sustainability...* [O]. Available:
www.sustainablemeasures.com/Sustainability/index.html
Accessed on 2002/01/19

Hart, M. 1998e. Key term: Develop. [O]. Available:
www.sustainablemeasures.com/Sustainability/KeyTermDevelop.html
Accessed on 2002/01/19

Hart, M. 1998f. *Sustainable measures. Definitions of sustainability.* [O]. Available:
www.sustainablemeasures.com/Sustainability/Definitions.html
Accessed on 2002/01/19

Hart, M. 1998g. Key term: Community capital. [O]. Available:
www.sustainablemeasures.com/Sustainability/KeyTermCommCapital.html
Accessed on 2002/01/19

Hart, M. 1998h. *Sustainable measures. Key term: Equity.* [O]. Available:

www.sustainablemeasures.com/Sustainability/KeyTermEquity.html

Accessed on 2002/01/19

Hart, M. 1998i. *Sustainable measures. Key term: Carrying capacity.* [O]. Available:

www.sustainablemeasures.com/Sustainability/KeyTermCarryingCap.html

Accessed on 2002/01/19

Hasegawa, S. 2001. *Development Cooperation.* UNU Global Seminar. "Global Issues
and the United Nations". [O]. Available:

www.unu.edu/hq/japanese/gs-j/gs2001j/kanazawa1/Lec5-text-e.pdf

Accessed on 2002/05/04

Hatton, K. 2001. Social Work in Europe: Radical Traditions, Radical Futures? [O].
Available:

www.wpd/documents/pdfs/0071484.pdf

Accessed on 2003/ 07/03

Hawken, P., Lovins, A. & Lovins, H. L. 2000. *Natural Capitalism: Creating the Next
Industrial Revolution.* [O]. Available:

www.natcap.org/site[ages/pid20.php

Accessed on 2002/02/24

Hayes, N. 2000. *Doing psychological research. Gathering and analyzing data.*
Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Head, J. 2000. *Health and Development in South Africa: What role does unemployment
play?* Urban Health and Development Bulletin, 3 (1). [O]. Available:

www.mrc.ac.za/urbanbulletin/march2000/development.htm

Accessed on 2003/04/27

Hercules, A., Andersson, G. & Dangor, Z. 1997. *Monitoring Anti-Poverty Programmes.*
Development Resources Centre. [O]. Available:

www.goc.za/reports/1998/poverty/indicatorspoverty.pdf

Accessed on 2003/05/25

Hoff, M.D. (Ed.) 1998. *Sustainable Community Development: Studies in Economic, Environmental and Cultural Revitalization.* Florida: CRC Press, Lewis Publishers.

Horn, P. 2002. Good news for South Africa's informal economy. *Agenda: Empowering Women for Gender Equity.* 52:87-88.

Hulme, D., Shepherd, A. & Moore, K. 2001. *Chronic Poverty: Meanings and Analytical Frameworks.* [O]. Available:
www.devinit.org/CPRC/cPall/www_cprc/www_cprc/cp2.pdf
Accessed on 2003/04/16

Human Development Report 1997. *Human development to eradicate poverty.* [O].
Available:
www.hdr.undp.org/reports/global/1997/en
Accessed on 2003/04/19

Hunt, J. & Lascaris, R. 1998. *The South African Dream*. Halfway House: Zebra Press.

Hunter, R. 1997. Managing Sustainable Economic Development. In FitzGerald, P., Mc Lennan, A. & Munslow, B. 1997. *Managing Sustainable Development in South Africa.* Second Edition. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Hvid, H. & Lund, H.L. 2002. Sustainable Work – Concepts and Elements of Practice. *The Journal of Transdisciplinary Environmental Studies.* [O]. Available:
http://www.journal-tes.dk
Accessed on 2003/03/02

IDASA. 2003. AFROBAROMETER. *Lived Poverty in South Africa.* [O].
Available:
www.idasa.org.za/m_main.php?view=2&art_id=991
Accessed on 2003/05/18

Ife, J. 1995. *Community Development. Creating community alternatives – vision, analysis and practice.* French Forest, NSW Australia: Longman.

Ikerd, J. 2000. *Towards an Economics of Sustainability.* [O]. Available:

http://members.aol.com/jeikerd/EOS.html

Accessed on 2003/06/25

INPECO. 2002. World Summit on Sustainable Development 2002: An Information Resource for Guidance on WSSD Background, Overview and Follow up Actions. [O]. Available:

www.monitoring_globalisation.net.pdf/WSSD_guidance_handbook.pdf

Accessed on 2004/05/05

International Centre for Trade and Sustainable Development (ICTSD). 2003. Bridges Weekly Trade News Digest. *Agriculture Negotiations still Stalling.* [O]. Available:

www.ictsd.0rg/weekly/03-01-29/bridgesweekly7-3.pdf

Accessed on 2004/05/05

International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) at Cairo, 1994. [O]. Available:

www.popcouncil.org

Accessed on 2003/04/04

International Federation of Social Workers. 2002. IFSW General Meeting in Montrèal, Canada, July 2000. [O]. Available:

www.ifsw.org/Publications/4.6e.pub.html

Accessed on 2003/06/16

International Federation of Social Workers. IFSW General Meeting, Geneva, Switzerland. 2002. [O]. Available:

www.ifsw/org/GM-2002

Accessed on 2003/04/01

International Federation of Social Workers, 2000. [O]. Available:

http://www.sozialarbeit.at/def.htm

Accessed on 2002/10/10

International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD). 2002. The sustainable development timeline. [O]. Available:
http://www.iisd.org
Accessed on 2004/05/05

International Institute for Sustainable Development & The Earth Council [Sa]. What is sustainable development? [O]. Available:
www.ecouncil.ac.cr/rio/susdevelopment.htm
Accessed on 2003/04/05

International Institute for Sustainable Development. Intro to Indicators. 2000. [O] Available:
http://iisd.ca/measure/faqs.htm
Accessed on 2002/05/04

International Labour Organization. 1998. Poverty Eradication. Statement of commitment of the Administrative Committee on Coordination for action to eradicate poverty. [O]. Available:
www.ilo.org/public/english/comp/poverty/accstate.htm
Accessed on 2003/04/05

International Labour Organization. 2000. *International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour. IPEC in Action: ASIA.* Chapter 1: Background. [O]. Available:
www.ilo.org/public/english/standards/ipec/simpoc/nepal/report/sit/s_ch1.htm
Accessed on 2003/04/20

International Movement ATD Fourth World. 2002. Toward eradication of extreme poverty: long-term partnership with the poorest people. [O]. Available:
www.atd-quartmonde.org/intern/docu_intern/escap_mai02.htm
Accessed on 2002/03/11

Jacobs, S. & Faull, J. 2003. The ANC is betraying its history. *Sunday Times*, 27 April: 17.

411

Jackson, D. 2000. *Becoming Dynamic. Creating and Sustaining the Dynamic Organisation.* Basingstoke: MacMillan.

Jackson, J. [Sa]. *"Voice and theory in South Africa's unemployment crisis. Do we really need to hear the voice of the unemployed?"* [O]. Available:
www.wits.ac.za/economics/Journal/Unemployment.pdf
Accessed on 2003/04/27

Jahan, S. 2001. *Measuring living standard and poverty: Human Development Index as an alternate measure.* [O]. Available:
www.umass.edu/peri/pdfs/glwejahan.pdf
Accessed on 2003/05/01

James-Mseme, L. 2002. The Role Played by Trade Unions: Claim Our Victories – Aluta Continua. *The Long Walk to Sustainability: A Southern African Perspective.* World Summit Publication. 50-52. Johannesburg: IHS South Africa.

Johnson, L.C. & Schwartz, C.L.1994. *Social Welfare. A Response to Human Need.* Third Edition. Massachusetts: Allyn & Bacon.

Johnson, S. 2002. *Social Entrepreneurship Literature Review.* [O]. Available:
http://text.sen.org.au/resources/papers/1044853770_18331.html
Accessed on 2003/06/30

Joppe, M. [Sa]. Six Phases of the Research Process: Exploratory Research. [O]. Available:
www.ryerson.ca/~mjoppe/ResearchProcess/ExploratoryResearch.htm
Accessed on 2004/03/10

Jubilee Gauteng. *Alternatives: People's Budget. Towards a People's Budget.* A Fundamental Departure GEAR Budgets. February 2001. [O]. Available:
www.aidc.org.za/themba/alternatives_200102_2.html
Accessed on 2002/01/27

Kakabadse, Y. 2002. Welcome to a decade of doing. *Earthyear: The Essential Environmental Guide.* 2 (1) Johannesburg: M & G Media.

