

**THE IMPLEMENTATION OF GUIDELINES FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD
DEVELOPMENT (ECD) SERVICES: AN EVALUATION OF EARLY CHILDHOOD
DEVELOPMENT CENTRES IN MKHAMBATHINI LOCAL MUNICIPALITY**

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Science (Policy and Development Studies), Discipline of Humanities, School of Social
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DECLARATION

I **Ncengiwe Siyabonga Shezi**, declare that the research report in this dissertation is the product of my original work and that sources used has been indicated and acknowledged as such in the text. The report was conducted under the supervision of Dr. Mark Rieker and has not previously been submitted to a university for a degree or any other study.

Signature of Student

Signed...  ...On this date... 12 ...of... 03 / 2014 ...

Signature of Supervisor

Signed.....On this date.....of

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Signed.....On this date.....of.....

Signature of Supervisor

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ABSTRACT

In South Africa many children are affected by poverty and neglect. These children are underprivileged and experience poor performance in school and may even drop out (Department of Education, 2001: 4). Even though legislative prescripts mandate government to provide quality education, access is still a challenge. The KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Government, civil society and the business sector are in agreement that the vision for the KwaZulu-Natal province is a “prosperous province with [a] healthy, secure and skilled population, acting as a gateway to Africa and the world” (KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Planning Commission, 2011: 6). Economic growth, improvement of people’s lives, reducing inequality, and promoting environmental sustainability is indeed a priority for the KwaZulu-Natal government (KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Planning Commission, 2011: 10).

This study then aimed to evaluate the implementation of *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development (ECD) Services* looking at early childhood development centres in the Mkhambathini local municipality. The study seeks to contribute to current theories and specifically to the existing knowledge of the fact that in Africa there are disparities between policy statements and practice in early childhood development centres which have implications for policy implementation and quality education as a broad objective in developing countries.

In this research study in-depth open ended interviews, direct observation, and document analyses were used. The researcher used a mixed method approach in sequential data collection.

The findings of the study have been found to be consistent with previous studies conducted on ECD services. The findings reveal that there are discrepancies between the number of children that ECD centres are registered for and the number of children who attend the centres. The coverage implementation of ECD guidelines is biased; subgroups, disabled children, and children with special needs do not fully participate in or are not able to access services in the Mkhambathini municipality. The study argues that at this stage the guidelines for ECD services are not implemented as designed. The document lacks implementation strategies which take into account the environmental issues of the province of KwaZulu-Natal. The *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development (ECD) Services* set a high standard for ECD centres; too high for rural areas to comply with.

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DEDICATION

I humbly dedicate this dissertation to my family, my late father Bongize Tuza Shezi, my mammy dearest Ngodwa Sukelaphe Shezi, my daughter Akhona Ximba, my late brother Sithuli Shezi, my sister Nokuthula Landulile Shezi, and my young brother Semukelo Shezi. Your unconditional love, inspiration, good advice, encouragement, and support are very much appreciated and you are dearly loved. God abundantly blesses you.

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LIST OF ACCRONYMS

| | |
|------|--|
| ECD | Early Childhood Development |
| DSD | Department of Social Development |
| DoE | Department of Education |
| KZN | KwaZulu-Natal |
| NPO | Non-Profit Organisations |
| PGDS | Provincial Growth and Development Strategy |
| APP | Annual Performance Plan |
| AG | Auditor General |
| MIS | Management Information System |
| SA | South Africa |
| CSO | Civil Society Organisations |

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction and Background

Early childhood development (ECD) is a process of emotional, mental, spiritual, moral, physical, and social development for children from birth to nine years (Department of Social Development, 2006: 6). An early childhood development centre is any structure, place, or a building that admits and cares for more than six children in any day who are not with families or guardians (Department of Social Development, 2006: 6). These include but are not limited to crèches, day care centres, pre-schools, and after care centres. The Children's Act of 1983 mandates the provision of early childhood development. The amended Children's Act 41 of 2007 justifies the existence and importance of early childhood development in South Africa. In terms of the amended Children's Act 41 of 2007 early childhood development centres must be registered as non-profit organisations (NPOs), and as places of care and they must comply with the norms and standards of the Department of Social Development (Department of Social Development, 2006: 6).

The 2001 Education White Paper 5 on Early Childhood Development Education submitted to parliament by the minister of education, Professor Kader Asmal, indicates that South Africa still faces challenges in this regard (Department of Education, 2001: 4). Many children are affected by poverty and neglect. These children are underprivileged and experience poor performance in school and may even drop out (Department of Education, 2001: 4). However access to ECD centres in South Africa remains a challenge for a large number of children (Department of Education, 2001: 4). This is mainly because many families cannot afford to pay for access to quality ECD services (Department of Social Development, 2006: 14). Many children are also affected by disability. The success of these children is often hindered and some are subjected to abuse. It is evident that these children are sometimes not understood because of the nature of their disabilities and as a result are subjected to discrimination. Access to education is a challenge for these children (Department of Social Development, 2006: 14-15).

HIV/AIDS is still a key challenge in South Africa, specifically in the province of KwaZulu-Natal (Department of Social Development, 2006: 14). The disease has negative effects on both families and the education system. HIV/ AIDS contribute to the high death rates and the increase in orphanages in South Africa which has financial and psychological implications. Family members get sick and in some cases children become heads of households. Some

children are unable to go to school when a family member gets sick and there is no one else to take care of the sick person (Department of Social Development, 2006: 14).

Contributing to the unequal success rates between boys and girls is the gender inequality in South Africa. Good education is limited when children are treated unfairly on the basis of gender. Certain societies still believe that education is meant for boys and not for girls. For children to grow strong and successful, inequality has to be addressed in South Africa (Department of Social Development, 2006: 15). This study evaluates the implementation of *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development (ECD) Services* looking at early childhood development centres in Mkhambathini local municipality.

Lack of quality education has introduced other related problems such as unemployment and poverty in KwaZulu-Natal. As of 2005, 5.3 million people were living in poverty and 1.2 million live on less than R6.50 a day or R200.00 a month (KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Planning Commission, 2011: 46). The poverty gap is R18.3bn, the amount required to raise the income of the 5.3 million people above the poverty line (KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Planning Commission, 2011: 46). Evidence shows that the people most affected by lack of quality education, are the unemployed, especially African people in rural areas, women, and youth (KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Planning Commission, 2011: 46).

The KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Growth and Development Strategy 2030 (KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Planning Commission, 2011: 10) highlights seven strategic goals with thirty objectives accompanied by one hundred and twenty four interventions which form a guide to decision-making and resource allocation between now and 2030. The strategic goals include job creation; human resource development; human and community development; strategic infrastructures; responses to climate change, governance, and policy; and spatial equity (KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Planning Commission, 2011: 10).

The leadership in the province appears to be very interested in human resource development which includes strengthening early childhood development services (KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Planning Commission, 2011: 90). This commitment is appreciated but there are concerns about the successful implementation of this objective. Currently, based on the geographic locations of the ECD centres, challenges such as access to educational materials, and unequal access to remedial and special attention for children with specific needs, remain

a challenge. The province of KwaZulu-Natal also has poor rural communities which apparently have a direct influence to the educational system because of family and community values. (KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Planning Commission, 2011: 90). In these communities boy education takes preference compared to a girl education. Education is perceived important for growth and development but cannot be achieved without other basic services which contribute to good education. Water, electricity, sanitation, and well trained teachers are a requisite for quality education (KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Planning Commission, 2011: 90). This means that urgent attention must be paid to basic services, enhancement of school governance, community education about the general importance of education and girl children to avoid dropouts.

1.2 Research Problem

According to the Human Sciences Research Council (2009: 10) 600 000 of the 5 200 000 children under the age of four were in government-funded ECD centres in 2009. According to the Provincial Growth and Development Strategy (2011: 89), inequitable access to remedial services, and special attention for children with challenges, need to be addressed by the province of KwaZulu-Natal (KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Planning Commission, 2011: 89). Adults, especially in poor rural communities, have limited knowledge about the importance of stimulation and learning through play (KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Planning Commission, 2011: 89). The necessary equipment important for the educational development and learning experiences of children are scarce. Children who enter the school system without a proper early childhood development foundation are perceived as physically, socially, cognitively and emotionally underdeveloped and are unlikely to manage literacy, numeracy, and life-skills at school (KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Planning Commission, 2011: 89). It is a concern that some of the ECD centres are not in a good condition as required by the state. There are also concerns in terms of government funding especially in the rural ECD centres. The quality of education that the province of KwaZulu-Natal would like to achieve from an early stage is a concern.

These problems do not only affect South Africa; Kenya shares the same problems. Murunga's (2013: 88) interest lies in early childhood development education (ECDE) as foundation bedrock of all learning for every child in Kenya. The broader problem, according to Murunga (2013: 88), is that while government has developed an early childhood development

education policy (Early Childhood Development Framework, 2006) which clearly indicates the government's commitment in ensuring quality of early ECDE services it is evident that the practice of these service providers for ECDE services contradicts the policy in terms of access, equity, and non-compliance to policy (Murunga, 2013: 88). Also, the low level of community involvement in implementing the policy is a great concern. (Murunga, 2013: 88).

1.3 Research objectives

The overall aim of this study is to evaluate the implementation of *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development (ECD) Services* looking at early childhood development Centres in Mkhambathini local municipality.

A specific objective is to:

- a) Assess the management (skills and resources) of the ECD centres in their capacities as learning organisations
- b) Establish the extent to which ECD practitioners understand their roles and responsibilities
- c) Determine the extent to which ECD centres comply with the *Guidelines for ECD Services*
- d) Assess the needs of the early childhood development centres
- e) Assess the challenges of the early childhood development centres.

1.4 Research questions

In applying the DSD *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development Services*, the study seeks to address the following research questions:

- a) To what extent do the ECD centres comply with the guidelines for ECD services?
- b) What is the management capacity of the ECD centres?
- c) To what extent do ECD sites understand their roles and responsibilities?
- d) What are the needs of the early childhood development centres?
- e) What are the challenges of the early childhood development centres in implementing the *Guidelines for ECD Services*?

1.5 Benefits of the study

The study seeks to contribute to existing theories, specifically to existing knowledge of the fact that in Africa there are disparities in policy statements and practice in early childhood development centres which have implications on policy implementation and quality education as a broad objective of developing countries. The Department of Social Development and the Department of Education need to acknowledge that there has to be continuous advocacy to ensure that ECD service providers deliver quality education. The researcher is still new in the field of research. This research will be benefiting to the researcher in terms of capacity enhancement.

1.6 Literature Review

Different studies concentrate on different aspects of early childhood development which include but are not limited to HIV/Aids, disability, book sharing, children's emotional literacy, and family welfare (Taylor and Kvalsvig, 2008: 6).

Taylor and Kvalsvig (2008: 61-73) for example investigate the myth of HIV/Aids in South Africa in the communities of KwaZulu-Natal by focusing on understanding the potential roles that ECD practitioners can play to help vulnerable children and their families (Taylor and Kvalsvig, 2008: 61-73). Barnfather and Amod (2012: 598-607) focus on emotional literacy and social development in South Africa paying particular attention to the Persona Doll programme as an attempt to intervene in the emotional development of young children (Barnfather and Amod, 2012: 598-607). Luger, Prudhomme, Bullen, Pitt & Geiger's (2012: 1-5) area of focus is on children with disability in a township of Cape Town, South Africa. Their finding was that children with disabilities can be part of inclusive education (Luger, Prudhomme, Bullen, Pitt & Geiger, 2012: 1-5). Desmond's (2010: 73-82) focus is on empowering welfare to spearhead a family literacy project in the southern Drakensberg area of KwaZulu-Natal. In this study, reading together as a family proved to improve the literacy of women and encouraged them to support the literacy development of their children (Desmond, 2010: 73-82). Zahir (2012: 617-627) concentrates on dialogic book-sharing as a means of stimulating the development of cognitive and language skills in children. He however acknowledges the continuous challenge of lack of resources in South Africa since most people still live in poverty (Zahir, 2012: 617-627).

Ngwaru (2012: 25-40) focuses on early childhood development as a foundation to reduce school dropout rates in Sub-Saharan Africa which in turn affect socio economic status and global education. The emphasis is on the importance of empowering parents and involving them in their children's early education. Meaningful contributions by parents to support their children's social and emotional development increase the chances of effective literacy development and ensure sustainable access to schooling (Ngwaru, 2012: 25-40). Murunga emphasises the reinforcement of legislative prescripts in Kenya by focusing on the implementation challenges faced by early childhood development centres (Murunga, 2013: 88-93).

The common focus in the literature is early childhood development albeit from different perspectives. The selected references all focus on ECD in disadvantaged communities. Murunga's important contribution lies in assessing the various measures that the Kenyan government had undertaken to address the issue of access, equity, and quality in early education. He looked at the existing policies and procedures that have been put in place to promote quality early education and lastly; challenges facing ECD centres in implementation the policy and procedure for early childhood development. The research findings in the literature pave an opportunity for similar studies to be conducted in Mkhambathini municipality. Acknowledging the challenges that South Africa has been facing in the past provides an opportunity for an evaluation of the *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development Services* to be conducted. The current study is different in that it focuses on the rural community of Mkhambathini municipality and there has not been any study on this subject, particularly not about the *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development Services* as approved in 2006 by the National Department of Social Development.

1.7 Limitations of the study

This study evaluates the policies in place with regard to *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development (ECD) Services*. The study covers the time period from 2006, the year in which the *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development (ECD) Services* was approved (Department of Social Development, 2006: 1) and focuses in Mkhambathini local municipality, KwaZulu-Natal. This is a rural municipality with scarce resources which is a challenge for the educational system. The study covers key variables, namely early childhood development, policy formulation, policy implementation, and policy evaluation and excludes other variables like sustainability, schooling parent involvement, social-emotional development,

and quality education. Having considered the aim and interests of the researcher, the study was affected by the following limitations:

- Lack of adequate time for exhaustive consultations with all stakeholders involved in the ECD sector. The research was expected to be finished within a stipulated time frame to enable all the stakeholders to scrutinise the report.
- Lack of adequate finances to exhaustively address all the related issues. Conducting research requires a number of resources which include travelling costs to meet participants, and documents to be produced and used during the research.
- An assumption that the ECDE centres are all equal in the province of KwaZulu-Natal.

1.8 Conclusion

This chapter has introduced the rationale and background to the study. It described the problem area, the research questions and the relevant literature review. The next chapter will focus on the theoretical framework. Relevant theories will be discussed in detail. An overview of policy cycle with the focus on implementation and evaluation stages will be given. The broad theory on implementation evaluation will be discussed in detail as it is relevant to this study.

CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This study evaluates the implementation of *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development (ECD) Services* in the early childhood development centres in Mkhambathini local municipality. The study pays attention to the policies in place, and the DSD *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development (ECD) Services*. The focus of this chapter is on public policy, policy implementation, and policy evaluation.

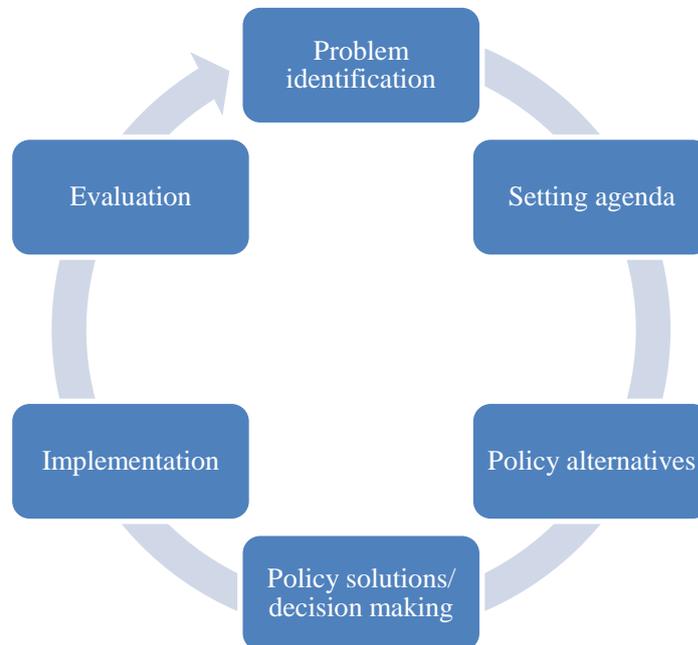
2.2 Policy

According to Colebatch (2002: 49) policy is the “pursuit of goals” (Colebatch, 2002: 49). Policy is a formal statement by decision makers, often political and in leadership, to solve specific problems (Colebatch, 2002: 110). According to *the Policy Framework for the Government-Wide Monitoring and Evaluation System* policy is a statement of what government seeks to achieve through its work and the reason for the specific work (Office of the Presidency, 2007: 28). In government the commonly used term is public policy. It is the cause of action adopted and pursued by government. It serves as a guide or principles to guide decisions and to accomplish outcomes. Policies guide and spell out how service delivery should be implemented as procedures. In government public policy development is commonly motivated by legislative prescripts such as a constitution that compels an organisation to deliver. It articulates the intentions of government with the purpose of achieving specific goals (Office of the Presidency, 2007: 28). The purpose of public policy for the state is to provide services delivery to the public and to account for the provisions made (Scholes, 2012: 147-148).