Kassim, M. & Hendriks, S. 2002. False hope from micro-enterprise. *Agenda: Empowering Women for Gender Equity.* 52:33-38.

Keeton, M. 2001. Sustainability and Social Development: a view from corporate donors. The Project Literacy, National Department of Education and USAID Conference on Adult Learning and Poverty Alleviation. 2001. [O]. Available:
www.projectliteracy.org.co.za/tmpl/Margie%20Keeton.htm
Accessed on 2002/04/13

Kehler, J. 2000. *Women and Poverty: The South African Experience.* [O]. Available:
www.bridgew.edu/depts/artscene/jiws/fall01/kehler.pdf
Accessed on 2003/04/17

Kelly, K. 1999. In Terre Blanche, M. & Durrheim, K. 1999. *Research in practice. Applied methods for the social sciences.* Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.

Kerka, S. 1989. Women, Work, and Literacy. ERIC Digest No. 92[O]. Available:
www.ed.gov/databases/ERIC_Digests/ed312456.html
Accessed on 2002/03/16

Keynes, John Maynard. In Poverty Reduction Begins with Children. UNICEF. 2000.
www.unicef.org/publications/pub_poverty_reduction_en.pdf
Accessed on 2002/03/16

Kiirya, P. 2001. *The Role of Literacy in Poverty Alleviation: The case of Uganda.* The Project Literacy, National Department of Education and USAID Conference on Adult Learning and Poverty Alleviation. 2001. [O]. Available:
www.projectliteracy.org.za/tmpl/Patrick%20Kiirya.htm
Accessed on 2002/04/13

Kinsley, M. J. 1997. Rocky Mountain Institute. *RMI's Economic renewal program: An Introduction.* [O]. Available:
http://www.rmi.org/images/other/EconRenew/ER97-02_EconRenewIntro.pdf
Accessed on 2002/02/27

Kirby, J., O'Keefe, P., Timberlake, L. 1995. *The Earthscan Reader in Sustainable Development.* London: Earthscan.

Klugman, J. 2001. *Overview. Draft for Comments. April 2001.* [O]. Available:
www.worldbank.org/poverty/strategies/chapters/overview/over0427.pdf
Accessed on 2003/05/25

Krueger, R.A. 1988. *Focus Groups. A Practical Guide for Applied Research.* California: Sage Publications.

Lahiff, E. & Rugege, S. A Critical Assessment of State Land Redistribution Policy in the light of the Grootboom Judgment*. New Agenda: South African Journal of Social and Economic Policy.* 7(3): 48 – 67.

Lal, S.R. 2001. *Qualitative Data: Making sense of what you have.* [O]. Available:
www.fgse.nova.edu/edl/secure/mats/fssqualdata.pdf
Accessed on 2004/03/11

Lalumière, C. 2001. Constructing the Future. [O]. Available:
www.januarymgazine.com/nonfiction.sustaindevelop.html
Accessed on 2001/10/21

Lalthapersad-Pillay, P. 2001. *The Effects of Poverty on Women.* The Project Literacy, Department of Education and USAID Conference on Adult Learning and Poverty Alleviation. 2001. [O]. Available:
www.projectliteracy.org.za/tmpl/Pinky%20Lalthapersad-Pillay.htm
Accessed on 2002/04/17

Langan, M. 2002. The Legacy of Radical Social Work. In Adams, R., Dominelli, L. & Payne, M. 2002. *Social Work: Themes, Issues and Critical Debates.* 2nd ed. New York: Palgrave.

Lavalette, M. & Pratt, A. 2001. Social Policy. *A Conceptual and Theoretical Introduction. Second Edition.* London: SAGE Publications.

Lee, D. & Woolard, I. 2002. *A typology of the Unemployed: A Policy Orientated Approach.* [O]. Available:
www.commerce.uct.ac.za/DPRU/Woolard,Lee.pdf
Accessed on 2003/04/17

Lee, J.A.B. 1994. *The Empowerment Approach to Social Work Practice.* New York: Columbia University Press.

Lee, K., Holland, A. & McNeill, D. 2000. *Global sustainable development in the 21st century.* Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press Ltd.

Leedy, P.D., Newby, T.J. & Ertmer, P.A. 1997. *Practical Research: Planning and Design.* Columbus, Ohio: Merrill/ Prentice Hall.

Leon, D.A., Walt, G. & Gilson, L. 2001. *International perspectives on health inequalities and policy.* [O]. Available:
http://bmj.com/cgi/content/full/322/7286/591
Accessed on 2003/05/19

Letsoalo, M. 2002. Poverty funds spent on pyramid scheme. *Mail & Guardian*, 1 November: 23.

Lélé, S. M. 1991. Sustainable Development: A Critical Review. *World Development,* 19(6):607-621.

Liebenberg, S. 2002. The Right to Social Assistance: The implications of Grootboom for Policy Reform in South Africa. *New Agenda: South African Journal of Social and Economic Policy.* 7(3):31-47.

Linders, P. 2001. *Community Constituency Input To The NEDLAC Annual Summit 2001.* 27 October 2001. The National Economic Development and Labour Council. [O]. Available:
www.nedlac.org.za/summit/2001/community.html
Accessed on 2002/01/27

Livermore, M. & Midgley, J. 1998. The contribution of universities to building sustainable communities: The community university partnership. In M.D. Hoff (Ed.) Sustainable community development: Case studies in economic, environmental and cultural revitalization. Florida, CRC/Lewis: Publishers.

Loewenson, R. & Whiteside, A. 1997. *Social and Economic Issues of HIV/AIDS in Southern Africa.* [O]. Available:
www.iaen.org/impact/sfaids1.pdf
Accessed on 2003/06/26

Lok-Dessallien, R. 1999. *Review of Poverty Concepts and Indicators.* [O]. Available:
www.undp.org/poverty/publications/pov_red
Accessed on 2003/04/17

Lombard, A. 1991. *Community work and community development: Perspectives on social development.* Pretoria: HAUM-Tertiary.

Lombard, A. 1996. Developmental Social Welfare in South Africa: A Theoretical Framework. *Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk* 1996: 32 (2): 162-172.

Lombard, A. 2003. Entrepreneurship in Africa: Social Work challenges for Human, Social and Economic Development. *Social Work Journal.* 2003. 39 (3).

Lombard, A. & Janse van Rensburg, A. 2001. Coalitions: A Practice Framework for Sustainable Development. *Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk.* 37 (4): 217-233.

Lubyayi, M. N. & Olinga, F. 2001. The Role of Adult Education on Sustainable Development. The Project Literacy, Department of Education and USAID Conference on Adult Learning and Poverty Alleviation. 2001. [O]. Available: www.projectliteracy.org.za/tmpl/Margaret%20Nakato%20Lubyayi%20Forough%20Olinga Accessed on 2003/06/04

Lund, F. 2001. In Alcock, P. & Craig, G. 2001. *International Social Policy.* New York: Palgrave.

Macarov, D. 1991. *Certain Change. Social Work Practice in the Future.* Silver Spring, Maryland: National Association of Social Workers (NASW) Press.

Macarov, D. & Baerwald, P. 2001. *The Future of Social Work Theory and Practice.* Inter-University Centre Journal of Social Work. (3) [O]. Available: www.bemidjistate.edu/sw_journal/issue3/articles/macarov.html Accessed on 2003/06/22

Macfarlane, D. 2003. Adult literacy in "parlous state. *Mail & Guardian*, 14 March: 15.

MacDonald, M. 1998. *Agendas for Sustainability: Environment and development into the twenty-first century.* New York: Routledge/SEI Global Environment and Development Series.

Macleod, C. 1999. In Terre Blanche, M. & Durrheim, K. 1999. *Research in Practice: Applied methods for the social sciences.* Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.

Mamburu, D. N. 2000. *The Evaluation of the impact of a Community Empowerment Programme on Rural Communities.* Unpublished M.A. (S.W.) dissertation. University of Pretoria.

Mametse, D. 2003. Mastering their own fate. *Mail & Guardian,* 17 April: 33.

Management Decision and Research Center. [Sa]. *Using Qualitative Research Methods.* [O]. Available:
www.mdrc.research.med.va.gov/mgmt_research_in_va/methology/qualitative_research.cfm
Accessed on 2003/03/07

Mandela, Nelson. 1994. *Nelson Mandela's 100 Day Speech to Parliament.* Opening address by President Nelson Mandela: President's Budget Debate, Cape Town, 18 August 1994. [O]. Available:
www.sas.upenn.edu/African_Studies/Govern_Political/Mandel_100.html
Accessed on 2003/08/14

Manthorpe, J. & Bradley, G. 2002. *Managing Finances.* In Adams, R., Dominelli, L. & Payne, M. 2002. *Critical Practice in Social Work.* New York: Palgrave.
Makgetla, N. 2003. No silver Bullets for jobs crisis. *Mail & Guardian*, 30 May: 24.

Mara, I. 2002. *Communicable diseases including HIV/AIDS and Sustainable Development. The Long Walk to Sustainability:* A Southern African Perspective. 2002. (19-24) Johannesburg: IHS South Africa.

Mark, R. 1996. *Research Made Simple: A Handbook for Social Workers.* [O]. Available:
www.amazon.com/exec/obidos/tg/detail/-/0803974272/102-4845100-6710517?v=glance
Accessed on 2004/02/29

Martin, J.P. 2001. *The Social Dimensions of Sustainable Development.* [O]. Available:
www.oecd.org/dataoecd/24/46/2671005.pdf
Accessed on 2004/03/20

Martin, J.P. & Pearson, M. 2001. OECD *Social Indicators: A Broad Approach towards Social Reporting.* [O]. Available:
www.statistik.admin.ch/events/symposium/abstracts/martin_internet.pdf
Accessed on 2004/04/30

Mataira, P. J. [Sa]. *"Bridging the Gaps". Entrepreneurship, Enterprise and Education: the revitalizing of whanau well-being.* [O]. Available:

http://216.239.59.104/search?q=cache:zu4K5ot-tMJ:www.devnet.org.nz/conf/Papers/ma

Accessed on 2004/02/21

May, J., Woolard, I. & Klasen, S. 1997. *The measurement and nature of poverty and inequality.* Draft chapter prepared for the Poverty and Inequality Report (PIR). [O]. Available:

www.gov.za/reports/1998/povert/nature.pdf

Accessed on 2003/02/15

Mayfield, J.B. 1997. *One can make a difference: The Challenges and Opportunities of Dealing with World Poverty. The Role of Rural Development Facilitators (RDFs) in the Process of Rural Development.* Maryland: University Press of America, Inc.

Mbere, N. 2002. *Local Governance and HIV/AIDS*. Fifth Africa Governance Forum (AGFV) "Local Governance for Poverty Reduction in Africa. Maputo, Mozambique. Issue Paper No. 4. [O]. Available:

www.undp.org/rba/pubs/ag5/Issue%20paper%20on%20local%governance%20and%20HIV-AIDS.pdf

Accessed on 2003/06/03

McBroom, P. 1999. Dean of Social Welfare Buries Liberal Notions of the Welfare State. [O]. Available:

www.berkeley.edu/news/berkeleyan/1999/0414/welfare.html

Accessed on 2002/01/27

McDonald, D. A. 2002. *What Is Environmental Justice?* [O]. Available:

www.ohiou.edu/oupress/McDonald14pdf

Accessed on 2003/03/19

McGregor, L. 2003. *Women Bear Brunt of AIDS Toll.* [O]. Available:

www.globalpolicy.org/socecon/develop/aids/2003/0323women.htm

Accessed on 2003/07/28

McNeill, D. 2000. The Concept of Sustainable Development. In Lee, K., Holland, A. & McNeill, D. 2000. *Global Sustainable Development in the 21ˢᵗ Century*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Mellor, M. 2000. Women, Development and Environmental Sustainability.
In Lee, K., Holland, A. & McNeill, D. 2000. *Global Sustainable Development in the 21ˢᵗ Century.* Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Merriam, S.B. 2002. *The Nature of Qualitative Inquiry.* [O]. Available:
www.wiley.com/WileyCDA/WileyTitle/productCd-0787958956.html
Accessed on 2004/03/07

Meulenberg-Buskens, I. 1996. Critical awareness in participatory research: an approach towards teaching and learning. In De Koning, K. & Martin, M. *Participatory Research in Health: Issues and Experiences.* Johannesburg: National Progressive Primary Health Care Network (NPPHCN).

Midgley, J. 1995. *Social Development: The Developmental Perspective in Social Welfare.* London: SAGE Publications.

Midgley, J. 1996a. *Special Issue: Social Work and Economic Development. Introduction.* International Social Work. Vol. 39: 5-12.

Midgley, J. 1996b. *Involving Social Work in Economic Development. Special Issue of International Social Work.* Vol. 39: 13-25.

Midgley, J. 1999. *Growth, Redistribution, and Welfare: Toward Social Investment. Social Services Review (March 1999).*

Midgley, J. 2001. *Globalization and Social Development. Berkeley School of Social Welfare.* [O]. Available:
http://socialwelfare.berkeley.edu/faculty/midgleySWABcontd.htm
Accessed on 2003/06/17

Midgley, J. & Tang, K-I. 2001. *Social Policy, economic growth and developmental welfare. International Journal of Social Welfare.* 10: 244-252.

Millward, L. J. 1995. Focus Groups. In Breakwell, G.M., Hammond, S. & Fife-Schaw, C. 1995. *Research methods in psychology.* New Delhi: SAGE Publications.

Milojevic, I. 2002. *Poverty-free Futures.* [O]. Available:
www.metafuture.org/articlesbycolleagues/IvanaMilojevic/Ivana_Milojevic_Poverty_free_futures
Accessed on 2003/03/22

Mitlin, D. 2000. *Learning from the experts: a new approach to poverty reduction.* South African Homeless People's Federation and People's Dialogue on Land and Shelter. [O]. Available:
http://criticalsocialwork.com/00_1_learn_mit.html
Accessed on 2003/06/19

Mngoma, L. W. 1997. *Enhancing Quality of Life in the Informal Settlement of Hemfane Area, Kwazulu-Natal: A study in Community Empowerment.* Unpublished M.A. dissertation. Department of Geography: University of Pretoria.

Mohan, B. 1999. *Unification of social work: Rethinking social transformation.* USA: Praeger Publishers.

Monaheng, T. 1998. *Participation and human development: some implementation problems.* Africanus (28) 1.

Moore, N. 2002. Space for rural development. *Mail & Guardian*, 8 February: 30

Moosa, V. 2002. Minister Valli Moosa describes what World Summit 2002 is about. *Earthyear: The Essential Environmental Guide*. (2): 8-9. Johannesburg: M & G Media.

Morales-Gómez, D. 2001. *Moving Forward. Reducing Poverty Through Social Development*. Canadian International Development Agency. [O]. Available:

http://wwww.acdi-cida.gc.ca/cida_ind.nsf/0/8a9c59b47712caa385256ae8006c783?OpenDocument
Accessed on 2003/06/13

Morris, K. 2002. Family-based Social Work. In Adams, R., Dominelli, L. & Payne, M. 2002. *Critical Practice in Social Work.* New York: Palgrave.

Morrison, J.D., Howard, J., Johnson, C., Novarro, F.J., Plachetka, B. & Bell, T. 1998. Strengthening neighborhoods by developing community networks. In P.L. Ewalt, E.M. Freeman & D.L. Poole. *Community building: Renewal, well-being and shared responsibility.* In Prigoff, A. 2000. *Economics for Social Workers. Social outcomes of Economic Globalization with Strategies for Community Action.* Canada: Wadsworth. Brooks/Cole Thomson Learning.

Mouton, J., & Marais, H. C. 1990. *Basic Concepts in the Methodology of the social sciences.* Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council.

Mulholland, S. 2002. *Another Voice II.* Cape Town: Spearhead.

Munro, D. A. 1995. Sustainability: Rhetoric or Reality? In Trzyna, T. C. 1995. *A Sustainable World. Defining and measuring sustainable development.* London: Earthscan Publications Ltd.