Depending on the context of the study, policy is defined differently. The *Policy Framework for the Government-Wide Monitoring and Evaluation System* definition is relevant to the implementation evaluation study of the *Guidelines for ECD Services*. The guidelines are used to describe actions which intend to change certain situations. In this case, it gives details on how ECD services should be implemented to achieve a good educational system and to address the problems experienced in the past which include inequality in education, unemployment, and other problems. Colebatch (2002: 50) states that there are six important policy stages, namely policy problem identification, setting the agenda, defining policy alternatives and solutions, making decisions on the most feasible alternatives, implementing

these alternatives, and evaluating the policy (Colebatch, 2002: 50). These six stages are illustrated below (Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1 Policy Cycle (Colebatch, 2002: 50)



In view of Colebatch's policy processes this study is limited to policy implementation and evaluation. According to Colebatch (2002: 50) as already mentioned, the first stage is problem identification. To Rossi and Freeman (1989: 73) defining social problems is complex and not easy to define since a problem becomes a problem when it is recognised as a problem (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 73). The constructionist approach argues that there is no true or only one definition of the problem; rather a problem is defined and interpreted differently by different people (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 73). To Kingdon (1995: 3) policy stream, problem stream and political streams should be open for the policy to receive attention (Kingdon, 1995: 3). A problem gets attended if it is recognised as a problem, worthy to receive attention and failure of recognition will have negative implications. A problem must be recognised by policy makers that it deserves to be on government agenda and defining a problem is political in that it depends on who defines it, the resources and policy alternatives available (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 73).

2.2.1 Policy implementation is defined as “a process of interaction between the setting of goals and actions to achieve them” (Hill and Hope, 2002: 44). This is to say there must be a policy prior to implementation to enable a process to move forward (Hill and Hupe, 2002:

44). Top-down implementation theorists like Van Meter and Van Horn argue that prior to policy formulation, it is important to identify all the variables and the stakeholders who are important participators in the policy development. In this way, stakeholders get involved in policy decisions in advance. Bottom-up theorists like Lipsky argue that the roles of street bureaucrats are important in policy implementation. Here the results experienced at "street level" must be anticipated in the policy development state (Hill and Hupe, 2002: 44).

2.2.2 Policy evaluation relates to the “estimation, assessment, or appraisal of a policy or programme, including its content, implementation, goal attainment, and other effects” (Hill and Hupe, 2002: 44). Evaluation is defined by Weiss (1998: 4) as “the systematic assessment of the operations and the outcomes of a program or policy, compared to the set of explicit or implicit standards, as a means of contributing to the improvement of the program or policy” (Weiss, 1998: 4). This is basically a systematic collection and objective analysis of evidence on programmes, policies, or projects to systematically assess the relevance, performance effectiveness, impact, sustainability and to recommend the way forward. Rist (2009: 14) adds that “evaluations for development can be conducted on different aspects of development such as projects, programmes, policies, and organisations and relate to different interventions implemented by the organisations, sectors (specific policy areas), or themes which consist of cross-cutting issues or global public goods, as well as country assistance which relates to the progress of a country against pre-determined plans” (Rist, 2009: 14). Based on the above definition by Weiss, Rist (2009: 8) acknowledges that the term evaluation has various meanings and such variances are mainly related to the purpose of the evaluation, in other words whether it relates to accountability or to the learning of a programme, project, or policy (Rist, 2009: 8). Based on the above, this study evaluates policy, *DSD Guidelines for Early Childhood Development Services* and the study focuses on implementation evaluation with the intention of improving performance and informing decision making rather than impact of the study.

Monitoring refers to collecting; analysing; and reporting on inputs, activities, outputs, and outcomes in a way that supports effective management (Hill and Hupe, 2002: 44). According to Weiss (1998: 15) there are differences between evaluation and research. The differences include issues of intended use (utility), judgemental quality, programme-derived questions, allegiance, publication, and similarities are based on the methods used in the research and evaluation. Both activities include the study of variables. Rist (2009: 8) shares the same understanding as Weiss (1998: 15) and states that making judgements of the value or worth

of a subject is one of the key elements in evaluation which is distinct from research and monitoring (Rist, 2009: 8). For Cloete (2000: 9) the key issues to be covered in an effective evaluation are issues of relevance, efficiency, effectiveness, utility, time, validity, reliability, and sustainability (Cloete, 2000: 9). Weiss (1998: 24) argues that evaluation can be undertaken internally by hiring the staff in an organisation or can be conducted externally where a service provider gets appointed to do the work based on terms of reference for the job, and lastly can be conducted jointly by the internal and external staff and this working together arrangement is important to ensure transfer of skills to an organisation (Weiss, 1998: 24).

2.2.3 Theorists of evaluations

Theories of evaluation include but are not limited to result based monitoring and evaluation; theory of change; multiplistic approach and design approach.

2.2.3.1 Result based monitoring and evaluation

According to Rist (2009: 108) result based monitoring and evaluation is twofold; a monitoring system and an evaluation system, and they are both designed to ensure effective measurement (Rist, 2009: 108). Result based monitoring is more of a continuous systematic collection and collation of data on a programme, policy, or project using indicators to assess how the programme is implemented. In contrast, result based evaluation is defined as the estimation of continuous or completed achievements to determine relevancy, effectiveness, sustainability and impact. Decisions are taken based on this information. It is important that the information the researcher finds is reliable, valid, and useful for decision making. To Rist (2009: 109) the combination of implementation progress and progress towards achieving planned or pre-determined objectives or results of a policy, programme, or project makes result based monitoring and evaluation useful and meaningful in public management. This is because it allows amendments to be made to the implementation process and to source necessary support for effective management and achievement of the objectives and outcomes (Rist, 2009: 109).

2.2.3.2 Theory of change

To Rist (2009: 151) theory of change is “an innovation tool to design and evaluate social change initiatives; it is a blueprint of the building blocks needed to achieve the long term goals of a social change initiative” (Rist, 2009: 151). Theory of change is basically the

sequential chain of how the organisation, policy, programme, or project is expected to or will achieve its result and goals. The assumption of theory of change is that the interventions are based on reasoning from the problem to the choices of intervention and how they are expected to work. The activities of the interventions to be implemented should be clear. There should be evidence of the intervention in terms of outputs, outcomes, and impact (Rist, 2009: 151). This theory is very specific in identifying the actual events that are expected to occur to achieve results (Rist, 2009: 151). According to Pawson as quoted by Rist (2009:151) an understanding of programme theory, research of the synthesis and resources are important for good theory of change (Rist, 2009: 151).

2.2.3.3 The multiplist approach

Cloete (2000: 654) quotes Cook's argument that the truth about life is multi-faceted and therefore the methods of analysis used by evaluators should examine a variety of options and data. Here, Cook argues that there is no one truth that policy makers should consider and researchers should not focus on one method when evaluating or researching but focuses on multi-methods. Triangulation emerges when one option is chosen among others based on truthfulness and usefulness (Cloete, 2000: 654). His main concern is on the truth; to be able to defensibly interpret what is actually in the outside world more than one research method can be used which makes evaluation more about testing claims to knowledge than advancing truth or best alternatives Cloete (2000: 654). This theory is close related to rationalist approach to life or truth (Cloete, 2000: 654).

2.2.3.4 Design approach

To Cloete (2009: 564) design approach is about understanding the problem or reality and design solutions responsively to suite the problem. It starts with policy making and the intention of achieving the specific objectives or goals. Cloete argues that it is human beings who provide meaning to the world, they also design this reality about life through policy making with a specific goal and it thus become correct to be objectively evaluate the reality which is constantly changing and continuously get new shape (Cloete, 2009: 564).

2.2.4 Purposes of evaluation

According to Weiss (1998: 25) evaluation has two main purposes: decision making and organisational learning. In evaluation for decision making, midcourse correction assesses what is going on with an aim of identifying strengths and weaknesses of the programme or

policy (Weiss, 1998: 25). It is at this point where improvement must be seen because it is evaluation during implementation and there may be several reasons for improvement. Normally, improvement is urgent when the evaluation findings demonstrate failure. One reason for improvement is to ensure quality enhancement and an improvement on cost effectiveness (Weiss, 1998: 25). Evaluation is used to decide whether to continue with a programme, to expand the service, or to cut the service. Most projects or programmes which are cut are ones that are not performing well or as planned (Weiss, 1998: 25).

Evaluations are conducted to test new programme ideas. According to Weiss (1998: 26) an evaluation can be conducted to assess if a new idea works and based on the findings a decision can be made about the future of the programme and its success (Weiss, 1998: 26). Evaluation is conducted to choose the best alternatives. To Weiss (1998: 26) evaluations can be run in different ways to determine which options have the best outcomes. Evaluation can be done to decide whether to continue funding a project or programme. This course of action is mostly initiated by funders wanting to make a decision regarding continued funding of a project. Such evaluations can be assessed against the pre-determined terms of reference that were put forward as conditions for the funding (Weiss, 1998: 26).

Secondly, evaluation is done for organisational learning. Recording history is according to Weiss (1999: 27) one way of organisational learning (Weiss, 1998: 27). Here, programme managers conduct evaluations for the purpose of documenting and sharing the findings with all stakeholders. Also, some may want to keep the evaluation information to themselves to ensure that they learn from what has happened. Such instances ensure that one does not repeat the same practice or mistakes (Weiss, 1998: 27). This information can also be used for future planning; it is a platform to build on, share, and manage knowledge. Not all policies and programmes fail because they were not good policies; some fail because certain steps were not successfully executed or properly planned. It is possible that a policy, project, or a programme that was implemented be considered again having gained knowledge of what went wrong. The purpose of evaluation can be to give feedback to practitioners of how the work they are doing is progressing. According to Weiss (1999: 27) staff who are given positive feedback about good work will continue to have good effects (Weiss, 1998: 26). Programme managers can use frequent evaluations to emphasise programme goals to practitioners and stakeholders. Evaluations for social intervention are related to knowledge acquisition (Weiss, 1998: 26). Here, issues of extrapolating principles about what works, building new theories and models, and generalising about effectiveness, is used to inform

policy. In addition, evaluation is initiated for accountability. For Public Finance Management Act (1999: 23-26) public organisations are allocated budgets in line with programmes to be implemented and such plans are documented in the strategic and annual performance plans (APP) of an organisation and get published in parliament (Act 1 of 1999). Based on this, they are expected to account to treasury every quarter and also report at the end of each financial year by compiling an annual report detailing what has been done and how much has been spend on allocations (Public Finance Management Act no.1 of 1999).

The purpose of an evaluation is associated with who initiated the evaluation study and the contributions of other stakeholders need to be taken into account. For Rist (2009: 11) the first purpose which he refers to as the ethical purpose relates to giving feedback to political leadership and citizens on the performance results of a policy, programme, or project. For him this relates to ensuring good governance, accountability, and democracy. Secondly, managerial purpose means providing feedback on financial and actual performance of a policy or programme with the intention of improving the policy, programme, or project implementation or service delivery (Rist, 2009: 11). Lastly, educational and motivational purpose relates to evaluating with the aim of sharing an understanding with public agencies and other stakeholders about the progress and status of policies or programmes. This is to educate and motivate people through feedback (Rist, 2009: 11).

Weiss (1998: 22) makes a distinction between overt and covert purposes in evaluation. He argues that there are clear purposes to evaluation but that it can also be misused to postpone or delay decision making. Evaluation can be used for window dressing, to provide legitimacy of what is known before the evaluation, and for public relations to ensure that the success of the programme is well noticed by all (Weiss, 1998: 22). Ducking responsibility is one element of mis-using evaluations where the managers or organisations choose evaluations which will provide evidence of a successful programme where there are two or more conflicting programmes (Weiss, 1998: 22). Palumbo (1993: 11) argues that there is no single truth about a programme, policy, or project. The constructionist approach Palumbo uses argues that social problems are socially constructed and mean different things to many people. People interpret problems differently which results in a conflict in a programme, as whose goals, indicators, and targets to be used to judge the outcomes which at the end is politically influenced as those in power are likely to succeed (Palumbo, 1993: 11).

This evaluation study of ECD services relates to both the already mentioned purposes namely research for decision making and for organisational learning. The Department of Social Development (DSD) is the main funder and also manages the ECD centres. The research findings will be shared with DSD policy makers with an intention of contributing to the knowledge base on the implementation of *Guidelines for ECD Services*. Sharing information will also serve the purpose of giving feedback to the practitioners, in this case social workers and programme managers who are responsible for managing the ECD centres in their areas of operation. Implementation evaluation study of *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development Services* seek to provide the status quo of what is happening in the ECD centres in terms of how the *Guidelines for ECD Services* are being implemented and to identify strengths and weaknesses in implementation. Based on the findings and recommendations, it is anticipated that improvements will be welcomed by all ECD Stakeholders.

2.2.5 Uses of evaluations

Evaluations can be used in different ways. According to Rist (2009: 15) evaluations can be used to provide support in re-organising or making decisions about the resource allocations in a programme, project or policy. They can help to identify emerging problems, diagnose, re-think root causes and pave the way forward on how best to respond to problems (Rist, 2009: 15). They can assist in rational decision making about which are the best or most feasible options in a policy, programme or project. It can be used to empower, build capacity, implement reform and encourage innovations (Rist, 2009: 15). In addition, evaluations can be used to analyse the reasons for achieving or not achieving. To Weiss (1998: 29) evaluations differ for many depending on the role of the person or even the whole system. He argues that the uses of evaluations for top policy makers relates to decision about whether or not programmes should continue and whether there should be amendments to current strategies? Should more money be allocated to a programme or project or be invested in another programme or project? (Weiss, 1998: 29). This is so because policy makers are concerned about the whole effects of policies, programmes or projects. For Weiss programme managers are less part of the decision-making related to expansion or termination of a programme or project and more on the on-going work and whether they work efficiently and effectively in the given parameters and strategies (Weiss, 1998: 29).

The uses of this implementation evaluation are to assist the researcher to understand the problems and causes faced by ECD centres in implementing and complying with *Guidelines for ECD Services*. Such challenges will assist in the analyses of predicting the future of ECD.

2.2.6 Types of evaluations

According to Herman, Morris, and Fitz-Gibbon (1987: 16) there are five types of evaluations. This includes (i) needs assessment, (ii) formative evaluation, (iii) summative evaluation, (iv) outcome evaluation and (v) implementation evaluation (Herman, Morris, and Fitz-Gibbon, 1987: 16). Needs assessment is the diagnosis of a problem or underlying situation and the root causes of the problem. The purpose of this evaluation is to understand what needs attention. What should be the priority or the general goals of the programme and where are they failing? (Herman, Morris, and Fitz-Gibbon, 1987: 16). Normally after an evaluation, decisions which relate to budgets for a programme or policy are taken, and activities are planned (Herman, Morris, and Fitz-Gibbon, 1987: 16). According to Rist (2009: 9) formative evaluation is an early stage in evaluation. Here, formative evaluation assesses how a programme, policy or project is implemented and then monitors how the program can be improved to ensure compliance with legal requirements (Rist, 2009: 9). Summative evaluation according to Cloete (2000: 550) relates to how the policy, programme or project has actually impacted on the problem it is addressing (Cloete, 2000:550). Summative evaluation focuses on the judgement and values of the programme, policy or project. Here, baseline information against which to compare the programme, policy or project achievement is important (Cloete, 2000: 550).

According to Herman, Morris, and Fitz-Gibbon (1987: 18) outcome evaluation relates to the extent to which the goals of a programme, policy or project are being achieved. It assesses whether interventions had an impact on outcomes and determines the impact level (Herman, Morris, and Fitz-Gibbon, 1987: 18).

According to Herman, Morris, and Fitz-Gibbon (1987: 17) implementation evaluation is about what is happening and why. Chen (2005: 165) calls implementation evaluation fidelity implementation. This is because it seeks to gauge the degree of congruency between intervention and target population as planned and intervention and target population as implemented (Chen, 2005: 165). Fidelity evaluation or implementation evaluation determines congruency between the setting, mode, and procedure of service delivery as planned and as actually manifested (Chen, 2005: 165). For Patton implementation evaluation can be

understood as assessment with the aim of finding out whether a programme or policy has all its parts, fully functional and functioning as planned (Patton, 1997: 196).