Mupedziswa, R. 1996. The challenge of economic development in an African developing country: social work in Zimbabwe. *International Social Work*, 39: 41-54.

Murcott, S. 1997. *Appendix A: Definitions of Sustainable Development.* [O]. Available:
www.sustainableliving.org/appen-a.htm
Accessed on 2001/10/21

Narayan, D. (Ed.) 2002. *Empowerment and Poverty Reduction. A Sourcebook.* Washington, DC: The World Bank.

Narayan, D., Patel, R., Schafft, K., Rademacher, A. & Koch-Schulte, S. 2000a.

Voices of the Poor: Can Anyone Hear Us? Chapter 2: The Definitions of Poverty. New York. Published for the World Bank, Oxford University Press. [O]. Available: www.worldbank.org/poverty/voices.reports.htm Accessed on 2003/04/24

Narayan, D. & Petesch, P. 2002. *Voices of the Poor: From Many Lands*. *Chapter 16: Conclusion.* New York. Published for the World Bank, Oxford University Press. [O]. Available: www.worldbank.org.lanconcl.pdf Accessed on 2003/04/24

Nattrass, N. 2003. Unemployment and AIDS: The Social-Democratic Challenge for South Africa. [O]. Available: www.tips.org.za/research/item.asp?ID=691&WebType=Papers Accessed on 2004/04/15

Naudè, W. & Jansen van Rensburg, L. 2002. *Understanding Poverty as a Human Rights Violation: The case of legal reform and local economic development in South Africa*. Paper prepared for the Sixth Annual Conference of the Centre for the Study of African Economies, on "Understanding Poverty and Growth in Sub-Saharan Africa", at St. Catherine's College, University of Oxford, 18-19 March 2002. [O]. Available: www.econ.ox.ac.uk/CSAEadmin/conferences/2002-UPaGISSA/papers/Naude-csae2002.pdf Accessed on 2003/04/16

Neuman, W.L. 1997. *Social research methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches.* 3rd edition. Boston, Mass: Allyn & Bacon.

New Dictionary of Social Work. Revised and comprehensive edition. 1995. Terminology Committee for Social Work. Cape Town: CTP Book Printers (Pty) Ltd.

Ncube, T. 2004. South Africa can learn from Zimbabwe. The First Decade – and the way forward. The Black Management Forum Conference 2003. *A SUCCEED/ Essential*

special publication: Entrepreneurship and Management in Southern Africa. January/ February 2004:(58-59).

Neefjes, K. 2000. People define their Environments: A Future of Change*.* In Lee, K., Holland, A. & McNeill, D. 2000. *Global Sustainable Development in the 21st Century.* Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Ngobese, P. & Cock, J. 1997. Development and the environment. In *Managing Sustainable Development in South Africa.* 1997. FitzGerald, P., McLennan, A. & Munslow, B. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Nitzke, J. 2000. *Rural Economic Development: Perspectives from the Heart.* [O]. Available:
www.witcc.cc.iq.us/research/reports/rural_econ_devl.pdf
Accessed on 2004/03/14

Njiro, E. 2002. Sustainable Development: An Oxymoron? *Agenda: Empowering women for gender equity.* (52):3-7.

Noble, D. 2001 Cool Business Guide. Lower Costs, Higher Productivity and Climate Change Solutions. [O]. Available:
http://www.pembina.org/pdf/publications/cbg-es.pdf
Accessed on 2004/04/27

Novartis Foundation for Sustainable Development. 1999.
Sustainable Development: A Common Challenge for North and South. [O]. Available:
http://www.foundation.novartis.com/sustainable_development.htm
Accessed on 1999/08/03

Noyoo, N. 2000. Social development in sub-Saharan Africa: Lessons for social work practice in South Africa. *International Social Work Journal*. 43 (4):453-465.

Nuwagaba, E.L. 2001. *Literacy as a tool for poverty eradication: Experiences from Uganda.* The Project Literacy Conference, National Department of Education and USAID Conference on Adult Learning and Poverty Alleviation.
27-29 November 2001. [O]. Available:
www.projectliteracy.org.za/tmpl/Pix/EphraimLemmy.png
Accessed on 2002/04/17

O'Brien, F. & F. Mazibuko. 1998. In Gray, M. (Ed.) *Developmental Social Work in South Africa: Theory and Practice.* Claremont: David Philip Publishers (Pty) Ltd.

O'Connor, J. 1995. Towards Environmentally Sustainable Development: Measuring Progress. In Trzyna, T. C. 1995. *A Sustainable World: Defining and measuring sustainable development.* London: Earthscan.

Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights. 1995. World Conference on Human Rights. [O]. Available:
http://193.138.190/html/menus5/wchr.htm
Accessed on 2004/04/03
Oka, T. & Shaw, I. 2000. *Qualitative Research in Social Work*. [O]. Available:
http://pweb.sophia.ac.jp/~t-oka/papers/2000/qrsw/qrsw.html
Accessed on 2004/03/07

Oliver, J. & Linkon, S. 2003. *Qualitative Research*. [O]. Available:
http://cte.rockhurst.edu/2003sotlinstitute/resources/qualitative_plenary.pdf
Accessed on 2004/03/07

Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD). 2001a. Sustainable development: Critical issues. [O]. Available:
www.oecd.org/publications/Pol_brief
Accessed on 2002/02/25

Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development. 2001b. Policies to Enhance Sustainable Development. [O]. Available:
www.oecd.org

Accessed on 2002/02/25

Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development. 2001c. The Well-being of Nations: The Role of Human and Social Capital. Executive Summary. [O]. Available: www.oecd.org/els/pdfs/EDSMINDACA003.pdf
Accessed on 2002/02/25

Osei-Hwedie, K. 1995. *A search for legitimate social development education and practice models for Africa.* New York: The Edwin Mellen Press, Ltd.

Palmary, I. 2001. *Social Crime Prevention in South Africa's Major Cities.* [O]. Available: www.csvr.org.za/papers/papalm2.htm
Accessed on 2003/08/14

Pandor, N. 2003. Ten years on and it's better than before. *Mail & Guardian,* 25 April: 38

Parnell, S. & Mosdell, T. 2003. *Recognising, explaining and measuring chronic urban poverty in South Africa.* Conference paper: Staying Poor: Chronic Poverty and Development Policy. University of Manchester, 7 to 9 April 2003. [O]. Available: http://idpm.man.ac.uk/cprc/Conference/conferencepapers.htm
Accessed on 2003/05/27

Payne, M., Adams, R. & Dominelli, L. 2002. On Being Critical in Social Work. In Adams, R., Dominelli, L. & Payne, M. 2002. *Critical Practice in Social Work.* New York: Palgrave.

Pope, C. & Mays, N. 1995. *Qualitative Research: Reaching the parts other methods cannot reach: An introduction to qualitative methods in health and health services research.* [O]. Available: http://bmj.bmjjournals.com/cgi/content/full/311/6996/42
Accessed on 2004/03/10

Popple, K. 2002. *Community Work*. In Adams, R., Dominelli, L. & Payne, M. 2002. *Critical Practice in Social Work*. New York: Palgrave.

Porritt, J. 1998. Introduction. In Warburton, D. 1998. *Community and Sustainable Development. Participation in the future.* London: Earthscan Publications.

Portes, A. 1998. Social Capital: Its origins and applications in Modern Sociology. In Falk, I. & Kilpatrick, S. 1999. *What is social capital? A study of interaction in a rural community.* [O]. Available:
www.crlra.utas.edu.au
Accessed on 2003/04/07

Potgieter, M.C. 1998. *The Social Work Process: Development to Empower People.* South Africa: Prentice Hall (Pty) Ltd.

Poverty Mapping Project. 2002. [O]. Available:
www.povertymap.net
Accessed on 2003/04/16

Preissle,J. [Sa]. *Qualitative Design: An Introduction.* [O]. Available:
http://don.ratcliff.net/qual/judeoutline.html
Accessed on 2002/03/09

Pretorius, B. M. L. 2004. *Developing a Social Work Practice Model for the Prevention of Relationship Violence: A Youth Perspective.* Unpublished doctoral thesis. Doctor Philosophiae in the Faculty of Health Sciences. University of Port Elizabeth.