For Patton “What is the importance of the implementation evaluation?” (Patton, 1997: 197). Certainly, one of the key responsibilities of government is to establish relevant solutions to problems that have been identified. This appears in the form of policy, programmes or projects. To operationalise these interventions, specific activities are implemented to achieve certain goals, outcomes, and impact (Patton, 1997: 197). After a certain period, stakeholders can decide to evaluate a policy or programme. The findings may reveal that the programme or policy is ineffective or successful. According to Patton (1997: 197) impact evaluation alone provides very little information about what went wrong in a programme, project or policy. Different reasons can result into a programme being defined as ineffective or effective. Never implemented and wrong implementations are one of the key reasons for ineffective programmes or policies (Patton, 1997: 197). Based on research findings, some programmes and policies are expanded, amended or some got terminated (Patton, 1997: 197). It is therefore clear that to only consider outcome evaluations limits the usefulness of evaluation findings. To Patton (1997: 197) it is easy to say “it worked” however without proper evaluation of the actual implementation of a programme itself, one could find it very difficult to tell what exactly “worked or what did not work” (Patton: 1997: 197).

According to Patton (1997: 199) the importance of implementation evaluation is the utility of information for the purpose of action and decision making. The focus on outcome evaluation limits the extent to which decision makers can make an informed decision about the future of the programme (Patton, 1997: 199). It is for this above explanation that implementation evaluation provides comprehensive information on actual implementation against the planned activities. Detailed analysis of implementation reveals which activities were not executed that was supposed to contribute to desired changes. Lack of information about the causes of a programme’s success or failure may result in wrong decision making. It appears that the availability of human resources can compel the undertaking of either an outcome evaluation or implementation evaluation however, according to Patton (1997: 200) a well-defined and designed implementation evaluation can produce concrete findings and can then be used to estimate the impact that a programme is likely to achieve (Patton, 1997: 200). Implementation evaluations when combined with outcome evaluations can facilitate the identification of effective programmes and practices (Chen, 2005: 165). This information promotes the dissemination of evidence-based programmes as well as provides insights

regarding how programmes should be designed and implemented to produce positive results (Chen, 2005: 165).

The research study is implementation evaluation because it seeks to assess what is happening, how is the policy; *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development Services* is being implemented. The study compares the actual policy in place and assesses whether it is implemented as specified in the policy. If not, what are the challenges experienced by ECD centres in implementation.

2.2.6.1 Implementation evaluation questions

According to Rist (2009: 12) implementation evaluation is important and seeks to answer questions such as “What are the impacts of the intervention? Is the intervention working as planned? Are there differences across sites in how the intervention is performing? And who is benefiting from the intervention?” (Rist, 2009: 12). To Weiss (1998: 220) evaluators should collect information which is related to the following questions: “What are your objectives for the project or programme? What are the major project activities? What will those activities achieve those objectives? What resources are available to project? (Number of staff; total budget; source of funds) What evidence is necessary to determine whether objectives are met? What happens if objectives are met? Or not met? How is the project related to local priorities? What major challenges are you experiencing? What results have been produced to date? What accomplishments are likely in the next three years?” (Weiss, 1998: 220). To Weiss these are generic questions that should be covered in any evaluation regardless of the type of evaluation.

According to Herman, Morris, and Fitz-Gibbon (1987: 16-18) the types of questions which can be asked differs in accordance with the type of evaluation one is conducting however; the two questions which appear in all the types of evaluation are questions about goals and important activities. This relates to what Cloete (2000: 217) refers to as evaluation management. The objectives or goals of a project or programme relate to the baseline information as to why the programme, policy or project was initiated, to serve which purposes. Baseline information relates to information before the intervention, and through a diagnosis of the problem this information dictates the goals of the policy, project, or programme. A key focus of evaluation is judgement, and to be able to judge the change before intervention and the after intervention which makes the baseline information and the goals for a policy or programme to become more important in all evaluations regardless of

type of evaluation (Cloete, 2000: 217). Specific questions which relate to the specific type of study are designed to fulfil the purpose of the study.

According to Herman, Morris, and Fitz-Gibbon (1987: 16-18) questions relevant to implementation evaluation include critical activities and administrative arrangements in the programme, the number of participants and staff taking part, the actual operation of the programme or policy, the resources allocated, the variation of programmes from one site to another (Herman, Morris, and Fitz-Gibbon, 1987: 16-18).

2.2.6.2 Five implementation evaluations

According to Patton (1997: 204) there are five types of implementation evaluations which evaluators need to recognise. These are: (i) efforts evaluation, (ii) routine management information, (iii) process evaluation, (iv) component evaluation and (v) treatment specification (Patton, 1997: 205-207). The basis of Patton's (1997: 205) efforts evaluation focuses on questions such as: "What did you do? How well did you do it? Have enough staffs been hired with proper qualifications? How many and which clients are being served" (Patton, 1997: 205). Here, effort evaluation is understood as the quality and quantity of activities implemented. This means that an inventory of the programme or policy operations is the core of effort evaluation. It is clear that all necessary parts which are required for the programme to achieve change should be in place to ensure quality service to the right targeted population (Patton, 1997: 205). Resources in terms of sufficient budget, and right people with right qualifications, should be in place (Patton, 1997: 205).

According to Patton (1997: 205) the one other main reason for implementation evaluation is to establish a management information system (MIS). This type of evaluation is mainly conducted internally for accountability purposes (Patton, 1997: 205). It focuses on questions which relate to the number of clients intake, programme spending, and client characteristics. This is routine data collection which serves the purpose of corrective and effective management for both short term and long term purposes (Patton, 1997: 205).

Process evaluation indicates that the extent to which the operations of the programmes are being implemented focuses understanding on the strength and weaknesses of the operation. According to Patton (1997: 206) focusing on how the output is achieved rather than the outcome itself makes the process developmental, descriptive, explanatory, and continuous. Here, successes, failures, and changes in a programme are discussed in detail and both

quantitative and qualitative approaches can be used. Such an investigation is both based on anticipated outcomes and unanticipated outcomes by assessing the policy implementation and its developments (Patton, 1997: 206). Process evaluation also pays attention to the different perspectives by various stakeholders on how they observe the operations of the programme, project or policy (Patton, 1997: 206). Patton (1997: 207) defines component evaluation as the evaluation of certain part of programme implementation as was organised on the basis that programme implementation can focus on separate, several operational efforts or parts of the programme (Patton, 1997: 207). Patton (1997: 207) argues that this evaluation is easier because a researcher compares the programme components to another, not between one programme to another.

Treatment specification focuses on what it is that the programme is supposed to change. Patton (1997: 207) states that programmes are designed as interventions or treatments of problems and then the treatment specifications focus on assessing the consistency of the programme operation which enables the achievement of the effects. Theory and understanding of variables of what is supposed to be done to achieve effects is critical since this gives insight into the underlying assumptions behind the programme activities (Patton, 1997: 208). This study is a form of implementation evaluation and seeks to explain the routine implementation of ECD services, failures and changes.

2.2.6.3 What is being monitored in implementation evaluation?

The purpose of implementation evaluation is not different from the discussion mentioned earlier. The significant question in implementation evaluation is what is being looked at? Rossi and Freeman (1989: 170) argue that in implementation evaluation, target participation, programme coverage and bias, and service delivery are the key focus areas.

2.2.6.3.1 Target participation, coverage and bias

It is significant to define the target group or population that will participate in every programme or policy prior to implementation. This must be considered in planning and designing the programme. Rossi and Freeman (1989: 181) emphasise that when programme participation is not voluntarily structured, the evaluator could want to assess how the programme is received by the targeted population. Good programme management regularly assesses the participation of the target population (Patton, 1997: 205). Programme managers and sponsors are very interested in such information for decision making purposes. A

programme that requires participants to adopt a certain procedure, lifestyle or behaviour is important if their participation is monitored to assess whether the procedures and standards are working for the target population and whether targeted population is making full use of the programme. Patton (1997: 205) encourages programme managers to understand the target population and be able to motivate the potential target to fully participate in the programme. There are different ways one could adopt to encourage target participation and communication in terms of distributing information about the programme through the media, adverts and community meeting or structures (Patton, 1997: 205).

Rossi and Freeman (1989: 182) add that coverage relates to “the extent to which participation by the target population achieves the level specified in the programme design, bias is the degree to which subgroups of the targets population participate differently” (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 182). Implementation evaluation assesses the extent of participation compared to the pre-determined level. This relates to that implementation supposed to be specified at the design stage to inform what is working and what is not. Bias in coverage may mean that a programme can react positively to some participants and reject other participants which can be the result of some members of the group having easy access to the programme. Self-selection, access, which requires participants to have transport to access programmes, can result in some target populations participating and benefiting from the programme more than others (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 185). Coverage can be characterised as under-coverage and over-coverage. Under-coverage can be seen in comparisons between the population in need who are served, compared with population in need, and over-coverage is the number in need who is served, against the total number served. This also reflects how the diagnosis was done and how the target population was defined by policy makers or planners (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 185).

2.2.6.3.2 Monitoring service delivery

The purpose of monitoring service delivery is to decide to continue, expand or amend a programme or service. Monitoring service delivery seeks to assess whether intervention outputs produce desired and intended outputs (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 193). To Rossi and Freeman (1989: 193) four implementation failures are prominent: non-programmes and incomplete treatment, wrong treatment, unstandardised treatment, and access (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 193). Certainly, there are programmes declared unsuccessful because they failed to deliver service at all. Also, some programme services are insufficiently delivered or

diluted from the service designed (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 194). Wrong treatment may be delivered due to lack of training and capacity of staff. It may also happen that interventions or treatments are complicated and do not match the available resources for implementation. Delivery strategies may contradict the treatment or the intervention (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 196). Unstandardised treatment relates to the level of discretion at street level bureaucracy when implementing a programme which results in many variations of implementation. Access is defined by Rossi and Freeman (1989: 197) as “the structural and organizational arrangements that facilitate participation in the program” (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 197). Rossi and Freeman (1989: 193) suggest that every programme should have a strategy on how the service will be accessed by the targeted population to effectively address the foreseen challenges that could hinder access. Evaluation access focuses on the operations of a programme, the termination of the participants and the participants’ satisfaction with the programme. Lastly, implementation evaluation assesses the efficiency and effectiveness of using resources. To Rossi and Freeman (1989: 193) specifying all elements or key result areas of the programme is important to understand as to what explicitly resulted into change both success and failure. Time, resources, costs and procedures must be evaluated and be specified to assess the effectiveness and efficiency of the inputs against the outputs and to predict the future (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 199). In this study the findings predict the foreseen impact the policy or programme might have. It then monitors the implementation to assess whether it is conducted as it should be.

2.3 Conclusion

According to Patton (1997: 197) impact evaluation alone provides very little information on what went wrong in a programme or policy and it is therefore not advisable to consider outcome evaluations alone since it limits the usefulness of the findings. As a result, implementation evaluation is an important stage in evaluating in detail what exactly “worked or not worked” (Patton: 1997: 197). Detailed analysis of the implementation reveals which activities were not executed that was supposed to contribute to the desired changes. Any deviation between the design and the implementation may result in the design or implementation to be amended to suit the required changes and achieve the specified impact (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 221). The next chapter will focus on early childhood development in South Africa and offer a literature review which forms that basis of the chosen approach, research methods, theory assumptions, and research techniques.

CHAPTER THREE: EARLY CHILDHOOD DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, three legislative frameworks and guidelines that inform early childhood development in South Africa (SA) are discussed. Like many developing countries, South Africa still faces challenges in early childhood development. In SA at least 200 million children under the age of five fail to reach their developmental potential due to poverty (Department of Social Development, 2006: 14-15). This has negative impacts in the short and long term. The challenges include poverty, HIV/AIDS, disability and inequality (Department of Social Development, 2006: 14-15). The chapter starts with elaborating on the *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development Services* in place which range from the ECD practitioners' qualifications, ECD management, ECD premises and equipment to the roles and responsibilities of the ECD practitioners.

3.2 The mandate of the state

The provision of ECD services is rooted in section 28 of the South African Constitution (Act 108 of 1998) which outlines the right of every child to the basic requirements for life and the development of their potential. ECD is a national priority of the Department of Social Development. The provision of ECD is mandated by the DSD White Paper on Social Welfare (Department of Social Development, 1997: 19). The DSD oversees the provision of ECD services in all nine provincial departments (Department of Social Development, 1997: 19).

The Ministry of Social Development is mandated to provide ECD services for children from zero to nine years of age and special priority is given to zero to three years (Department of Social Development, 2006: 19). The DSD is responsible for enforcing ECD within family environments including single parent families and special attention is to be given to children with special needs. It is the role of the DSD to develop a national ECD strategy and to set up collaborations between ECD service providers and other stakeholders such as government departments and civil society. The DSD is responsible for the enforcement of the Child Care Act of 1983 which mandates the DSD to regulate ECD facilities for children and to ensure payment of subsidies to these ECD facilities (Department of Social Development, 2006: 19). The amended Children's Act 41 of 2007 justifies the existence and the importance of early childhood development in South Africa. In terms of the Children's Act 41 of 2007, all early childhood development centres must be registered as both non-profit organisations

(NPOs) and as places of care and must comply with the DSD norms and standards (Department of Social Development, 2006: 6).

In terms of the Children's Act, the DSD is responsible for payment of the support grant for children in situations of extreme poverty (South African Childrens Act, 2007). The National Integrated Plan for children infected by HIV/AIDS also stipulates that the DSD should ensure the provision of psychosocial support to children made vulnerable by HIV/AIDS. Clearly, the two services, the child support grant and the registration subsidies of ECD facilities are two different payments and the receipt of one cannot prevent the payment of the other. This means that recipients of the child support grant should not have to use their money to pay fees for ECD centres and should not lose the right to receive a full subsidy to assess ECD services (Department of Social Development, 2006: 20).

3.3 ECD collaboration effort

In SA, ECD is recognised as a collaborative effort and its foundation is in the social sector which includes the Departments of Health, Education, Home Affairs and Social Development (Department of Social Development, 2006: 20). These departments have taken a lead in ECD with presidential support starting with the former president Thabo Mbeki to the current president, Jacob Zuma. The leadership has made their concern of ECD very clear in a public statement. The Ministry of Education in the implementation of the Education White Paper on ECD gives special attention to ECD in the educational sector (Department of Education, 2001: 4). Recently the DOE has set very precise objectives for the reception of Grade R in primary schools before the commencement of Grade 1. It also recognises the need for national, provincial and local strategies for ECD in conjunction with other departments and the National Programme of Action for Children Steering Committee (Department of Education, 2001: 4). Free health care for pregnant women and children under six years of age is implemented by the Ministry of Health. The role of the Ministry is to focus on health considerations in ECD services. This includes immunisation of children, an integrated national nutrition programme and a primary health care programme called the Integrated Management of Children's Illness (IMCI) (Department of Social Development, 2006: 20). This demonstrates that different ministries contribute towards the healthy development and growth of young children (Department of Social Development, 2006: 20). The registration of birth certificates is the mandate of the Department of Home Affairs. The Ministry of Housing is mandated to ensure safe housing for people in poverty or in need especially children.

Access to healthy water is also important for ECD services and is the responsibility of the Department of Water Affairs. The Department of Safety, Security and Justice is responsible for ensuring safety and protection in communities (Department of Social Development, 2006: 20).

3.4 The role of the National Department of Social Development

In terms of the *Guidelines for ECD Services*, the national DSD is responsible for the development of national policies on ECD services. It plays a main role in the development of national legislation on ECD services such as the Children's Act. The national DSD is also responsible for the development of national minimum standards for the implementation of ECD services such as the *Guidelines for ECD Services*. In collaboration with other departments, the national DSD develops national strategies and frameworks for integrated ECD services (Department of Social Development, 2006: 23). The national DSD operates in nine provinces and is mandated to provide support, capacity and guidance on ECD implementation to provincial departments. For the national DSD to assess the impact of ECD, it frequently monitors the provincial implementation of ECD norms, policies and standards. The national DSD also assesses provincial departments with the budget registrations of non-profit organisations (NPOs) as required by the NPO Act of 1997 (Department of Social Development, 2006: 23).

3.5 The role of the Provincial Department of Social Development

While the national DSD is responsible for policy and legislation development which governs ECD, provincial departments are responsible for the development of strategies to integrate ECD with the provincial departments and NGOs (Department of Social Development, 2006: 24). This is to facilitate the actual implementation of ECD policies and guidelines. The nine provincial departments have different roles and responsibilities according to their organisational environments. Central to roles and responsibilities are to give direction and guide the implementation of ECD services. This includes NPO registrations as both NPO organisation and a partial care site which allows an NPO to render ECD services (Department of Social Development, 2006: 24). Provinces have the discretion of developing ECD policies if required however; they should be aligned to national legislation policies. Provinces facilitate the integration of ECD services to children within the province such as family prevention and HIV/AIDS (Department of Social Development, 2006: 24). Provinces are expected to frequently monitor and report to the national DSD on the implementation of ECD

services. According to Mzini (2011: 275) the provincial DSD is responsible for the funding and implementation of psychosocial programmes and also monitor service delivery

3.6 The role of local government, DSD Service Office

Local government which is commonly referred to as service offices are responsible for inspection of NGO structure to assess whether structures will be suitable for accommodating young children. They also assist NGOs with registration processes to comply with funding criteria as NGOs may operate on behalf of government in providing ECD services (Department of Social Development, 2006: 24).

3.7 The role of the Non-government Sector

ECD is a broad topic and requires all departments to contribute and commit to delivery. This collaboration and commitment is extended to civil societies such as non-profit organisations to achieve the best possible results in ECD. SA is challenged in terms of skills in social service hence the DSD has prioritised the strengthening of civil society and communities to register as NPOs and partner with government in service delivery (Department of Social Development, 2009: 18).

3.7.1 Civil Society

According to Khilnani (2001: 2) the definition of civil society is multi-layered and understood differently where different forms of civil society exist in different contexts. Glaser defines civil society as the organisation that fills the empty gap that exists within the public space (Glaser, 1997: 5). Civil society comes together for the benefit of society members. To Lewis (2001: 1) civil society is a “population or group formed for collective purposes primarily outside of the state and marketplace” (Lewis, 2001: 1). This proves that there is no single definition of civil society. Basically, civil society is independent of government and formed to confront and challenge existing structures such as government regarding its functionality or the implementation of public policies. Civil society organisations (CSOs) are also classified as all institutions and organisations which fall outside government. This includes trade unions, consumer organisations, formal and informal welfare sectors, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), non-profit organisations (NPOs), community-based organisations (CBOs), religious organisations which deliver welfare services, corporate social investment, employee assistance programmes (Bratton, 1989: 428).

Khilnani (2001: 3) argues that no solution to social, economic or political problems in this century can be successful without the involvement of civil society since civil society is regarded as the chain to change or rather collective change (Khilnani, 2001: 3). Agranoff (2007: 9) argues that there is no single organisation at any level of government that has adequate resources to deliver public policies on its own. Working environment of Public organisation is different. Government planning and decision making has a lot of outside political influence from oppositional parties and civil societies who have interest on the policy at hand. Public opinion matters, interest groups have to be listened to and policies have to be followed because if not, decisions are subject to failure and being interrupted.

Wuthnow (1996: 11) defines civil society as a modern society that opposes oppressive rule from the top where the society does not participate in governing. This includes voluntary associations, churches, non-governmental organisation and non-profit organisations. Civil society is based on individual and collective values and community participation is maintained. Civil societies operate independently of the state and engage with it but do not seek to take it over (Edwards, 2004: 7). For Wuthnow (1996: 11) civil society is the institution which arises outside the official hierarchies of churches and states (Wuthnow, 1996: 11). Analytical position, normative position and public sphere are the theories that best assist in understanding the role of civil society. From an analytical perspective civil society is formed outside state and financial institutions to advance the common interests of a community (Wuthnow, 1996: 11). It also serves to facilitate the actions of a community. Edwards (2004: 7) argues that civil society plays the role of networking between the family and state. In normative perspective, civil society is formed to challenge existing structures and activities, and to test whether these are ideal for the community (Edwards, 2004: 7). It also encourages society to adapt to changing environments. In this view, civil society resembles the ethical ideal of social change where the interests of the individuals are weighed up against what is best for the community and a balance is established between the two. Lastly, the public sphere covers issues of public debate where discussion processes encourage communities to be active citizens and to function and contribute to the public sphere (Edwards, 2004: 7).

This definition basically refers to civil society as all collective voluntary actions outside the family, state, and business. However, it is important to understand that because civil society has been defined differently by different authors, the concept is more useful as an analytical

rather than a fixed term. Russell and Swelling (2002: 9) argue that civil society excludes cooperatives, stokvels, burial societies and political parties. Civil society engagement with the state can be viewed as part of political pluralism in terms of tolerance and accommodation of diverse views, passions, interests and demands in the public sphere (Russell and Swelling, 2002: 9). Such engagement can also be seen as a part of public political participation (Russell and Swelling, 2002: 9). Public participation refers to the opening of social and political spaces for ordinary people to participate in decision-making processes and their own development (Russell and Swelling, 2002: 9). According to Russell and Swilling (2002: 11) different kinds of NPOs play distinctive roles for particular purposes: developmental, survivalist and oppositional NPOs. Developmental NPOs are defined by Russell and Swelling (2002: 11) as organisations that seek to improve the social, cultural, and economic well-being of society. Survivalist NPOs concentrates on providing service to societies defined to be struggling to survive on their own (Russell and Swelling, 2002: 11). This kind of NPO exists for the intention of utilising resources for the benefit of its members. Lastly, oppositional NPOs exist to maximise and mobilise people for certain causes to bring about specific changes which are deemed necessary (Russell and Swelling, 2002: 9). In contrast, according to Ranchod (2007: 18) there are two types of CSOs: those that try to fit into programmes initiated by government, and those that mobilise to confront government in order to affect change (Ranchod (2007: 18).

NPOs serve different roles according to the type of NPO. Some NPOs play the role of being watchdogs over state actions, spending and legislation whilst other NPOs lobby and make demands on the state for various public goods (Ranchod, 2007: 4). In part, this watchdog role is a way of forcing the government to remain accountable to citizens in general and their own membership in particular (Ranchod (2007: 4). According to Ranchod (2007: 4) formal electoral democracy which combines citizen interests through the election of political parties is not enough for the consolidation of democracy, especially in holding governments accountable to promised service delivery or public policies and rights (Ranchod, 2007: 4). In this view, elections are defined as one way in which citizens can participate in their own governance by deciding which parties best represent their interest and should govern on their behalf however; given the long periods between elections this is not sufficient for popular participation. That is why civil society engagement or partnerships with the state are crucial and provide opportunities for greater and on-going influence by the public in decision-making (Ranchod, 2007: 4).

3.7.2 Training of ECD Practitioners

According to the DSD *Guidelines for ECD Services* (2006: 55) the minimum qualification of practitioners is level 1 in Basic Certificate in ECD by national qualifications framework (NQF) of South Africa. This course covers the basic knowledge and skills on child development from birth to 6 years of age. Through ECD programmes, practitioners should become able to facilitate growth and skills development in child development (Department of Social Development, 2006: 55). They must be able to apply a variety of learning activities, and link and manage appropriate skills to respond to needy children. Practitioners must communicate with young children in a way that supports aspects of learning (Department of Social Development, 2006: 58). ECD practitioner training should also include HIV/AIDS, care giving, disability support and first aid. ECD supervisors should then have a minimum qualification namely; a National Certificate of ECD at NQF level 4 by the national qualifications framework of South Africa. This covers child development from 6 years of age and should enable practitioners not only to understand child development but also the management of ECD centres including responding to the needs, having good relations with stakeholders, and responding to challenges which are facing ECD centres each day (Department of Social Development, 2006: 58). In addition to training, the ratio of children from 18 months to three years is to one ECD practitioner and if possible, an assistant. For children from 3 years to 4 years of age, only 12 or less children are allocated to one ECD practitioner. Lastly, for 5 to 6 years of age 13 children are managed by one ECD practitioner (Department of Social Development, 2006: 55).

To Draper and Sherry (2013: 1298) the training provided to ECD by practitioners from various NGOs has resulted in unregulated and unstandardized qualifications. They find that many practitioners working with young children are volunteers while the state subsidy is low, approximately R200 per month (Draper and Sherry, 2013: 1298). While *Guidelines for ECD Services* encourage no change of practitioners, Draper and Sherry (2013: 1298) argue that many ECD practitioners leave ECD for better opportunities due to the low stipends, if they are available. In 2004 the government introduced an Expanded Public Work Programme (EPWP) to enhance skills in ECD centres including for those already employed but not trained. Draper and Sherry (2013: 1298) recommend that serious attention is needed to address problems of poor service conditions and training in the ECD sector. In this view, volunteers are seen as a threat to ECD sustainability (Draper and Sherry, 2013: 1299).

3.7.3 Roles of ECD Practitioners

Practitioners are responsible for establishing a safe and healthy learning environment; establishing good working relations with families and communities; establishing learning strategies; lead, and demonstrate good values, attitudes and principles; assess progress made by children and maintain the standards and practices of ECD services (Department of Social Development, 2006: 40). ECD supervisors are responsible for ensuring healthy practices and the protection of children and for establishing good relations with government and families (Department of Social Development, 2006: 40). Overall ECD supervisors manage the operations of ECD centres and the learning programmes for children's development (Department of Social Development, 2006: 40).

According to the DSD *Guidelines for ECD Services*, the minimum standard for all ECD centres is that all practitioners must be trained and receive on-going training in ECD management of programmes and facilities for young children (Department of Social Development, 2006: 40). The responsible trained and caring practitioners are required to deliver efficient and effective ECD services. This means that trained practitioners can actually deliver ECD services to young children holistically; that children with disabilities and special needs have trained practitioners who can help these children and also monitor their developments (Department of Social Development, 2006: 54). It is recommended that ECD practitioners must be in good health both mentally and physically to be able to meet the needs of the children (Department of Social Development, 2006: 54). In the case of children with special needs, their demands must be met and well trained and capable practitioners must be able to ensure that (Department of Social Development, 2006: 54). Practitioners should have the appropriate qualities to work with children; they should have an interest in young children, patience, and disciplinary skills to ensure that they deliver quality services to children (Department of Social Development, 2006: 54). It is important for practitioners to enjoy being with children. They must also have confidence and be motivated. Having the appropriate training will enable practitioners to respect different ethnic races and diverse children, and be able to provide services without discrimination (Department of Social Development, 2006: 54).

Children must feel happy and secure in ECD centres. On this point, changing staff makes children unhappy because children should trust ECD practitioners as their guardians while they are at the ECD centre (Department of Social Development, 2006: 54). Children must be

able to show their frustration and challenge practitioners. The changing of staff may limit children's openness to practitioners and can generate lack trust (Department of Social Development, 2006: 54). To minimise changes of ECD practitioners, ECD supervisors should ensure that staff is satisfied at work. Job descriptions must be given stating clear roles and responsibilities. Support and understanding from supervisors should be available to practitioners. A part of the daily programme interesting and challenging experiences should be documented as part of on-going monitoring (Department of Social Development, 2006: 54).

NGOs are the main provider of ECD services. According to Draper and Sherry (2013: 1298) the contributions of NGOs to ECD services differ with regard to the structure of NGO. Well-established and recognised organisations contribute to ECD services by participating in policy development. They must meet the minimum standards of ECD centres highlighted in the *Guidelines for ECD Services* (Department of Social Development, 2006: 39). While some NGOs play a critical role of providing ECD services in specific locations, others fund, manage funds, and facilitate capacity building. Others provide support including raising awareness on the demand of ECD in public. Involvement by NGOs range from strategic planning and funding to capacity building (Draper and Sherry, 2013: 1297).

To Mzini (2011: 277) government can partner with civil society in two ways. Firstly, government can build capacity and provide resources in support of implementation (Mzini, 2011: 277). Secondly, government can focus on uplifting skills for efficient and effective implementation. To Mzini (2011: 277) such collaborations are important and each stakeholder has an important role to play. Mzini quotes Heimans (2011: 280) who states that civic participation in public expenditure has a positive influence on social and economic outcomes in public institutions. Heimans argues that the empowerment of NGOs in service delivery plans, implementation and information transparency improves confidence in public institutions (Mzini, 2011: 280). This means that not only government is accountable but ECD centres also have committees or board members to which the ECD centres are accountable.

In his study of NPOs and government proper spending in Gauteng, Mzini (2011: 280) argues that NPOs can be seen as a link between the state and beneficiaries. To Mzini (2011: 280) the institutional arrangement of NPOs is organised like government in three spheres of governance. He finds that ECD centres comprise of caregivers, educators, and support staff. ECD centres also have committees and are allocated funds to deliver on ECD services; the

committee monitors how these public funds are utilised. Such committees also approve all procurement for ECD centres. Mzini (2011: 280) finds that ECD centres have their approved strategic plans that guide objectives and implementation, and monitor their plans (Mzini, 2011: 280). To Mzini (2011: 280) the funding of ECD centres is based on monthly claims per number of children who accessed service in the ECD centres. Stipends are allocated for each child and cover expenses of food, as well as stipends for ECD practitioners and other staff members. ECD centres have the responsibility of raising funds to meet the organisational needs (Mzini, 2011: 280).

3.7.4 Management of ECD centres

Like any organisation, to ensure effective management of the centres, the administrative system, procedures, and policies must be maintained (Department of Social Development, 2006: 40). Information, guidelines and policies must be properly recorded and disseminated to families before the admission of a child to the ECD centre. Such policies serve as a guide to parents and communicate the ECD expectations of them in contributing to their children's development (Department of Social Development, 2006: 61). This includes complaints procedures, admission policy, admission policy of HIV/AIDS infected children and disabled children, outing procedures, emergency plans, and first aid kit (Department of Social Development, 2006: 97). Centre information ranges from day and hours of operation, age groups catered for, arrangements concerning transport for children, procedures and steps in case of incidents such as injuries, policy on admission of all children or children with special treatment, feeding scheme, arrangement of needs for children, clothing, monthly fees, medication administered to children and complaints procedure (Department of Social Development, 2006: 61). It is also required that ECD centres keep admission registers, attendance registers for children and staff, ECD practitioners attendance registers, accident registers and abuse registers (Department of Social Development, 2006: 61). Records on each child admitted in the ECD centre must be kept up to date. Basic requirements for child admission require that an admission form must be completed; other requirements are a copy of the child birth certificate and immunisation card, parents' contact details, an affidavit stating the income of the parents, or proof of income (Department of Social Development, 2006: 61).

3.7.5 Premise and equipment

According to the DSD *Guidelines for ECD Services* (2006: 57) the premises of ECD centres must be safe and well maintained to enable children to freely move in a space without any danger. It should also be accessible to persons with disabilities (Department of Social Development, 2006: 57). The study must be safe and enable children to view the outside. The play area must be big enough to provide at least 1.5 square metres per child. In cases where the kitchen and office are in the same room space, it must be clearly marked (Department of Social Development, 2006: 57). If there are more than 50 children in the ECD centre, a separate sick room must be provided to accommodate at least two children at the same time (Department of Social Development, 2006: 57). Where food is prepared on the premises, there must be a separate area for preparing, cooking and washing up. Outside play areas must be clean, fenced and big enough for children to play in at least 2 square metres per child. Toilets facilities that are safe for children must be available. All furniture and equipment must be safe and be in good repair (Department of Social Development, 2006: 58).

3.7.6 School readiness for ECD implementation

Mzini (2011:281) in his research demonstrates that different aspects of implementation still need to be developed. He argues that attention is essential in learner support material and the training of teachers; an increase the in number of educators at all levels as well as improvement of the physical infrastructures for implementation are also required (Mzini, 2011: 281). According to Mzini ECD stakeholders demonstrated that the National Department of Social Development is provides the necessary training to enable organisations to properly manage public funds (Mzini, 2011: 281).

Draper and Sherry (2013: 1293) outline school readiness deficits in disadvantaged SA children. Their argument is based on motor skills intervention to improve readiness in disadvantaged ECD sites. Draper and Sherry (2013: 1301) remark that the definition of development in ECD includes the development of sensor-motor, socio-emotional and cognitive-language aspects (Draper and Sherry, 2013: 1301). To Draper and Sherry (2013: 1301) language is the commonly used measure for ECD. Their argument is that ECD policy in SA should cover all the areas of ECD: motor, cognitive and emotional development. Draper and Sherry (2013: 1301) quote Heckman and Masterov who state that cognitive skills are not the best prediction of future success. At the same time, internal factors for development are not easily measured. In their research, Draper and Sherry (2013: 1304) find

that there is a significant lack of sensorimotor experiences to develop a foundation for later motor and cognitive skills, specifically language and literacy. Lack of equipment such as toys as well as the physical space for gross motor activities is viewed as the main contributions to this challenge. Lack of training and playgrounds at ECD centres limit children from improving their skills (Draper and Sherry, 2013: 1304).

3.8 Conclusion

In this chapter, the literature on the *Guidelines for ECD Services* in SA is discussed. ECD is broad and requires commitment from all sectors and departments. These collaborations range from the Department of Social Development, Education, Health and Home Affairs and are extended to civil society to achieve best possible results in ECD. The commitments and priorities should be demonstrated by the coordination between national departments and provincial departments. This alignment should be showed in strategic and annual performance plans of the above mentioned departments. The next chapter focuses on giving details of the steps followed in the research methodology. It stipulates the overall methods, paradigm, and design used to obtain data, gives reasons for the selections and also shows how validity and reliability was achieved.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

4.1 Introduction

The main objective of this study was to evaluate the implementation of *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development (ECD) Services* looking at early childhood development centres in Mkhambathini local municipality. This chapter focuses on the research methodology and design of the study. This section of the chapter gives a detailed account of methodology. The research methodology spells out the overall methods used to obtain data and why the particular methods were chosen. This chapter forms part of achieving the ultimate goal of evaluating the implementation of *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development (ECD) Services* as the formulation of techniques on how best to achieve the desired objective. The chapter includes a discussion of the research paradigm, the approach, sampling, data collection, data analysis, and the design followed in conducting the study. The chapter ends by presenting the validation, reliability and ethical considerations applied in the research study.