Prigoff, A. 2000. *Economics for Social Workers. Social outcomes of Economic Globalization with Strategies for Community Action.* Canada: Wadsworth. Brooks/Cole Thomson Learning.

Proudly South African. How many unemployed? 2003. [O]. Available:
www.proudlysa.co.za/about/news/2003/0411.html
Accessed on 2003/04/27

Proudly South African. 2003. 4,8 million unemployed. [O]. Available:
http://www.proudlysa.co.za/about/news/2003/0327.html

Accessed on 2004/03/22

QuickMBA. *Entrepreneurship. A Definition of Entrepreneurship.* [Sa]. [O]. Available:
www.quickmba.com/entre/defintion
Accessed on 2004/03/17

Rafuls, S.E. [Sa]. *Qualitative Research Methods.* [O]. Available:
http://ericcass.uncg.edu/research/rafuls.html
Accessed on 2002/10/03

Raheim, S. 1996. Micro-enterprise as an approach for promoting economic development
in social work: lessons from Self-Employment Investment Demonstration. *International
Social Work*. (39): 69-82.

Ramarumo, M. 2001. The Role of Adult Education in Sustainable Development.
The Project Literacy Conference, National Department of Education and USAID.
Conference on Adult Learning and Poverty Alleviation.
27-29 November 2001. [O]. Available:
www.projectliteracy.org.za
Accessed on 2002/04/17

Ramphele, M. 2002. *Steering by the Stars: Being young in South Africa.* Cape Town:
Tafelberg.

Ray, D. 1998. In Braun, B., Gidwani, V. & Sugnet, C. 2003. "Development" and its
Discontents. MacArthur Seminar/ Fall 2003. [O]. Available:
www.icgc.umn.edu/Courses/DSS8310%20syllabus%20_Sept3,%202003%20version_pdf
Accessed on 2004/05/30

Reid, M. 1997. A Local Government Perspective on Social Capital. In Byrne, J. 1999.
Literature Review on Community Development. New Zealand Department of Labour.
Occasional Paper Series. [O]. Available:
www.dol.govt.nz/PDFs
Accessed on 2003/04/07

Roberts, B. 2000. *Chronic and Transitory Poverty in Post-Apartheid South Africa: Evidence form KwaZulu-Natal.* CSDS Working Paper No. 28. School Of Development Studies, University of Natal, Durban, South Africa. [O]. Available:
www.nu.ac.za/csds/Publications/28.pdf
Accessed on 2003/04/16

Roberts, B.J. 2001. Chronic and Transitory Poverty in Post-Apartheid South Africa: Evidence form KwaZulu-Natal. *Journal of Poverty*, 5 (4). The Haworth Press, Inc.

Roberts, D. 2003. *Sustainability and Equity: Reflections of a Local Government Practitioner in Southern Africa.* In Agyeman, J., Bullard, R.D. & Evans, B. 2003. *Just Sustainabilities. Development in an Unequal World.* London: Earthscan Publications Ltd.

Robinson, D. 1997. Social Capital and Policy Development. In Byrne, J. 1999. *Literature Review on Community Development.* New Zealand Department of Labour. Occasional Paper Series. [O]. Available:
www.dol.govt.nz/PDFs
Accessed on 2003/04/07

Robinson, V. 2003. Talking left and acting right. *Mail & Guardian,* 30 May: 39.

Rockefeller, S. C. 1996. *Principles of a sustainable society.* IUCN, UNEP and WWF – Prepared for the Earth Charter project. [O]. Available:
www.iisd.org/sd/principle.asp?pid=57&display=1
Accessed on 2004/04/23

Rodenburg, E. 1995. Monitoring for Sustainability. In Trzyna, T. C. 1995. *A Sustainable World: Defining and measuring sustainable development.* London: Earthscan.

Rogerson, C.M. 2002. *SMMEs and Sustainable Development. In The Long Walk to Sustainability: A Southern African Perspective*. World Summit Publication. 41-44. Johannesburg: IHS South Africa.

Rogge, M.E. & Darkwa, O.K. 1996. Poverty and the environment: an international perspective for social work. *International Social Work*, 39: 395-409.

Roopa, S. [Sa]. *Human Rights, Transformation and Local Economic Development in South Africa.* [O]. Available:
www.kas.org.za/Publications/SeminarReports/Constitution%20and%20Law%20iv/roopa.pdf
Accessed on 2003/08/14

Rowland, W. 2003. Fadila the Activist. *Imfama.* 43 (3):

Rubin, A. & Babbie, E. 1993. *Research methods for social work.* 2nd Edition. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/ Cole.

Ruskin, H. [Sa]. *The Qualitative Paradigm.* [O]. Available:
www.compapp.dcu.ie/~hruskin/RM2.htm
Accessed on 2004/02/29

Sagoff, M. 2000. Can Technology Make the World Safe for Development? The Environment in the Age of Information. In Lee, K., Holland, A. & McNeill, D. 2000. *Global Sustainable Development in the 21st Century*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Sánchez, P. & Chaminade, C. [Sa]. Case Study Research: Application to the analysis of intangibles. Meritum Project. Spanish Contribution.
http://www.fek.su.se/home/bic/meritum/download/applic.rtf.
Accessed on 10/03/2004

Sanders, C.K. 2001. *Promoting economic well-being among the poor through microenterprise initiatives in the United States.* [O]. Available:
www.umsl.edu/services/pprc/data/pbrief_005_promoting_economic.pdf
Accessed on 2003/07/01

SANGOCO. 1998. *Executive Summary*. [O]. Available:
www.africaaction.org/docs98/sa9810.htm
Accessed on 2003/05/18

Saunders, P. 1998. *Defining Poverty and Identifying the Poor. Reflections on the Australian Experience.* Social Policy Research Centre. Discussion Paper No. 84. [O]. Available:

www.sprc.unsw.edu.au/dp/dp084.pdf

Accessed on 2003/04/16

Schoeman, M. 2001. South Africa's political economy in a global context*. In* A Venter. (Ed.) *Government and Politics in the new South Africa: An introductory reader to its institutions, processes and policies. 2nd ed.* Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Schuerman, J.R. 1983. *Research and evaluation in the human services.* New York: Free Press.

Schuller, T. 2000. *Thinking About Social Capital.* [O]. Available:

www.open.ac.uk/lifelong-learning/papers

Accessed on 2003/03/15

Schurink, E.M. 1998. In de Vos, A.S. (Ed.) *Research at Grass Roots: A primer for the caring professions.* South Africa: J.L. van Schaik Publishers.

Schuyler, G. 1998. *Social Entrepreneurship: Profit as a means, Not an End.* [O]. Available:

www.celcee.edu/publications.digest/Dig98-7.html

Accessed on 2003/08/01

Seepe, S. 2002. All good things come to an end*. Mail & Guardian.* 23 August: 23-29

Senge, P. M. 1990. *The Fifth Discipline. The Art & Practice of The Learning Organization.* New York: Doubleday International.

Sewpaul, V. 2001. *Economic Globalisation and Social Policy Reform: Social Work Curricula in the South African Context* Social Work/Maatskaplike Werk 2001: 37 (4) (309-323)

Shardlow, S. M. 2002. Values, Ethics and Social Work. In Adams, R., Dominelli, L. & Payne, M. 2002. *Social Work. Themes, Issues and Critical Debates*. Second Edition. New York: Palgrave.

Sheng, F. 1995. National Economic Indicators and Sustainable Development. In Trzyna, T. C. 1995. *A Sustainable World: Defining and measuring sustainable development.* London: Earthscan.

Siegle, D. [Sa]. *Qualitative versus Quantitative.* [O]. Available:
www.gifted.uconn.edu/siegle/research/Qualitative/qualquan.htm
Accessed on 2004/04/13

Silungwe, S. M. [Sa]. *Facing Poverty and Impoverishment: The Challenges and some churches' response in Southern Africa.* [O]. Available:
http://web.uct.ac.za/depts/ricsa/about/staffpgs/sam_pr.htm
Accessed on 2003/03/15

Singh, J. 2002. Turning talk into action in the build-up. *Mail & Guardian,* 24 May: 2.