Research method is defined as the technique that are used in conducting a research study whilst research methodology relates to the subject of study, the conceptualisation, data collection, data analysis and time frame relevant to the research study (Babbie, 2001: 103-104). According to Babbie (2001: 103) there is a distinction between the research design and the research methodology. Research design looks at what type of study the researcher wants to conduct to address the problem, and focuses on the end result. In contrast, research methodology looks at the research process to be followed, tools and procedures to be used in the research study (Babbie, 2001: 103). Research methodology is defined as the system of solving the identified problem. All researchers choose a certain methodology to solve their problems based on the understanding the researcher has about the social phenomenon. It is necessary for the researcher to know not only the research methods or techniques but also the methodology to be used and indicate the reasons for their choices (Babbie, 2001:104). The research methodology that the researcher chooses is based on a phenomenon and a hypothesis that the researcher wants to fully understand. As a result, specific techniques get chosen (Babbie, 2001: 104).

The importance of research methodology in this study has clarified the reasons why the study was conducted. The candidate is still learning in the research field hence, the research methodology has provided a level of capacity building or training on how to apply research

methods to a problem. Such knowledge is helpful in various government functions, specifically in monitoring and evaluating employees since programme or policy performance has to be constantly monitored.

4.2 Research paradigm

A paradigm is a matrix of beliefs and perceptions, a way of thinking about world (Weaver and Olson, 2006: 459-469). This means that there are power relationships and action implications inherent in paradigms; theory therefore helps to understand paradigms. It can also help bridge the claim of a study and facilitate methods to achieve them. There are three major research paradigms which researchers can choose from, namely positivist, post positivist, and interpretive (Weaver and Olson, 2006: 459-469). Positivist paradigm argues that the truthful knowledge is based on experience and can be obtained by observation. Here, positivists focus on quantitative method as the appropriate form of studying the researched phenomenon. Their emphasis is based on scientific method analysis of creating knowledge. Positivistic thinkers adopt the scientific method as a means of knowledge generation (Weaver and Olson, 2006: 459-469).

Post positivists argue that knowledge is complex; a person is experienced rather than acquired from or imposed from the outside (Rollis and Rossman, 2003: 36). Post positivists agree with the constructionist approach that there is no one truth, reality is interpreted differently by different people rather than according to a scientific method (Rollis and Rossman, 2003: 36). In this view a single phenomenon can be given multiple interpretations by different people. Qualitative method is the prominent method of post positivists because it adopts the level of understanding of a phenomenon in concern as it acquires information by studying various variables rather than establishing specific relationship among the components, as it happens in the case of positivism (Rollis and Rossman, 2003: 36).

The interpretivism paradigm believes that the truth is socially constructed, not solid and also that the truth cannot be grounded in any objective reality (Weaver and Olson, 2006: 459-469). This means that cultures, beliefs, practices and relationship with other people always generate knowledge about the reality. In this view, both quantitative and qualitative methods generate what we refer to as the reality or truth (Weaver and Olson, 2006: 459-469).

In this research topic a single paradigm could not satisfactorily deal with the research methodology due to the complexity of the study. Hence, a combination of positivism and post positivism was undertaken namely; an interpretivism paradigm. This is because such blending accepts that theories, backgrounds, knowledge and values can influence what will be observed.

4.3 Research Approach

Quantitative research is based on the measurement of quantity or number (Rist, 2009: 294). According to Rist (2009: 298) quantitative research is more structural and emphasises reliability. Although it is harder to develop, it is easier to analyse (Rist, 2009: 298). Here, the phenomenon observed by the researcher can be expressed in terms of quantity. In contrast, qualitative research is concerned with qualitative phenomena involving quality. It is non-numerical, descriptive, applies reasoning and uses words. Its aim is to get meaning, feeling, describe the situation and discovering the underlying motives and desires, using in-depth interviews (Rist, 2009: 294). An approach is valuable when the researcher seeks to analyse how people experience their realities. The approach depends on the goal of the researcher (Rist, 2009: 294). This research study includes both quantitative and qualitative data. The study adopted a qualitative research approach. Quantitative research will be given in the form of the number of participants, number of children the ECD centre is registered for (capacity) and number of children accessing services in the ECD centres. Qualitative research comprises descriptions reported by the participants and also observed by the researcher. This is because the researcher aimed at exploring and explaining the implementation of the *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development Services*; discover the underlying motives of human behaviour; and analyse the various factors which motivate people to behave in a particular manner especially the staff in ECD centres; all of which tells the researcher if the research was successfully implemented or not. The qualitative approach is supportive of the aim of understanding the type of practices ECD engage in to offer support in a poor and vulnerable context.

4.4 Research Design

Research design is various procedures, schemes and algorithms used in a research study. It is all the methods used by the researcher during a research study. According to Rist (2009: 279) there are three types of research design namely, experimental, quasi-experimental and non-experimental (Rist, 2009: 179). For Rist (2009: 267) non-experimental design “is a type of

design where there is no attempt made to create interventions and non-intervention group as the emphasis is on description” (Rist, 2009: 267). In this study the researcher used non-experimental design to address the research problem as it was formulated. This design produced the evidence that is required in the research problem. One shot design was combined with a case study non-experimental design. This is because the researcher wanted to know about the ECD centres that are currently receiving government subsidies and the challenges they are experiencing. Existing and in-depth interventions were also used by the researcher to work with the research participants.

4.5 Populations

According to Rist (2009: 356) a population is a “total sets of units about which the evaluator wants to make inferences” (Rist, 2009: 356). Basically population is a large collection of individuals or objects that are the main focus of a scientific query. It is the study element for a specified study. In this research, the early childhood development centres are the main focus. In this case the ECD principals and teachers in the centres were the respondents to the subject. These ECD centres are responsible for implementing the *Guidelines for ECD Services*. All participants worked full time in separate private ECD centres funded by DSD.

4.6 Sampling

From the overall population which the researcher wants to study, sampling refers to a selection of units. Sampling is often used when the population is too big and complex to study in its entirety (Rist, 2009: 362). It is impossible and difficult for a researcher to study every person in the population of interest hence; sampling is important and used (Rist, 2009: 362). Probability sampling is defined as the chance of any given individual being selected and these individuals are sampled independently of each other (Babbie, 2001: 169). This is so that all population share the same characteristics, experiences, behaviour, in that careful sampling is not necessary important because all population stand a change of being chosen. This is also known as random sampling (Babbie, 2001: 169). In contrast, non-probability sampling or convenience sampling refers to when researchers take whichever individuals happen to be easiest to access as participants in a study. According to Rist (2009: 362) a different sampling approach can be used when random sampling is impossible (Rist, 2009: 362).

Several problems can emanate from the type sampling type that a researcher chooses. This includes bias, coverage, over-sampling and under-sampling. According to Babbie (2001: 170) bias in sampling is when the sampled population does not represent the larger population. This is caused by the way in which data is collected by the researcher. Here, the findings are not trusted to generalise results for the larger population. In addition, coverage can be characterised as under-coverage and over-coverage. This is because researchers sometimes purposefully or mistakenly restrict their sampling frame to a subset of the population of interest (Babbie, 2001: 171). Self-selection in terms of access or location may require participants to have transport to access a programme which can result in some of the target population to fully participate and benefit from the study more than others due to interest they have towards the programme (Babbie, 2001: 171). Babbie (2001:171) refers to this process as bias in a response research sample.

In this study sampling was applied firstly because of lack of capacity and inadequate time to administer questionnaires to all the ECD centres. This would have required more capacity, a large budget and time. Secondly, the more ECD centres sampled would have required more management of information from tools to storage, which could have resulted in missing information. Considering all the limitations of the study, sampling was more relevant to ensure that good information was manageable and could be achieved through adequate costs and time. Sampling is important to avoid bias where the population has to select themselves on the basis that they are likely to participate or produce good results. Sampling can also be used to control the number of units of analysis to be studied. In this study non-random sampling was used. According to Rist (2009: 362) a different sampling approach can be used when random sampling is impossible (Rist, 2009: 362). 10 out of 18 ECD centres were interviewed from Mkhambathini local municipality. The rationale for the sampling was that there is a discrepancy in terms of the link between quality education and the expected aim of quality education; Mkhambathini is a rural local municipality and the resources are still scarce which are a challenge for the educational system; the ECD centres at present are a readily available source of data from which respondents can be conveniently reached for proper sampling frames. The study was convenient for the researcher to accomplish the specified objectives. According to Rist (2009: 363) a researcher can choose a subject study based on convenience of evaluation (Rist, 2009: 363). Here, the issues of the subject or respondent being close to the researcher were taken into account; ECD principals and teachers in the centres were the respondents to the subject; using respondents who were

available on the day of the research made it easier for the researcher to access information (Rist, 2009:363).

4.7 Ethical consideration

One of the most important aspects of research is to protect participants from harm. The type of ethical issues encountered in qualitative and quantitative research may differ slightly (Rist, 2009: 509). The researcher followed the principles and standards of ethical research and formal approval was granted by the University of KwaZulu-Natal Research and Ethics committee. This ensures that a researcher is sensitive to beliefs, manners, customs and acts with integrity and honesty in their relationships with all stakeholders (Rist, 2009: 509). This study is classified as a service evaluation. The researcher obtained informal consent from all the interviewed participants. The researcher visited all ten ECD centres to request permission to conduct research in the centres and to provide a brief about the research objectives and methods to be used to collect data. The proposal was sent to all the ECD centres so that participants could make an informed choice about whether they would want to participate in the study. In short, they were informed about the range of matters relating to the research study that they would be involved in (Rist, 2009: 509). This included disclosure that there would be no incentives should they agreed to participate in the study. All the study data was anonymised and securely stored.

4.8 Data collection

According to Rist (2009: 290) data can be collected from many sources which include existing records, observations, surveys, focus groups, and many other sources.

4.8.1 Service records data

Service records data varies depending on the nature of the storage and monitoring system implemented in a programme. This ranges from narrative reports, monitoring tools, monitoring reports that provide feedback on the programme services rendered, to how the programme is received (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 212). Depending on the nature of the programme, storage and access can be regulated or limited to be perused by certain people and not others. This information needs to be verified to be reliable and valid for research and other use (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 212). To Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 212) such

information must be reviewed and carefully verified to ensure accuracy and reliability (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 212).

4.8.2 Direct observation

Rossi and Freeman (1989: 206) discuss three ways of conducting observation namely; narrative, observation with a data guide and sets of questions, and a structured rating scheme (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 206). Lack of existing information may compel an evaluator to collect information on a programme. Direct observation is a recommended technique for implementation evaluation. Narrative involves writing a story from one event to another (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 209). The observer chooses which events to include and which to exclude. Observing with a guide contains pre-determined questions which the evaluator will ask in the observation (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 209). A structured rating scheme is more normative; the evaluator may use a checklist to rate the programme implementation in terms of participants, time allocation and actual delivery system (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 209). Sampling can also be used to control the number of unit of analysis to be studied. When the size of a population is large and there is no monitoring information, a survey of programme participants can provide information about the participants. The unit of analysis can also assess if the population is in need of being reached (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 191). Evaluation can be conducted to assess the bias of the programme, those in need, eligible, utilisers and dropout in judging the worth of the programme (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 191).

4.8.3 Programme participant data

Programme participants themselves can be the source of data when evaluating implementation with the aim of finding the different perspectives on how the programme is received. Rossi and Freeman (1989: 217) argue that this is an important strategy in terms of understanding how the programme is delivered. The target population and service providers (staff) may have very useful information on programme delivery. Also, indirect testing can be used to assess the impact of the programme delivery to enhance service (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 217). For Rist (2009: 295) the research tool used in each study relates to the research method which could be qualitative or quantitative.

In this research study in-depth, open ended interviews, direct observations, and document analysis were used (Rist, 2009: 295). The researcher used a mixed method approach incorporating sequential data collection and administered questionnaires to all the ten ECD

centres in Mkhambathini municipality. Semi-structured interviews were carried out with a sample of the ECD employees to enhance interpretation of the survey data. The interviews helped to record not only the words spoken but also allowed for a deeper level of understanding and validation of peoples experiences. The researcher administered questionnaires in order to gather an overview of attitudes and experiences within all the ECD centres. The purpose of the interviews was to explore in further depth the issues raised by the survey respondents. The researcher therefore developed a structured questionnaire with space for open-ended responses to gather data on perspectives and approaches towards implementing the guidelines for ECD services. The questionnaire was structured in line with the study objectives and used to yield information on the

- management capacity the ECD centres
- roles and responsibilities of the staff
- needs of the early childhood development centres
- challenges of the early childhood development centres in implementing the guidelines for ECD centres

Reminders were sent to the respondents by SMS and telephone calls were made to confirm appointments with the intention of maximising the response rate. The in-depth interview was then conducted by the researcher and the ECD centres were purposefully selected to reflect geographic and economic characteristics. The researcher approached the ECD centres with the responsibility for implementing the *Guidelines for ECD Services* and spent some time in the early childhood development centres to observe activities, interact and with the ECD centres; the data was organised in a readable fashion that was easy to understand (Rist, 2009: 295). Interviews were undertaken face-to-face except for one which was done by email because contact with the person could not be arranged. In dealing with respondents the researcher explained the nature and aims of the study. The researcher was also aware that she was dealing with poor communities with varying abilities in English and so questions were posed in both English and IsiZulu which was the respondents' mother tongue. The respondents were encouraged to respond in their mother tongue in which they felt most comfortable. The researcher acted as a translator as the need arose.

4.9 Research Data analysis

Rossi and Freeman (1989: 219) state that implementation evaluation data is useful when it the analyses covers the elements of the programme, makes comparisons between sites, and covers programme conformity to its design (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 219). A description of the programme is narrative and gives details of the “estimates of coverage, bias in participation, types of services delivered, intensity of services given to participants of significant kinds and the reaction of participants to the services delivered” (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 219). To understand the extent to which a programme is implemented, an evaluator needs to understand the programme in detail. For Rossi and Freeman (1989: 219) a comparison between sites when a programme is implemented on more than one site requires that the evaluator fully comprehends the different elements and the causes of diversity in each site (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 219). In this discussion, understanding different staff and the skills they possess, the targets, locations, environments and management styles are important to enable an evaluator to assess the reasons why one site is more effective than another (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 220). Planning is done at the beginning to serve a specific purpose, to implement according to a plan, and to ensure efficiency and effectiveness. Rossi and Freeman (1989: 219) specify that conformity seeks to weigh the link between the design and how the programme is implemented.

The researcher analysed the data descriptively while responses to open questions were analysed using a framework developed from the study objectives and intention topic guide. The researcher studied the interviews and identified and coded relevant parts of the interview responses within the framework headings. The researcher modified the themes and categories after considering all the prescripts but chose to maintain the original headings and groupings because the results consistently related to the research objectives. The researcher read the written transcript several times and wrote notes and developed codes to manage the transcripts and identify significant differences in patterns of responses. In order to increase credibility, triangulation procedures were applied

4.10 Research Validity/Reliability

Validity in research is defined by Rist (2009: 294) as the “extent to which content of the test or procedure adequately measures the variables of interest” (Rist, 2009: 294). In contrast, reliability is the “the degree to which a measurement measures the same thing in the same way, in repeated tests” (Rist, 2009: 294). To ensure reliability the researcher focused on the

internal consistency as the response options were constructed in a way that would be appropriate and meaningful. The researcher used average inter-item correlation by asking a respondent two similar questions to measure the same construct. According to Rist (2009: 294) a researcher can ensure reliability by ensuring that the data collection tools are written clearly and without ambiguity (Rist, 2009: 294). To ensure validity, the researcher focused on content analysis where assessment of whether the content or procedure of a measure covered the variables of interest, was frequently applied. This is considered a subjective form of measurement because it still relies on people's perceptions for measuring constructs that would otherwise be difficult to measure (Rist, 2009: 294).

4.11 Conclusion

This section of the chapter gave a detailed account of the methodology. It spelled out the overall methods used to obtain data and why the particular methods were chosen. The study uses an interpretive paradigm; qualitative research methodology which involves detailed verbal descriptions of characteristics, realities, and challenges. This type of research study uses observation interviews and document reviews to collect data. Document analysis in this case was used to understand the ECD experiences in line with the *Guidelines for ECD Services*. A non-random sampling technique was chosen considering the capacity, time and resources required in conducting the study. In short, the researcher adopted a research methodology in which descriptive data was collected and will be used. The next chapter will focus on the findings and analyse the challenges of implementing the *Guidelines for ECD Services*, make recommendations and then give conclusions.