Singh, N. & Titi, V. 1995. *Empowerment for Sustainable development: An Overview.* [O]. Available:
http://sankalpa.tripod.com
Accessed on 2002/03/02

Slaughter, M.P. [Sa]. *Entrepreneurship. Economic Impact and Public Policy Implications. An Overview of the Field.* Kauffman Center for Entrepreneurial Leadership. [O]. Available:
www.dotcomventuresatl.com/Downloads/Entrepreneurship &PublicPolicy.pdf
Accessed on 2003/08/01

Smith, A. & Stewart, B. 2001. *"Beyond number crunching:"* Applying Qualitative Techniques in Sport Marketing Research. [O]. Available:
http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR6-2/smith.html
Accessed on 2004/03/14

432

Sparks, A. 2003. *Beyond the Miracle: Inside the new South Africa.* Johannesburg: Jonathan Ball Publishers.

Social Investment Research Group. [Sa]. *Research from an Economic Developmental Perspective. Center for Social Services Research.* [O]. Available:
http://cssr.berkeley.edu/socialinvestment/
Accessed on 2003/07/06

Solow, R. 1993. in Lalumière, C. *Constructing the Future.* [O]. Available:
www.januarymagazine.com/nonfiction/sustaindevelop.html
Accessed on 2001/10/21

Sonn, F.A. 1999. Keynote address given at the 11th International Symposium of the IUCISD. *Social Development for the New Millennium: Visions and Strategies for Global Transformation.* Cape Town, South Africa, July 1999. [O]. Available:
www.sc.edu/swan/iucisd/docs/dansanderslecture.htm
Accessed on 2003/03/15

Southern African Catholic Bishops' Conference (SACBC). 2002. *Un-blurring the Vision – An Assessment of the New Partnership for Africa's Development by South African Churches*. [O]. Available:
www.sarpn.org.za/NEPAD/may2002/unblurring_the_vision.pdf
Accessed on 2003/06/06

South African Regional Poverty Network (SARPN) & Human Science Research Council (HSRC). 2002. *Children, HIV and Poverty in Southern Africa.* [O]. Available:
www.sarpn.org.za/EventPapers/STC/WorkshopInvite.pdf
Accessed on 2003/06/22

South African Women's National Coalition. 2002. Working document of concerns and priorities for the World Summit on Sustainable Development. *Agenda: Empowering women for gender equity.* 52: 73-76.

Sterling, S. 2001. *Sustainable Education. Re-visioning Learning and Change.* Devon, United Kingdom: Green Books Ltd.

Steyaert, *C. 2000. Creating* worlds: Political Agendas of Entrepreneurship. [O]. Available: www.lok.cbs.dk/departments/mpp/lok/publikationer/world2b.pdf
Accessed on 2003/08/01

Stevens, A., Bur, A. & Young, L. 1999. *Partial, unequal and conflictual: problems in using participation for social inclusion in Europe.* [O]. Available: www.ukc.ac.uk/eiss/Documents/ppmgarticle.pdf
Accessed on 2003/07/06

Stigson, B. 2002. Outside the fence line: The new business connection. *Earthyear: The Essential Environmental Guide.* (2): 32-35, Johannesburg: M& G Media.

Strauss, A. & Corbin, J. 1998. *Basics of Qualitative Research. Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory.* Second Edition. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.

Stromquist, N.P. 2001. *Literacy for Women's Citizenship: What we know and what can be done.* The Project Literacy, National Department of Education and USAID Conference on Adult Learning and Poverty Alleviation. 2001. [O]. Available: www.projectliteracy.org.za/tmpl/Nelly%20Stromquist.htm
Accessed on 2002/04/09

Strydom, H. & Venter, L. 2002. *Sampling and sampling methods*. In De Vos, A. S., Strydom, H., Fouché, C. B. & Delport, C. S. L. 2002. *Research at grass roots for the social sciences and human service professions. 2nd ed.* Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Stuart, B. 2003. *Research Methods Report: Qualitative Case Study*. [O]. Available: www.ischool.washington.edu/haryb/courses/LIS570Winter03/Qualitative%20Case%20Study.doc
Accessed on 2004/03/07

Sturgeon, S. 1998. In Gray, M. (Ed.) *Developmental social work in South Africa: Theory and practice*. Cape Town: David Philip Publishers.

Sunter, C. 1997. *What it really takes to be World Class*. Cape Town: Human & Rousseau Tafelberg.

Sunter, C. 1998. *Home Truths. What we've got to do!* Cape Town: Tafelberg Publishers and Human & Rousseau.

Sustainable Lifestyles Conference, 1999. In Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (DEFRA). 2000. [O]. Available: www.defra.gov.uk/environment/sustainable/educpanel/language/03.htm
Accessed on 2003/02/23
Sustainable Living Network. [Sa]. [O]. Available: http://www.sustainableliving.org/index.html
Accessed on 2001/10/21

Swilling, M. & Wooldridge, D. 1997. Governance, administrative transformation, and development in South Africa: A normative approach. In *Managing Sustainable Development in South Africa.* 1997. FitzGerald, P., McLennan, A. & Munslow, B. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Swarts, M. 1998. How "sustainable" is development? *In Focus Forum*, 6 (2): 2-3

Tacconi, L. & Tisdell, C. 1992. Rural development projcets in LDCs: appraisal, participation and sustainability. *Public Administration and Development*. (12): 267-278.

Taylor, R. 1998. *Beyond integrated rural development: an ecosystem-based approach to sustainable rural development.* Africanus 28 (1).

Teferra, Z. [Sa]. *Sustainable Development and Community Participation.* [O]. Available: www.eeaecon.org/econ-focus/vol4%20no4/zelalem.htm
Accessed on 2003/03/15

Terre Blanche, M. & Durrheim, K. (Eds) 1999. *Research in practice. Applied methods for the social sciences.* Cape Town. University of Cape Town Press. (Pty) Ltd.

Tesoriero, F. 1999. Will social work contribute to social development into the new millennium? *Australian Social Work*. (52) 2:11-17

Thames Valley University. [Sa]. *Qualitative Data Analysis.*[O]. Available:
http://www.tvu.ac.uk/dissguide/hmlu4/hmlu4text3 .htm
Accessed on 2004/03/11

The Human Development Report, 1997. *Eradicating human poverty worldwide – an agenda for the 21st century.* Chapter 6. [O]. Available:
 www.hdr.undp.org_1997_ch6.pdf
Accessed on 2003/04/19

The Payson Center for International Development and Technology Transfer. 2002. *Sustainable Human Development.* [O]. Available:
www.payson.tulane.edu/shdonline/M0/3-shd.htm
Accessed on 2003/04/20

The People's Movement for Human Rights Education. The Human Right to Freedom from Poverty [Sa]. [O]. Available:
www.pdhre.org/rights/poverty.html
Accessed on 2002/03/11

The Social Investment Research Group. Center for Social Services Research. University of California at Berkeley School Of Social Welfare. [Sa]. [O]. Available:
http://cssr.berkeley.edu/socialinvestment
Accessed on 2003/07/06

The Sustainable Living Network. [O]. Available:
www.sustainableliving.org/index.html
Accessed on 2001/10/21

The Topsy Foundation. 2003. (grant.law@ogilvy.co.za). 2003/07/14.
E-mail to I. McKinlay (jpm@zamail.co.za)
Accessed on 2003/07/14

The World Bank. 1998. Social Capital Initiative Working Paper No. 1. *The Initiative on Defining, Monitoring and Measuring Social Capital. Overview and Program Description.* [O]. Available:
www.iris.umd.edu/publications/detail
Accessed on 2003/04/08

The World Bank. 2000. *Partnerships for Development*. Washington, D.C. The Creative Communications Group.

The World Bank. 2001. *Making Sustainable Commitments*. An Environment Strategy for the World Bank. Summary. Washington, D.C.
The World Bank. 2002. Linking Poverty Reduction and Environmental Management: Policy Challenges and Opportunities. [O]. Available:
http://wbweb4.worldbank.org/nars/eworkspace/ews004/groupware/Gi_View.asp?ID=27
Accessed on 2002/09/02

The World Bank Group. 1998a. *Learning Modules. Social Issues*. [O]. Available:
www.worldbank.org/depweb/english/modules/social/index.htm
Accessed on 2002/01/19

The World Bank Group. 1998b. *Learning Modules. Economic Issues*. [O]. Available:
www.worldbank.org/depweb/english/modules/economic/index.htm
Accessed on 2002/05/18

The World Bank Group. 2000. *Learning Modules. Population Growth Rate*. [O]. Available:
www.worldbank.org/depweb/english/modules/social/pgr/texta.htm
Accessed on 2002/05/18

The World Bank Group. 2000a. What The Poor Say. *Violence, Civil Conflict And Public Safety.* [O]. Available:

www.worldbank.org.poverty/data/trends/violence.htm

Accessed on 2002/09/02

The World Bank Group. 2000b. What The Poor Say*. The Good Life And The Bad Life.* [O]. Available:

www.worldbank.org.poverty/data/trends/goodbad.htm

Accessed on 2002/09/02

The World Bank Group. 2000d. What The Poor Say*. Four Problems With The System.* [O]. Available:

www.worldbank.org.poverty/data/trends/problem.htm

Accessed on 2002/09/02

The World Bank Group. 2001. *What is Urban Poverty?* [O]. Available:

www.worldbank.org/urban/poverty/defining.html

Accessed on 2003/04/05

The World Bank Group. 2003. Understanding Poverty. What is Poverty? [O]. Available:

www.worldbank.org/poverty/mission/up1.htm

Accessed on 2002/01/09

Thin, N. 2002. *Social Progress and Sustainable Development.* Kumarian Press, Inc. [O]. Available:

http://www.kpbooks.com/details.asp?title=Social+Progress+and+Sustainable+Development

Accessed on 2002/03/02

Thomas, D. R. 2000. Collecting and Analysing Qualitative Data. [O]. Available:

www.health.auckland.ac.nz/hrmas/resources/collectingdata.html

Accessed on 2004/04/18

Thornton, P. & Lunt, N. 1998. *Worlds Apart? Employment Policies for Disabled People in Eighteen Countries: A Review.* [O]. Available:

438

www.dinf.ne.jp/doc/emglish/asia/resource/z00ap/002/z00ap00206.htm
Accessed on 2003/07/29

Thyer, B.A. 2002. Developing Discipline-Specific Knowledge for Social Work: Is it possible? *Journal of Social Work Education*, Council on Social Work Education. 38 (1):

Timmons, J.A. 1999. *New Venture Creation. Entrepreneurship for the 21st Century*. Singapore. McGraw-Hill International Editions.

Timperley, J. 2000. *Barefoot on Broken Glass. The five secrets of personal success in a massively changing business world.* Capstone:Oxford.

Todaro, M.P. 1997. *Economic Development*. Sixth Edition. London: Addison Wesley Longman Limited.

Trevithick, P. 2000. *Social Work Skills. A Practice Handbook*. Philadelphia: Open University Press. [O]. Available:
 www.mcgraw-hill.co.uk/openup/chapters/0335206999.pdf
Accessed on 2003/07/31

Trzyna, T. C (Ed.) 1995. *A Sustainable World: Defining and Measuring Sustainable Development.* London: Earthscan Publications Ltd.

Turmusani, M. 2003. Poverty *and Disabled People in Development Context: examples from Jordan and Afghanistan.* Staying Poor: Chronic Poverty and Development Policy Conference, 7th – 9th April 2003 – Manchester, UK. [O]. Available:
www.idpm.man.ac.uk/cprc/Conference/conferencepapers/Turmusani%20Majid.pdf
Accessed on 2003/07/29

United Kingdom Government. 2001. [O]. Available:
www.sustainable-development.gov.uk/what_is_sd/what_is_sd.htm
Accessed on 2003/03/05

United Kingdom Government. 2003. Achieving a better quality of life. Chapter 4:
International Co-operation and Development. [O]. Available:
www.sustainable-development.gov.uk/ar2002/04.htm
2003/03/05

United Kingdom Sustainable Development Commis sion. 2004. Sustainable Development
Commission. [O]. Available:
www.sd-commission.gov.uk/pubs/assessment/index.htm
Accessed on 2004/04/15

United Nations Press Release. 2000. World Leaders adopt "United Nations Millennium
Declaration" at conclusion of extraordinary three-day summit. [O]. Available:
www.un.org/News/Press/docs/2000/20000908.ga9758.doc.html
Accessed on 2003/05/04

United Nations Capital Development Fund. "Poverty and Local Governance" Issue Paper
No. 2. Fifth Africa Governance Forum (AGFV) "Local Governance for Poverty Reduction
in Africa" Maputo, Mozambique, 23-25 May 2002. [O]. Available:
www.undp.org/rba/pubs/ag5/issue%20paper%20on%20local%20governance%20and%2
0poverty%20reduction%20.pdf
Access on 2003/04/17

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. 2001. Earth Summit + 5. [O].
Available:
www.un.org/esa/earthsummit/ga97info.htm
Accessed on 2003/04/05

United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. 2003. *Poverty.* [O]. Available:
www.un.org/esa/sustdev/sdissues/poverty/poverty.htm
Accessed on 2003/04/05

United Nations Development Programme. 1995. Capacity Development Resource Book. *Capacity Development for Sustainable human Development: Conceptual Framework and Operational Signpost, 1995.* [O]. Available:
http://magnet.undp.org/cdrb/CAPDEV.htm
Accessed on 2004/05/01

United Nations Division for Social Policy and Development. 1999. World Summit For Social Development. [O]. Available:
www.visionoffice.com/socdev/wssd.htm
Accessed on 2004/05/28

United Nations Economic and Social Council, 2001. *Introduction: Towards integration and sustainable development.* [O]. Available:
www.unece.org/env/documents/2001/cep/ac12/cep.ac.12.3.e.pdf
Accessed on 2002/03/11

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. 2001. *Sustainable Development. Towards a Deeper Reflection on Sustainable Development*. [O]. Available:
http://www.unesco.org/education/esd/english/sustainable/reflect.shtml
Accessed on 2003/02/23

United Nations International Conference on Financing for Development. 2003. Archive of the International Conference on Financing for Development Monterrey, Mexico, 18-22 March 2002. [O]. Available:
www.un.org/esa/ffd/ffdconf
Accessed on 2004/05/28

United Nations Population Information Network. 1994. International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) 1994. [O]. Available:
www.un.org/ecosocdev/geninfo/populatin/icpd.htm
Accessed on 2004/05/28

University of East London. 2002. Social Work Studies. [O]. Available:
http://www.uel.ac.uk/social-sciences/human-relations/socialwork.htm

Accessed on 2003/06/22

Vaida, G. 2003. The great jobs gap. *Sunday Times: Business Times,* 10 August: 15.

Van der Berg, S. & Bredenkamp, C. 2002. *Devising social security interventions for maximum poverty impact.* CSSR Working Paper No. 13. [O]. Available:
http://web.uct.ac.za/depts/cssr/pubs.html
Accessed on 2003/06/28

Van Rooyen,C. 1998. *Democratising social work research.* In De Vos, A.S. *Research at grass roots: A primer for the caring professions.* South Africa. J.L. van Schaik Publishers.

Van Teijlingen, E.R. & Hundley, V. 2002. *The importance of pilot studies*. [O]. Available:
www.soc.surrey.ac.uk/sru/SRU35.html
Accessed on 2002/10/20

Venter, L. 2001. *In the Shadow of the Rainbow.* Johannesburg: Heinemann Publishers.

Viederman, S. 1995. Knowledge for Sustainable Development: What Do We Need to Know? In Trzyna, T. C. A Sustainable World. Defining and measuring sustainable development. London: Earthscan Publications Ltd.

Visser, W. & Sunter, C. 2002. *Beyond Reasonable Greed: Why Sustainable Business is a Much Better Idea!* Cape Town: Human & Rousseau and Tafelberg Publishers.

Walsh, C. 1993. Development that Works! Lessons from Asia Pacific. [O]. Available:
http://rspas.auu.edu.au/melanesia/PDF/spriggs_Ocollins03.pdf
Accessed on 2004/05/29

Walters, S. 2001. Break out of the silo: Adult Education within Lifelong Learning in Southern Africa. The Project Literacy, National Department of Education and USAID conference on Adult Learning and Poverty Alleviation. [O]. Available:
www.projectliteracy.org.za/tmpl/Prof_Shirley_Walters.htm
Accessed on 2002/04/09

Warburton, D. (Ed.) 1998. *Community and Sustainable Development. Participation in the future.* London: Earthscan Publications.