CHAPTER FIVE: FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the implementation of the *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development Services* using the case of Mkhambathini local municipality. For Rossi and Freeman (1989: 219) implementation evaluation data is useful when it is analysed to cover the elements of description of the programme, compares between sites and covers programme conformity to design (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 219). Description of the programme takes a narrative form and gives details of the estimates of coverage, bias in participation, types of services delivered, intensity of services given to participants of significant kinds and the reaction of participants to the services delivered (Rossi and Freeman, 1989: 219).

This study assisted in finding the reasons why ECD centres are struggling to implement the DSD *Guidelines for ECD Services*. This chapter brings together the previously identified findings and interprets them. It states the limitations of the study, offers recommendations and makes conclusions. The results of this research were analysed in relation to the objectives of the study and also using the sub-topics of the questionnaire namely: staff qualifications and training; roles of responsibilities; *Guidelines for ECD Services*; support from government and other stakeholders and management of ECD centres.

Several assumptions are relevant to this study. Firstly, there is a difference between the existing ECD framework and what service providers of ECD services are implementing. Secondly, it is believed that ECD centres are not in as good a condition as required by the state. Lastly, child minding is the responsibility of women and not men.

All the questionnaires were used and met the required criteria as discussed in the previous chapter. The questionnaire comprised of six sections and data collected will be presented as follows:

- The first part entails details of the ECD centres such as year opened and the number of children each ECD centre is registered for.
- The second part comprises of findings describing staff qualification and training.
- The third part focuses on the role of different stakeholders in supporting the ECD centres in the provision of ECD services.

Guidelines for ECD Services. One reasonable explanation is that there are many children in the rural area of Mkhambathini municipality hence; the demand of ECD centres are high whilst the facilities are scarce. Respondents often preluded their comments by saying “There are many crèches in this area but the children are too many that why we are above the registered number of children. We cannot refuse to admit children knowing that his or her parents are working; even the clinic is always full, children all over”. The findings reveal that the majority of the ECD centres exceed the registered number of children they are allowed to admit. Considering that an inspection is conducted annually and the quarterly monitoring and evaluation is conducted by social workers, one would expect that the DSD is aware of this high demand and the overcrowding of ECD centres.

5.2.3 Staff qualifications and training

Table 7: Showing qualifications of ECD practitioners and supervisors

| Crèches | Number of ECD Practitioners | Qualifications of ECD Practitioners |
|----------------|------------------------------------|---|
| Crèche A | 1 | Teacher 1: Save the Children course (supervisor) |
| Crèche B | 2 | Teacher 1: Matric only Teacher 2: Save the Children course (supervisor) |
| Crèche C | 1 | Teacher 1: Save the children course (supervisor) |
| Crèche D | 1 | Teacher 1: Matric only (supervisor) |
| Crèche E | 1 | Teacher 1: No matric and no other training (supervisor) |
| Crèche F | 2 | Teacher 1: Save the Children course (supervisor) Teacher 2: Matric only |
| Crèche G | 3 | Teacher 1: Save the Children course Teacher 2: Matric only Teacher 3: Matric currently doing certificate in ECD, NQF level 4 (supervisor) |
| Crèche H | 2 | Teacher 1: Matric only Teacher 2: Matric, diploma in foundation phase, Early Childhood Development Certificate and Save the Children course (supervisor) |
| Crèche I | 2 | Teacher 1: Matric only Teacher 2: Save the Children course (supervisor) |

| | | |
|----------|---|---|
| Crèche J | 1 | Teacher 1: Matric and still doing NQF level 4 on ECD certificate (supervisor) |
|----------|---|---|

The above table records the qualifications of the ECD practitioners in each of the ECD centres sampled which shape the performance of the centres. It was pointed out in Chapter Four that the ECD practitioners should have the minimum qualification of a basic Certificate in ECD from the national qualifications framework (NQF) level 1 of South Africa. The ECD supervisors should have a minimum qualification of a National Certificate in ECD at NQF level 4 from national qualifications framework of South Africa. According to the DSD (2006: 38) *Guidelines for ECD Services* incapable personnel can lead to the closure of ECD centres (Department of Social Development, 2006: 38).

The study found that 37.5% of the ECD practitioners have no training relevant to ECD qualifications; they have only matric. 37.5% are trained on Save the Children, NQF level one. 6.25% have matric, a certificate in ECD service, and are also trained in Save the Children. 6.25% have no matric and no training relevant to ECD services, and 12.5% have matric and are still doing an ECD certificate through the University of South Africa.

The study found that 50% of ECD supervisors are trained in Save the Children which is NQF level 1, 10% have formal training such as a diploma in foundation phase and an ECD certificate, 10 % have no matric and have no relevant ECD training, 10% have matric, and 20% have matric and are still doing NQF level 4. Table 7 illustrates that in most ECD centres ECD practitioners are also ECD supervisors or principals due to the low stipends. ECD supervisors indicated that the stipend is too low to appoint more staff and so they settle to have fewer staff in order to survive with the funding they have. As indicated above, 40% of the trained practitioners were trained by the NPO, Save the Children while others received training through private sector institutions and the DSD. It has been acknowledged that the Save the Children course is more focused on health training to prepare health and nutrition staff to respond to the health and nutrition needs of children in emergency, crisis situations and to effectively manage transition and be able to link short term intervention to longer-term programmes when appropriate. (United State of America, 2013: 2). It could be proper to argue that training is not enough since the majority of ECD practitioner understands the health aspects of early childhood development but lack other relevant information of children

development as Draper and Sherry (2013:1304) state namely, the cognitive, motor and emotional aspects.

The present study reveals that the majority of ECD principals are dissatisfied that they receive different trainings by different service providers such as DSD and other NPOs. The respondents expressed their sentiment that “We rely on government and some NPOs for capacity building because we struggle to pay for our training; we rely on government subsidy for daily operations of a crèche since parents who should pay school fees do not comply and we don’t afford to pay private institutions for our trainings”. There is in other words a concern about the access to skills development. The study also found that the training which ECD practitioners and principals possess is not enough and is not equal. This was noted during the interview where the majority of the respondents repeatedly expressed the notion that the training they receive is “inadequate; not enough considering the social ills that the communities are faces with”. Poverty prevalence in rural areas such as Mkhambathini local municipality has an impact on skills shortages especially in youth.

The respondents also complained that the level of training was not the same. It was reported that while the ECD services are broad, training normally takes a short time with an estimated one day for a workshop. This limits the volume of information imparted to ECD centres. According to Draper and Sherry (2013: 1298) training provided to ECD practitioners from various NGOs have resulted in unregulated and unstandardised qualifications (Draper and Sherry, 2013: 1298). Secondly, training is done in English which limits the understanding of some ECD practitioners. The respondents revealed that they also seek outside training through private sectors to capacitate themselves. When they have an interest in training outside facilitation by government they have to provide funding for themselves. Although the ECD centres receive different training from different service providers or stakeholders, ECD principals and practitioners engage in the same duties. The results of this study are in support of the hypothesis that practitioners who have adequate training feel more comfortable and confident in caring for children compared to untrained staff.

This study indicates that few teachers had satisfactory experiences of working with children, which is 2-3 years. These practitioners have no idea if not limited information on the expectations of children. The findings reveal that 37.5% of ECD practitioners had 0-1 years of working with children which caused a challenge of implementing ECD services as required by the state. The ECD supervisors indicated that it is difficult to keep teachers due to the low stipends they receive. This study supports the findings by Draper and Sherry (2013: 1298) that while the DSD (2006: 54) *Guidelines for ECD Services* encourage no changing of practitioners, many ECD practitioners leave ECD for better opportunities (Draper and Sherry, 2013: 1298).

Frequent changes of ECD practitioners limit children's openness as they are unable to show their frustrations to newly appointed staff (Department of Social Development, 2006: 54). In this study it was explained that staff capacitate themselves and as soon as they get certificates, they apply for grade R jobs in primary schools. ECD at crèche level is seen as the entry level for development and the way to higher paying jobs. Although it is difficult to keep ECD practitioners for long, ECD centres with the leadership of supervisors have a system of transferring skills to newly appointed practitioners. ECD principals were asked how many years of experience each ECD practitioner have? Respondents often expressed that "Experience is a challenge, it is difficult to get people with ECD experiences from this locations and the subsidy amount is very low, workers come and go as soon as they find better jobs; I take anyone who is available for work and I personally train them; people don't like looking after children so I take who I get and train them". This explains how frequent changes result in the employment of unqualified staff.

Change prevents the selection of ECD practitioners based on qualifications, skills, and good qualities; rather they are employed on the basis of availability. The study found that ECD centres employ available persons and training follows when the DSD or an NGO is prepared to conduct training.

5.2.5 Early childhood development premises and equipment

Table 9: Showing ECD Building Structures

| Crèches | Number of Children attending ECD centres | Type of ECD building structure | Does it meet the minimum requirements of the <i>Guidelines for ECD Services?</i> |
|----------------|---|---|---|
| Crèche A | 34 | ▪ Operating at home in a round house built with mud | No |
| | | ▪ Poorly fenced | No |
| | | ▪ No playground but there are toys | No |
| Crèche B | 50 | ▪ Well-built structure | Yes |
| | | ▪ Fenced | Yes |
| | | ▪ Playground | Yes |
| | | ▪ Toys not available | No |
| Crèche C | 35 | ▪ Well-built structure | Yes |
| | | ▪ Fenced | Yes |
| | | ▪ Playground | Yes |
| | | ▪ Toys not available | No |
| Crèche D | 40 | ▪ Operating at home in a well-built round house constructed with blocks | No |
| | | ▪ Poorly fenced | No |
| | | ▪ No playground or are toys available | No |
| Crèche E | 63 | ▪ Operating at home in a well-built round house built with blocks | Yes |
| | | ▪ No playgrounds but there are toys. | No |
| | | ▪ Poorly fenced | No |
| Crèche F | 34 | ▪ Well-built structure | Yes |
| | | ▪ Fenced | Yes |

| | | | |
|----------|----|---|-----|
| | | ▪ Playground and toys available | Yes |
| Crèche G | 71 | ▪ Well-built structure | Yes |
| | | ▪ Poorly fenced | No |
| | | ▪ Playground and toys available | Yes |
| Crèche H | 54 | ▪ Operating at home in a shack made with corrugated iron (round house also used when necessary) | No |
| | | ▪ Fenced | Yes |
| | | ▪ No playground but enough space for children to play | Yes |
| Crèche I | 40 | ▪ Operating at home in a round house built with mud | No |
| | | ▪ Poorly fenced | No |
| | | ▪ No playgrounds but there are toys. | No |
| Crèche J | 46 | ▪ Well-built structure | Yes |
| | | ▪ Fenced | Yes |
| | | ▪ Playground and toys available | Yes |

The above table shows the condition or rather building structures the ECD centres are operating in. The number of children attending ECD centres is analysed considering the space and the conditions under which ECD centres are operating. Through observation it is apparent that half (50%) of the ECD centres are operating in very disappointing spaces while the other 50% per cent are operating in well-structured buildings. The DSD (2006: 57) guidelines for ECD centres state that the premises of the ECD centres must be in good condition, must be safe well maintained to enable children to freely move in space without any danger and must have access to persons with disabilities (Department of Social Development, 2006: 57). According to the DSD (2006: 57) *Guidelines for ECD Services*, the play area must be at least 1.5 square metres per child. In the case where the kitchen and the

office are in the same room space, it must be clearly marked (Department of Social Development, 2006: 57). If there are more than 50 children in the ECD centre a separate sick room must be provided to accommodate at least two children at the same time (Department of Social Development, 2006: 57). Where food is prepared on the premises, there must be a separate area for preparing, cooking and washing up. Outside the play area must be clean, fenced and big enough to give each child at least 2 square metres to play in (Department of Social Development, 2006: 58). According to the DSD (2006: 38) *Guidelines for ECD Services*, unsafe buildings or structures can lead to the closure of an ECD centre (Department of Social Development, 2006: 38).

Half of the ECD centres operate from home, their residential houses and of this 30% have very poor conditions in that the structures are too small and not clean. Some ECD centres are using a round house made with mud which is too small to accommodate many children. If it is not a round house, it is a metal shack made with corrugated iron which is not in a good condition for children especially those with health problems. The structures and the conditions of the ECD centres are not conducive to the admission of disabled children and children with special needs. It was observed that in most of the ECD centres children with disabilities cannot even access the centres due to the location and the building structures. This study establishes a link with Mzini's study (2011: 281) which demonstrates that different aspects of implementation still need to be developed. The current study supports the view that much attention needs to be given to providing learner support material, the training of teachers, and increase in the number of educators at all levels as well as improvements of the physical infrastructures for successful implementation of ECD services (Mzini, 2011: 281).

Draper and Sherry (2013: 1293), as already mentioned, outline that ECD services should include sensor-motor, socio-emotional and cognitive-language aspects (Draper and Sherry, 2013: 1301). Studies on ECD demonstrate that language is the commonly used measure for ECD (Draper and Sherry, 2013: 1301). Considering the capacity of ECD practitioners and supervisors, the study is in support of Draper and Sherry's recommendation that the ECD policy in SA should cover all areas of ECD, motor, cognitive and emotional development. Draper and Sherry (2013: 1301) quote Heckman and Masterov who states that "cognitive skills are not best prediction of the future success whilst the internal factors for development are not easily measured" (Draper and Sherry, 2013: 1301). Previous research by Draper and Sherry (2013: 1304) finds that there is a significant lack of sensorimotor experiences which must develop the foundation for later motor and cognitive skills specifically language and

literacy. Correctly stated, lack of equipment such as toys as well as the physical space for gross motor activities is viewed as the main contributions to this challenge (Draper and Sherry, 2013: 1304).

5.2.6 The relationship between the number of children attending ECD centres and the number of ECD practitioners in each centre is drawn and important.

Table 10: Showing association between the number of children attending ECD centres and the number of ECD practitioners employed in each ECD centre.

| Crèches | Number and age category of Children attending ECD centres | ECD practitioner in each ECD centre | Does it meet the minimum requirements of the <i>Guidelines for ECD Services?</i> |
|----------------|--|--|---|
| Crèche A | 34 (age 2 to 6 years) | 1 | No |
| Crèche B | 50 (age 3 to 5 years) | 2 | No |
| Crèche C | 35 (age 3 to 5 years) | 1 | No |
| Crèche D | 40 (age 2 to 5 years) | 1 | No |
| Crèche E | 63 (age 2 to 5 years) | 1 | No |
| Crèche F | 34 (age 2 to 5 years) | 2 | No |
| Crèche G | 71 (age 2 to 5 years) | 3 | No |
| Crèche H | 54 (age 2 to 5 years) | 2 | No |
| Crèche I | 40 (age 3 to 6 years) | 2 | No |
| Crèche J | 46 (age 2 to 5 years) | 1 | No |

The study reveals that all ECD centres are understaffed considering the number of children accessing the centres. *The Guidelines for Early Childhood Development Services* state that for “18 months to three years is to one ECD practitioner and if possible, an assistant. For children from 3 years to 4 years of age, only 12 or less children are allocated to one ECD practitioner. Lastly, for 5 to 6 years of age 13 children are managed by one ECD practitioner” (Department of Social Development, 2006: 55). The majority of children admitted in these ECD centres are children from 2 to 5 years of age. The ECD supervisors expressed this sentiment even better when they argued that: “Staff is not allocated as per age of children; if there is one ECD practitioner, she takes care of all children accessing services; the subsidy is low, if we employ more workers the lessor they will be paid and they will leave”. The study

supports the hypothesis that there are discrepancies between ECD policy (number of children accessing service) and the number of ECD practitioners employed which affect how ECD services are rendered. These discrepancies could be explained that the children are not getting the attention they deserve. The children development is then not properly stimulated.

5.2.7 Roles and Responsibilities

In the DSD (2006: 20) *Guidelines for ECD Services*, early childhood development is recognised as a collaboration and its foundation is in the social sector which includes the Department of Health, Education, Home Affairs and Social Development (Department of Social Development, 2006: 20). From this study, the supporting role of the DSD ranges from financial support to capacity building. The majority of respondents felt that they have good relationship with clinics in their jurisdiction. Participants were asked if they have any relation with Department of Health. Creche H responded, “Well, we do, they help us a lot even if kids are sick, they also do vaccinations in our premises and they help us with emergency kits”. Participants were asked if they have any relation with Department of Education. Respondents expressed their concerns by saying “We don’t get anything from education, they don’t help us with anything; I have never seen them even churches are better than education”. The majority of ECD centres raised concerns that there was not much support from the Department of Education however; it should be acknowledged that a small percentage of ECD centres have good relations with nearby schools and they indicated that they receive assistance in the form of books and stationery. The role of other civil society (NPOs) organisations such as churches and businesses is also acknowledged. The respondents indicated that they normally get donations of clothes and food parcels that assist them a lot since food prices are very high.