Waterhouse, L. & McGhee, J. 2002. *Social Work with Children and Families*. In Adams, R., Dominelli, L. & Payne, M. (Eds.) 2002. *Social Work. Themes, Issues and Critical Debates. Second Edition*. New York: Palgrave.

Webb, R. & Tossell, D. 1999. *Social Issues for Carers. Towards Positive Practice.* 2nd edition. London: Arnold.

Weyers, M.L. 1991. Field practice models and strategies in community work. In Lombard, A. 1991. *Community work and community development. Perspectives on social development.* Pretoria: HAUM-Tertiary.

White, M. 2002. A world unfit for children. *Mail & Guardian,* 17 May: 31
White Paper For Social Welfare, 1997. Department of Welfare. Pretoria. [O]. Available:
http://www.gov.za/whitepaper/1997/soswel97.htm
Accessed on 2002/01/27

Wikipedia: The Free Encyclopedia. 2004. Research. [O]. Available:
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Research
Accessed on 2004/05/24

Williams, M., Tutty, L.M. & Grinell, R.M. Jr. 1995. *Research in social work: An introduction.* Itasca, ILL. Peacock.

Winograd, M. 1995. Environmental Indicators for Latin America and the Caribbean: Tools for Sustainability. In Trzyna, T. C. 1995. *A Sustainable World: Defining and measuring sustainable development.* London: Earthscan

Wolfe, J. 1999. *The ABC's of Sustainable Communities: A Work in Progress.* [O]. Available:
www.asu.edu/caed/proceedings99/WOLFE/WOLFE.HTM

Accessed on 2003/03/01

World Bank Group. 2003. Economic costs of AIDS. [O]. Available:
www.globalpolicy.org/socecon/develop/2003/0723costs.htm
Accessed on 2003/07/28

World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED). 1987. [O]. Available:
http://www.eeexchange.org/sustainability/content/A/2.HTML
Accessed on 2002/10/05

World Commission on Environment and Development. [O]. Available:
http://www.sustainableliving.org/appen-a.htm
Accessed on 2001/10/21

World Development Report. 2002.Sustainable development in a Dynamic World.
Transforming Institutions, Growth, and Quality of Life. New York. The World Bank and
Oxford University Press.

World Resources Institute. 2003. The World Summit on Sustainable Development:
Pursuing a global agenda. [O]. Available:
http://pubs.wri.org/pubs_content_text.cfm?ContentID=1794
2004/05/05

World Trade Organization. 2001. Ministerial Conference. Fourth Session Doha, 9-14
November 2001. [O]. Available:
www.ictsd.org.ministerial/doha/relevantdoc.htm
Accessed on 2003/04/04

Young, D.R. 2002. In Bent-Goodley, T.B. *Defining and Conceptualizing Social Work
Entrepreneurship.* Vol. 38, No. 2 (Spring/Summer 2002) Journal of Social Work
Education

Zelna, C. [Sa]. *Qualitative Methods: Interviews and Focus Groups.* [O]. Available:

www.ncsu.edu/undergrad_affairs/assessment/assess.htm

Accessed on 2004/03/11

APPENDIX 1 :   SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

SEMI-STRUCTURED
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1	*"What is your perception of the concept 'sustainable development'?"*
2	*"How sustainable do you think the interventions on individual, family, group and community level are in your working environment?"*
3	*"How do social service providers, social workers and administrators within your working environment plan and strategise to ensure sustainability of interventions?"*
4	*"When would you say a project or programme is sustainable?"*
5	*"What are your perceptions of a business focus in social work?"*
6	*"What is your perception of social worker's willingness or readiness to change with regard to a business focus in social work practice?"*
7	*"Are social workers motivated to explore extending the core areas of knowledge and skills to include business skills?"*
8	*"What should social workers do to encourage the client population to develop entrepreneurial skills?"*
9	*"How would skills and knowledge on entrepreneurship assist social workers to facilitate sustainable human, social and economic development?"*

10	*"Do you think social workers and managers are adequately skilled to facilitate sustainable development?"*
11	*"Do you think social workers are equipped to deal with the many changes in the new South Africa?"*
12	*"What should be in place for social workers to be empowered to facilitate a developmental paradigm, i.e. to integrate human and economic development?"*
13	*"What plans/strategies do you have in place to enhance people's participation in projects/enterprises as a means to improve sustainability?"*
14	*"What plans/strategies, in your organisation, are in place to equip people with knowledge and skills to improve the general quality of their lives?"*

APPENDIX 2 :   INVITATION

<div align="right">
Irma McKinlay
D.Phil Student
Department of Social Work
University of Pretoria
Promoter: Prof. A. Lombard
</div>

6th January 2003

The Organisation

To whom it ma y concern,

Research - Social Work and Sustainable Development:
An Exploratory Study

Our telephone conversation in early January 2003 has reference.
As previously explained I will appreciate if you could identify those social workers in
your organisation who are involved in one or more of the following:

- **community development**
- **the development of social networks**
- **income -generating projects**
- **small business development**
- **human development programmes, namely skills development and adult
  basic education**

The working experience, knowledge and insight of social workers concerned with the
above would greatly enhance this research study.

Attached to this fax you will find the consent form to be completed by each social worker
willing to participate in this study.

Please return it to me via email mailto:jpm@zamail.co.za or FAX: 083 8 227 2014 or
PO Box 90009 Garsfontein 0042.

 Do not hesitate to contact me if you have any queries regarding any of the above details
at (012) 998 7352 or 083 227 9272.

Your involvement and contribution would be much appreciated.

APPENDIX 3 :   INFORMED CONSENT/ CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT

Research - Social Work and Sustainable Development: An Exploratory Study

Informed consent to participate in the research project

Aim of the study:

To explore current social work practice with regard to sustainable development and identify new challenges and opportunities for sustainable social work practice in the changing South Africa.

Research procedure:

I will be invited to be part of a focusgroup discussion to explore the concept *sustainable development and its applicability in social work*. The duration of a focusgroup session will be approximately one hour. I will be advised of the time and venue of the discussion groups.

I understand that the focus group discussion will be audio taped. The cassettes and transcripts will be kept in a secure place and will be heard only for the research purposes by the researcher. Once the research has been completed, the cassettes and transcripts will be destroyed.

Risks and discomforts:

I take note that there are no known risks or discomforts associated with this research study.

Benefits:

I understand that there are no direct benefits for me for participating in this research study. However, the results of the study may lead to a clearer understanding of social work practice within the paradigm of sustainable development. The results of the study may provide insight and knowledge for social workers, social work students, social welfare administrators, policymakers and other interested parties.

Participation rights:

I understand that my participation is voluntary, that I can choose not to participate in part or all of the project, and that I can withdraw at any stage without being penalised or disadvantaged in any way.

Confidentiality:

I understand that the researcher will take all reasonable steps to protect the anonymity of research participants.

Disclosure:

As this is a focus group discussion, each participant agrees not to disclose confidential information of any other participant and agrees to use his/her best efforts to prevent inadvertent disclosure of confidential information and to treat such information with at least the degree of care that he/she treats similar material and information of his/her own. By signing this consent form, I confirm that I have read this informed consent form and that the study has been explained to me. I do not give up any legal right by signing this informed consent form. I will receive a signed copy of this consent form. I understand that I will not receive any compensation for participating in this research.

_____

Participant (Print name)

_____

Participant's signature

_____

Date

_____

Signature of Researcher

APPENDIX 4 :   REMINDER

Irma McKinlay
D.Phil Student
Department of Social Work
University of Pretoria
Promoter: Prof. A. Lombard

12th February 2003

The Organisation

To whom it may concern,

REMINDER

**Research - Social Work and Sustainable Development:
An Exploratory Study**

Kindly return the "Consent Form" without delay as necessary arrangements has to be made. Your contribution and sharing of knowledge and expertise would benefit all concerned with community development, social work intervention and social work practice in South Africa.

Please get in touch if you need additional information.

Regards,

Irma McKinlay

PO Box 90009, Garsfontein, 0042 Pretoria
mailto:jpm@zamail.co.za
Fax: 083 8 227 2014
Home: 012 998 7352