The participants were asked if they understood their roles and responsibilities as ECD practitioners and supervisors and if they had job descriptions in place as required by the DSD *Guidelines for ECD Services* (Department of Social Development, 2006: 54). A total of 100% responses were received. Table 11 demonstrates the number of ECD centres who understand and do not understand what their roles and responsibilities are.

Table 11: Showing the understanding of roles and responsibilities by ECD centres and compliance of keeping job descriptions.

| Respondents Crèches | Number of ECD/Supervisor Practitioners | Years of experience in ECD | Do you understand the roles and responsibilities? | Job Description in place. Yes / No |
|--------------------------------|---|---|--|---|
| Crèche A | Teacher 1: (also a supervisor) | >4 years | Yes | No |
| Crèche B | Teacher 1: | 0-1 years | No | No |
| | Teacher 2: (also a supervisor) | 0-1 years | Yes | No |
| Crèche C | Teacher 1: (also a supervisor) | >4 years | Yes | No |
| Crèche D | Teacher 1: (also a supervisor) | 0-1 years | Not specific | No |
| Crèche E | Teacher 1: (also a supervisor) | >4 years | Yes | No |
| Crèche F | Teacher 1: (also a supervisor) | >4 years | Yes | No |
| | Teacher 2: | 2-3 years | No | No |
| Crèche G | Teacher 1: | 0-1 years | Yes | No |
| | Teacher 2: | 2-3 years | Yes | No |
| | Teacher 3: (also a supervisor) | 0-1 years | Not specific | No |
| Crèche H | Teacher 1: | 2-3 years | Yes | No |
| | Teacher 2: (also a supervisor) | >4 years | Yes | No |
| Crèche I | Teacher 1: | 0-1 years | yes | No |
| | Teacher 2: (also a supervisor) | >4 years | Yes | No |
| Crèche J | Teacher 1: (also a supervisor) | 2-3 years | Yes | No |

With regard to the roles and responsibilities of ECD practitioners, the study reveals that the majority of ECD practitioners understand the above. Firstly, all the centres do not compile and keep job descriptions for each staff member. They are however trained on what is expected of them as practitioners. Table 11 also shows that participants with more than 4 years of experience demonstrate knowledge of their roles and responsibilities while some with fewer years answered that they do not fully understand what is expected of them especially because they lack proper training in ECD. Having pointed out that there are no jobs descriptions for both supervisor and ECD practitioners, ECD centres engage in verbal agreements and staff members exchange duties in the absence of the other. ECD supervisors find this acceptable and have adopted this method in daily operations. Secondly, considering

all the shortcomings facing ECD centres the influence of ECD supervisors is acknowledged and they have a key role in supervising staff in ensuring that all staff members deliver as expected.

Table 12: Showing staff understanding of roles and responsibilities and qualification

| Respondents Crèches | Number of ECD Practitioners | Qualifications for ECD Practitioners | Years of experience in ECD | Do you understand the roles and responsibilities? |
|--------------------------------|--|---|---|--|
| Crèche A | Teacher 1: (supervisor) | Teacher 1: Save the children course | >4 years | Yes |
| Crèche B | Teacher 1:(supervisor) | Teacher 1: Matric only Teacher | 0-1 years | No |
| | Teacher 2: | 2: Save the Children course | 0-1 years | Yes |
| Crèche C | Teacher 1: (supervisor) | Teacher 1: Save the children course | >4 years | Yes |
| Crèche D | Teacher 1: (supervisor) | Teacher 1: Matric only | 0-1 years | Not specific |
| Crèche E | Teacher 1: (supervisor) | Teacher 1: No Matric and no other training. | >4 years | Yes |
| Crèche F | Teacher 1: (supervisor) | Teacher 1: Save the Children course | >4 years | Yes |
| | Teacher 2: | Teacher 2: Matric only | 2-3 years | No |
| Crèche G | Teacher 1: | Teacher 1: Save the Children course | 0-1 years | Yes |
| | Teacher 2: | Teacher 2: Early Childhood Development Certificate and Save the Children | 2-3 years | Yes |
| | Teacher 3:(supervisor) | Teacher 3: Matric and currently doing certificate in ECD, NQF level 4 | 0-1 years | Not specific |
| Crèche H | Teacher 1: | Teacher 1: Matric only | 2-3 years | Yes |

| | | | | |
|----------|----------------------------|---|-----------|-----|
| | Teacher 2:(supervisor) | Teacher 2: Matric, Diploma in foundation phase, Early Childhood Development Certificate and Save the Children course | >4 years | Yes |
| Crèche I | Teacher 1: | Teacher 1: Matric only | 0-1 years | yes |
| | Teacher 2: (supervisor) | Teacher 2: Save the Children course | >4 years | Yes |
| Crèche J | Teacher 1: (supervisor) | Teacher 1: Matric and Still doing NQF level 1 on ECD | 2-3 years | Yes |

Table 12 gives a picture of how roles and responsibilities are understood by ECD practitioners and supervisors in relation to the qualifications they have and the experience they possess in working with children. The correlation between understanding their roles and the training the practitioners and supervisor receive is important. Those who have qualifications are likely to better understand what is expected of them at the ECD centres compared to the staff without relevant training. The majority of ECD supervisors indicated that lack of training has negative effects on the staff fulfilling their work duties. Secondly, the close supervision of staff by supervisors assists in ensuring that the work is under control. The study indicates that some ECD practitioners are not motivated to work with children. One ECD supervisor mentioned that such staff members require close supervision. Considering Draper and Sherry's (2013: 1301) definition of early childhood development, which includes sensor-motor, socio-emotional, and cognitive-language aspects, the ECD services provided by ECD centres are limited to cognitive skills (Draper and Sherry, 2013: 1301). For Draper and Sherry (2013: 1301) language is the commonly used measure for ECD (Draper and Sherry, 2013: 1301).

The present study supports their recommendations that ECD policy in SA should cover all areas of ECD, namely motor, cognitive, and emotional. Participants were also asked if they felt that they adequately trained in ECD. 60 % responded that the training is not enough. There are several aspects of child development that ECD practitioners cannot handle or rather cannot fully deliver on especially in the case of vulnerable children who require professional

| | | |
|----------|--------------------------------|--------|
| Crèche G | Teacher 1: | Female |
| | Teacher 2: | Female |
| | Teacher 3:(also a supervisor) | Female |
| | Cook 1 | Female |
| | Cleaner 1 | Female |
| Crèche H | Teacher 1: | Female |
| | Teacher 2: (also a supervisor) | Female |
| | Cook 1 | Female |
| | Cleaner 1 | Female |
| Crèche I | Teacher 1: | Female |
| | Teacher 2: (also a supervisor) | Female |
| | Cook and also a cleaner | Female |
| Crèche J | Teacher 1: (also a supervisor) | Female |
| | Cook 1 | Female |
| | Cleaner 1 | Female |

The above table 14 shows the number of staff in each ECD centre according to gender. The study reveals that all the ECD centres in the sample are managed by women and a small percentage of men are employed as gardeners. The previous history of South Africa did not allow women to participate in the economy of the country. As a result the majority of women in rural areas such as Mkhambathini are unskilled. It is a belief especially in rural areas that women should perform house duties and should not work however, the new South Africa encourages women to be involved in contributing toward the economic growth of the country. Partnerships between NPOs and government on the provision of ECD services encourage women to acquire skills and to assist government with the provision of ECD services. The significant relationship between women and ECD supports the hypothesis especially in rural areas that taking care of children is the responsibility of women and not of men.

5.2.10 Understanding of DSD *Guidelines for the Management of Early Childhood Development Services*

The participants were asked to indicate if they were familiar with the DSD *Guidelines for the Management of ECD Services* and what they understand about these guidelines.

Table 15: Shows a number of ECD centres that are familiar with the *DSD Guidelines for the Management of ECD Services*.

| Crèches | Yes/No |
|----------|--------|
| Crèche A | No |
| Crèche B | No |
| Crèche C | Yes |
| Crèche D | No |
| Crèche E | Yes |
| Crèche F | Yes |
| Crèche G | Yes |
| Crèche H | Yes |
| Crèche I | No |
| Crèche J | Yes |

All the participants responded to the question (100%). Having noted that ECD centres receive different types of training, 60 per cent of the ECD centres understood what the guidelines entail. The other 40 per cent could not specify what they understood about the document however; through interaction the researcher found that the ECD centres had a brief knowledge of the document. This could be explained by the fact that the DSD guideline document is long and written in English which limits the level of understanding for some ECD practitioners, particularly in rural areas. In spite of the deviation from the *DSD Guidelines for ECD Services*, the centres acknowledged the document as a guide on how to manage themselves. Respondents however, indicated that several standards in this document are not fully implementable. There is an element of non-compliance while 70% of the sampled ECD centres started operating after the approval of the *Guidelines for ECD Services*.

5.2.11 Major challenges experienced during the implementation of the *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development Services*.

According to Rist (2009: 15) implementation evaluation can be used to provide support in re-organising or making decisions about the resource allocations to a programme, project or policy. It can help to identify emerging problems, diagnose, re-think the root causes of the problems and pave a way forward on how best to respond to problems (Rist, 2009: 15). It can assist in rational decision making about which are the best or most feasible options for a

policy, programme or project. It can be used to empower, build capacity, implement reform and encourage innovations (Rist, 2009: 15).

The major challenges comprise of the participants voices who are actually involved in the provision of the ECD services to young children. Identification of the causes of the challenges in implementing the *Guidelines for ECD Services* could help to avoid repeating similar mistakes. The following challenges have been identified from the study.

5.2.11.1 Premises and equipment

50% of the ECD centres operate from home and of these, 30% per cent work in very poor conditions. Respondents consistently indicated that the problem of premises is vast. There is a reasonable expectation that ECD centres should admit children with disabilities and special needs however; the conditions they are operating under are not conducive for these children. In fact, overcrowding and poor premises are problems that continue and are growing. It has been pointed earlier that ECD centres far exceed the capacity they are registered for which has a negative impact on the hygiene and health of the children. Respondents indicated that due to poor building structures the attendance of children during winter time is minimal and they also have to change the time of and open later. It was also observed that the in the centres which operate from home, there is not enough playground for the children. A shortage of resources especially equipment is a problem. Respondents indicated that children do not have necessary books for reading and they sometimes request schools nearby to assist them with old books. Mbelu (2011: 67) also emphasises the issue of scarcity of teaching and shortage of resources in the majority of schools in the Umgungundlovu district municipality (Mbelu, 2011: 67).

5.2.11.2 Lack of training

The respondents indicated that the training they have is useful but that they need more training since children are diverse. Lack of training is also due to frequent change of ECD practitioners. The root causes of this is the low stipends they receive; as a result it is difficult to attract young people who are still active rather than middle aged and old people who are interested to work in ECD centres. Nevertheless the study could not associate the age with ECD centres due to the complexity of the study. Subject to the *Guidelines for ECD Service*, ECD centres should be trained to handle vulnerable children including those affected and infected by HIV/AIDS. The participants indicated that they do not believe they have the

capacity to handle these children and they can only send children back home if they see they are not well. The respondents indicated that the school governing body or committee also needs to be capacitated in their roles and responsibilities. The respondents indicated that the board does not actually understand what is expected of them and therefore some members are not active. The study basically finds that lack of training is the contributing factor to the problems encountered in the implementation of ECD services.

5.2.11.3 Lack of participation by families

The present study reveals that some parents are responsive; actually have good relations with the ECD centres while others are not well educated on what their roles are in terms of their children who attend the centres. Family control and lack of parental guidance and values can be demonstrated by children at the ECD centres and the centres do not have the capacity to handle such challenges. In some instances parents resist when the ECD centre initiates to family engagement on the behaviour and attitudes of children. The study is in support of the research findings by Mbelu (2011: 67) that in the UMGungundlovu district municipality there is a lack of parental involvement in the educational system. The respondents indicated that some parents do not provide adequate support to the ECD centres and some do not attend meetings when invited to share the progress and development of their children. It is a concern that some parents do not believe that they can play an active role in the development of their children.

5.2.11.4 Financial challenges

The majority of ECD centres indicated that the monthly claims are often received very late from the DSD. ECD supervisors indicated that this demotivates the staff to come to work because if they are not paid they cannot fulfil their monthly expenditures on time. In addition, some parents pay the school fees very late and sometimes do not pay at all. At the end the participants indicated that the children suffer because this affects educational learning and meals for children. While ECD centres are not prevented from having other means of raising funds for maintaining themselves, the majority of respondents indicated that they do have sources of funding other than the DSD funding. In this view the majority of ECD centres are very dependent on government for operating and maintaining themselves.

5.2.11.5 *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development Service* written in English

The few ECD centres who are familiar with the *Guidelines for ECD Services* indicated that the document is very long and although it is written in English it is informative. Having pointed this out, ECD supervisors felt that while they understand the documents it would have been much easier if it was customised in their mother tongue. The study reveals that there is poor communication between the department of education and social development on the implementation of the *Guidelines for ECD Services*.

5.3 Recommendations

The study illustrate that the provision of ECD services is the responsibility of many stakeholders, government and civil society. It is acknowledged that several departments and other institutions such as churches play an important role in contributing towards early childhood development. Nevertheless, support from other social sector departments is not fully received. The recommendations are based on the fact that early childhood development is a collaborative effort and also based on the challenges that are encountered by ECD centres in implementing ECD services. The following is recommended:

5.3.1 Translation and development of the implementation strategy of the *Guidelines for Early Childhood Development Services*.

It is important for the DSD to acknowledge that ECD centres in rural areas need to have the guide documents translated into a language suitable for them. The development of the implementation plan of this document is crucial to ensure that all the target participants can access services without bias. It would be advisable for the DSD to diagnose the situation and conditions of the ECD centres and come up with an action plan and implementing strategy to implement the *Guidelines for ECD Services* in the province of KwaZulu-Natal. This diagnosis includes a skills audit and assessment of ECD infrastructures. In this process, the involvement of all key stakeholders from government departments to civil society should not be undermined. This will allow the DSD to enable the environments in the province for the full functionality of ECD centres and also to get the input of those who work closely with ECD centres.

5.3.2 Well-structured early childhood development infrastructure and equipment.

It has been mentioned that ECD covers motor, cognitive and emotional skills and currently the focus of ECD centres is on cognitive skills. Lack of training, playgrounds and well-structured infrastructure limits children from improving motor skills which is an important part of ECD (Draper and Sherry, 2013: 1304). On this basis, the Department of Social Development and Department of Education should pay attention to the building of new crèches and rehabilitating old structures to best suit the development of children as prescribed in the *Guidelines for ECD Services*.

5.3.3 Skills Development

It has been pointed out that the lack of skills is a huge challenge in the implementation of *Guidelines for ECD Services* and that the majority of ECD practitioners and supervisors do not have the relevant qualifications required to work with young children. The respondents also indicated that some children demonstrate a lack of discipline and good values. The DSD needs an implementing strategy to deal with the lack of skills development including on-going training. This strategy should be informed by a skills audit of all the ECD centres. This also covers the empowerment of parents on values, behavioural issues and their roles in their children's development both at school and at home. The DSD has well-structured of family preservations and parenting programmes. The DSD local office could use the opportunity to capacitate parents whose children access services in ECD centres.

5.3.4 Funding of Early Childhood Development centres

The funding criteria could be reconsidered by the Department of Social Development. This relates to the fact that the crèches can be funded but not all children accessing service in ECD centres could be funded. Each child gets funded based on the evidence that they qualify and their parents cannot afford to pay for school fees. Due to the low subsidy from government, ECD centres continue to admit children in ECD centres irrespective of the numbers they are permitted to take. In addition, NPO have a responsibility to find other sources of income to meet all their daily needs and also capacitate themselves as per the *Guidelines for ECD Services*.

5.3.5 Monitoring and evaluation framework for early childhood development

It is a requirement that ECD centres be monitored at least once a quarter to track progress of effective management so that quarterly reports are available. Also, considering the time since the approval of the *Guidelines of the Early Childhood Development Services* and the opening of the sampled ECD centres, it could be appropriate to recommend that the evaluation study be conducted to evaluate the impact that this policy, *Guidelines of the Early Childhood Development Services* has brought about ranging from training of ECD service providers, ECD practitioners, stakeholders, staff performance, available workplace infrastructure to individual learners performance. In this view, DSD is the custodian of ECD services and the development of monitoring and evaluation framework for ECD centres in line with all policies relevant to the provision of ECD. It should enable problems to be attended to as they arise and should ensure accountability.

5.4 Conclusion

It has been seven years since the approval of the *Guidelines for ECD Services* and the Department of Social Development has a mandate to operationalise this guideline. The process is however subject to many objections. The question was asked if the *Guidelines for ECD Services* are implemented as designed and the following conclusions have been drawn from the study.

5.4.1 Children accessing early childhood development centres

It has been noted in the present study that there are discrepancies between the number of children that ECD centres are registered for and the number of children actually attending the centres. The findings reveal that ECD centres significantly exceed the registered capacity they are permitted to admit. The study maintains that there are many children in Mkhambathini local municipality and therefore a high demand for ECD services while the facilities are scarce and not fully equipped.

5.4.2 Target participation, coverage and bias

For Rossi and Freeman (1989: 181) it is significant to define the target group or population that will participate in a programme or policy, prior to implementation. The target group for ECD services is young children from 0 to 6 years of age. In Mkhambathini municipality ECD centres are not fully accessed by the targeted population such as disabled children due to the

to the objectives of the study. The implications and limitations to the study findings for ECD services were discussed and presented.

5.5 Summary

The study has achieved its aim and objectives however; it has not covered the broad details of family contributions, nutritional standards, and learning curricula. This study on the implementation of *Guidelines for ECD Services* has been conducted in Mkhambathini local municipality. 10 funded ECD centres were sampled and all questionnaires were usable. It was the objective of the study to find reasons why ECD centres are struggling to implement the *Guidelines for ECD Services*. The findings of the present study are consistent with previous studies that have been conducted on ECD services. At this stage the *Guidelines for ECD Services* are not implemented as designed. The recommendations are based on the fact that ECD is a collaborative effort and based on the challenges which are encountered by ECD centres in implementing ECD services. Due to scarce skills, lack of training, inadequate training, management of ECD centres, it is concluded that ECD centres do not comply with the *Guidelines for ECD Services*. Much still needs to be done. Many stakeholders still have to fully engage and provide support to early childhood development services.

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Appendices A

6.10 Any other procedures?

6.11 Any challenges experiencing

GUIDELINES FOR EARLY CHILDHOOD DEVELOPMENT SERVICES

Department of Social Development
Republic of South Africa



*Every child has the right
to the best possible start in life.*

MAY 2006

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HOW TO USE THESE GUIDELINES EFFECTIVELY

It is not the aim of these Guidelines to be comprehensive but to provide basic information as set out in the different chapters. In essence, these Guidelines are divided to focus on three aspects namely, the policy and legislative provisions (Part One) and the actual service delivery (Parts Two and Three).

It is important to keep up to date with the latest policies and legislative developments that affect children, in particular young children (from birth to five years). These Guidelines only accommodate those policies and legislation that were in effect on the date of completion of this document.

Chapters 6, 7 and 8 were written in such a manner that they could be used as separate entities in service provision. It is hoped that this will facilitate easy reference for practitioners. For example, if you run an after school care centre, you only need to refer to Chapter 7 in Part 2 to find all the information you need.

These Guidelines also have a number of Appendices that contain more in-depth information on the needs and rights of young children and their caregivers. These should be used for reference and in-service training in accordance to the needs of the practitioners.

- To monitor the provision of registered and non-registered early childhood development services (with specific reference to section 31 of the Child Care Act, 1983).
- Cancellation of a registration certificate of a Day Care Centre (place of care) in terms of section 32 of the Child Care Act, 1983.
- To provide information on the requirement of the need to notify the Department of any instance where a child shows repeated bruising or injuries, abuse or neglect or suspected malnutrition.
- *For more information see Appendix I*

- (b) Threats of removal, or removal from the programme;*
- (c) Humiliation or ridicule;*
- (d) Physical punishment;*
- (e) Deprivation of basic rights and needs such as food and clothing;*
- (f) Deprivation of access to parents and family;*
- (g) Denial, outside of the child's specific development plan, of visits, telephone calls or correspondence with family and significant others;*
- (h) Isolation from service providers or other children admitted to the place of care, other than for the immediate safety of such children or such service providers only after all other possibilities have been exhausted and then under strict adherence to policy, procedure, monitoring and documentation;*
- (i) Restraint, other than for the immediate safety of the children or service providers and as an extreme measure. This measure is governed by specific policy and procedure, can only be undertaken by service providers trained in this measure, and must be thoroughly documented and monitored.*
- (j) Assignment of inappropriate or excessive exercise or work;*
- (k) Undue influence by service providers regarding their religious or personal beliefs including sexual orientation;*
- (l) Measures which demonstrate discrimination on the basis of cultural or linguistic heritage, gender, race, or sexual orientation;*
- (m) Verbal, emotional or physical harm;*
- (n) Punishment by another child; and*
- (o) Behaviour modification such as punishment or reward systems, of privilege systems, other than as a treatment or development technique within a documented individual treatment or development programme which is developed by a team including the child and monitored by an appropriately trained multi-disciplinary team.*

Regulation 30A(2) may cause some confusion within places of care and it is recommended that places of care apply those parts that have reference to the services offered in a place of care. The following are examples of this regulation that may not apply to a place of care:

- Regulation 30A(2)(b): Family reunification does not apply as children in a place of care are placed there by their parents for care, protection and development during the day, as a place of care is not a residential care facility.
- Regulation 30A(2)(e): Review of placement also does not apply, as placement in a place of care is not a statutory placement.
- Regulation 30A(2)(k): Children in a place of care usually have daily contact with their parents and no court order can restrict any contact as these children are not under statutory care.

- Regulation 30A(2)(l): The same applies here as above as these children are not under statutory care.
- Regulation 30A(2)(t): The reference to custody is not applicable as these children are not placed in a place of care under a court order.
- Regulation 30A(2)(u): This sub-regulation also does not apply as the family and significant others cannot be refused discussions with the children.

The opinion is held that Regulation 30A(2) needs to be reviewed and amended to make it more applicable to places of care due to the fact that, as it stands now, it refers to children in out-of-home care e.g. children's home, rather than children in a place of care. In comparison with Regulation 31A(1), which deals with children's homes, shelters, places of safety and schools of industries, there is no difference in the wording of the said regulation and Regulation 30A(2), which makes Regulation 30A(2) inappropriate with regard to some aspects.

REGULATION 30A(2)

- (2) All children in a place of care shall, where appropriate, have the right —*
- (a) To know their rights and responsibilities;*
 - (b) To a plan and programme of care and development, which includes a plan for reunification, security and life-long relationships;*
 - (c) To participate in formulating their plan of care and development, to be informed about their plan, and to make changes to it;*
 - (d) To expect that their plan and programme is based on an appropriate and competent assessment of their developmental needs and strengths and, where possible, is in the context of their family and community environments;*
 - (e) To a regular review of their placement and care or development programme;*
 - (f) To be fed, clothed and nurtured according to community standards and to be given the same quality of care as other children in the places of care;*
 - (g) To be consulted and to express their views, according to their abilities, about significant decisions affecting them;*
 - (h) To reasonable privacy and to possession of the personal belongings;*
 - (i) To be informed of behaviour expected by service providers and of the consequences of not meeting the expectations of service providers;*
 - (j) To care and intervention which respects their cultural, religious and linguistic heritage and the right to learn about and maintain this heritage;*
 - (k) To regular contact with parents, family and friends unless a court order or their care or development programme indicates otherwise, or unless they choose otherwise;*
 - (l) To the involvement of their family or significant others in their care or development programme, unless proved not to be in their best interests, and to return to live in their community in the shortest appropriate period of time;*

- (m) To be free from physical punishment;*
- (n) To positive disciplinary measures appropriate to their level of maturity;*
- (o) To protection from all forms of emotional, physical, sexual and verbal abuse;*
- (p) To education appropriate to their level of maturity, their aptitude and their ability;*
- (q) To be informed that prohibited items in their possession may be removed and withheld;*
- (r) To respect and protection from exploitation and neglect;*
- (s) To opportunities of learning and opportunities which develop their capacity to demonstrate respect and care for others;*
- (t) To an interpreter if language or disability is a barrier to consulting with them on decisions affecting their custody or care and development; and*
- (u) To privacy during discussions with families and significant others, unless this can be shown not be in the best interests of the child.*

[Regulation 30A inserted by GN 416 of March 1998]

Regulation 34 stipulates the specific **register** that needs to be kept by a place of care and is described quite clearly in the said regulation (see below). Managers of places of care have to ensure that they adhere to this and keep such a register updated. The register shall have the following headings:

- Surname of child;
- First names of the child;
- Date of birth;
- Sex of the child;
- Date of admission into the centre;
- Name of parent/primary caregiver;
- Physical address of parent/primary caregiver;
- Telephone numbers of parent/primary caregiver;
- Date on which child left the care of the centre (stop attending the programme);
- Other information such as chronic medical conditions (e.g. diabetes), dietary requirements (e.g. halaal, vegetarian, etc.) and other critical information for the care and development of the child.

REGULATION 34

Register to kept by place of care

34. Every place of care registered under section 30 of the Act shall keep a register of children attending that place of care in which the following particulars in respect of each child shall be entered:

- (a) Full name, date of birth and sex of the child;*
- (b) Date of his admission;*
- (c) Names, addresses and telephone numbers of parents and foster parent;*

(d) Date on which care is terminated; and

(e) Any other information regarding the child which the place of care may deem necessary or expedient to enter.

Regulation 38 allows for the payment of a place of care grant. The payment of such a grant is not compulsory or statutory and provision is merely made in the regulation that the grant **may be** paid (Regulation 38(1)) for children older than one month in a place of care.

Regulation 38(2) states that the application for such a grant must be made on a form determined by the Director-General (delegated to the provincial departments of Social Development).

Regulation 38(3) determines that this grant is calculated in accordance with a formula and is payable for the days a child is registered at the place of care. When a child is absent from the place of care for longer than six weeks the grant is not payable. The grant is not payable when the child is absent for consecutive periods that exceed two months.

Regulation 38(4)(a) sets the conditions for the payment of the grant, which include the operating times of the place of care (not more than eight hours on a weekday) and certain provisions for Saturdays, Sundays and public holidays. It further stipulates clearly that such a grant is not payable for the periods when the place of care is closed as the grant is paid per day per child.

Further conditions are set in Regulation 38(b) for the payment of the grant, which include the following:

- Meals and refreshments;
- Meeting the child's basic needs;
- Appropriate educational programmes;
- Subjection to evaluation and examination;
- Non-transfer of the grant;
- Submission of reports.

REGULATION 38

Place of care grant

38. (1) *The Minister may, with the concurrence of the Minister of Finance, give approval for a grant to be paid to a place of care for the care of children older than one month;*
- (2) *An application for a grant in terms of this regulation shall be made on a form determined by the Director-General.*
- (3) *A grant in terms of this regulation shall amount to an amount or shall be calculated in accordance with a formula or in a manner determined by the Minister with the concurrence of the Minister of Finance and shall be payable in respect of each day during which the child concerned is registered in the place of care in accordance with the provisions of this regulation, provided that such child should not be absent from the place of care for a period longer than six weeks at a time or for consecutive periods which, in total, exceed two months.*
- (4) *The payment of a grant to a place of care in terms of this regulation shall be subject to the following conditions:*

CIRCUMSTANCES THAT CAN LEAD TO THE CLOSURE OF A PLACE OF CARE

- *Unsafe buildings or structures*
- *Refusal to meet requirements as stipulated by the local authorities*
- *Jeopardizing the health of children*
- *Physical abuse of children*
- *Insufficient personnel*
- *Incapable personnel*
- *Chronic lack of or inappropriate stimulation programme*
- *Discrimination that leads to violation of the rights of children*
- *Drastic reduction in the number of children utilising the facility*
- *A management committee that is not functioning, dysfunctional, has poor co-operation and/or is involved with corruption and maladministration*
- *The community shows no interest, or there is no longer a need for the facility.*

PROCEDURE FOR DEALING WITH CENTRES CONTRAVENING THE STIPULATED REQUIREMENTS (See the Child Care Act for the detailed procedure)

When, after monitoring or reviewing the facility or if a complaint is received, and it is found that the requirements are not met, the social worker must:

- *Compile an assessment report.*
- *Inform the management or owner of the facility of the contents of the report, in writing.*
- *Where needed, request the management or owner to respond to the report in writing, within 14 days of receipt of the report.*
- *Provide guidance and support to the facility to meet the requirements within two to six months.*
- *Review the facility and compile a report. If requirements are still not met, withdraw the registration certificate and instruct the facility to arrange for transfer of the children to a registered facility.*
- *Inform Head Office in writing of the situation and actions taken.*

STEP 6

The centre must be monitored by the social worker or other official employed and authorised by the provincial Department of Social Development for two years.

A developmental quality assurance assessment must be done and the registration certificate will be renewed or withdrawn.

A centre has to re-register when an applicant intends to:

- Move the centre to another building or premises;
- Extend or decrease the size of the existing structure;
- Increase the number of children enrolled;
- Sell the business; or
- Change ownership.

The procedure for re-registration is the same as for registration.

When the kitchen is in the same area as the playroom, it must be cornered off and safety requirements must be complied with. Children must be protected from the dangers of hot liquids and food and from fire and other cooking fuels such as paraffin.

The kitchen area or separate kitchen must also:

- Be safe and clean;
- Have adequate washing up facilities and clean, drinkable water;
- Have hand washing facilities for staff;
- Have adequate storage space;
- Have adequate lighting and ventilation;
- Have cooling facilities for the storage of perishable food;
- Have an adequate number of waste bins with tightly fitting lids;
- Have an adequate supply of water and cleaning agents for the cleaning of equipment and eating utensils. Cleaning agents must be kept in their original containers and out of the reach of children.

6.1.6 Where children who are bottle-fed are cared for, suitable facilities must be provided for cleaning the bottles.

Bottles must be kept clean and washed regularly.

The Department of Social Development actively promotes cup feeding rather than bottle feeding. Due to the fact that many parents still opt for bottle feeding it is important to include this standard to ensure the hygienic management of child feeding practices in ECD centres.

6.1.7 Toilet facilities that are safe for children must be available.

In areas where there are no sewerage facilities, sufficient covered chambers (potties) must be available. Where potties are used, the waste must be disposed of hygienically in a toilet. Potties must be disinfected after each use.

Potties and nappies must not be cleaned near the food preparation and eating area.

Toilet facilities must always be clean and safe.

There must be somewhere for children to wash their hands.

There must be one potty for every five toddlers.

For older children (ages three to six years) one toilet and one hand washing facility must be provided for every 20 children, irrespective of gender.

Doors on the children's toilet facilities should not have locks.

Facilities for the washing of children must be provided.

Separate adult toilet and hand washing facilities must be provided for the staff in terms of the National Building Regulations.

6.1.8 Provision must be made for the safe storage of anything that could harm children.

Medicines, cleaning materials, cooking fluids (paraffin), sharp knives and kitchen utensils must be stored out of reach of children. Medicines and cleaning materials must be kept away from food.

6.1.9 At least 2 m² safe outside playing space per child must be provided.

The outdoor area must be fenced with a gate that children cannot open.

Children should not be able to leave the premises alone.

Strangers should not be able to enter the premises without the knowledge of the staff.

Children need space to move and exercise to develop their gross motor skills. They need space to run freely and play with outdoor equipment.

The outside area can consist of lawn, sand pits, shady areas and hard surfaces.

Outside play equipment must be provided. This must be safe and not have sharp edges or pieces.

No poisonous or harmful plants may be grown on the premises.

6.1.10 All furniture and equipment must be safe and in good repair.

This means that, for example:

- Seating and working surfaces must be available.
- Beds, mattresses or mats for sleeping and resting on must be safe and clean.
- Waterproof sheets and blankets must be available.
- There must be enough age appropriate indoor as well as outdoor play equipment and toys, books and print material and other materials.
- There must be adequate storage space for indoor and outdoor equipment.
- Play apparatus must be safe so that children cannot be injured.
- Sufficient safe, clean and appropriate eating utensils must be provided.
- If there is a sand pit, it should be covered overnight so that animals cannot dirty it. It must be cleaned regularly by sprinkling it with coarse salt every six weeks or by wetting the sand with a bleach solution. Sand pit sand must be replaced at least once a year.
- If there is a swimming pool on the premises, the requirements of the local authority must be met. The swimming pool must be covered by a net and have a surrounding fence of sufficient height and a lockable gate.

6.1.11 Alterations and additions, as well as new buildings, must comply with the National Building Safety Regulations.

6.1.12 If pets are kept on the premises, they must be tame, clean, safe, healthy and well cared for.

6.1.13 Insects and vermin must be effectively combated.

6.2 HEALTH, SAFETY AND NUTRITION

Minimum Standards:

- Children must be provided with at least one meal a day by either parents or the centre.
- Children must be cared for in a responsible way when ill.
- The parent or responsible family member of a child with a disability must receive information on the services and treatment the child can access locally.

The child in a centre spends a large part of the day away from home. For this reason the health, safety and nutrition are important responsibilities.

6.2.1 The medical history of each child should be recorded and kept up to date and confidential.

The following should be included on a Medical History Form:

- Information about the child's general state of health;

- A copy of the Road to Health card for each child;
- Any communicable illnesses that the child has had and the dates when he/she had these illnesses;
- Details of the child's immunisation against polio, diphtheria, tetanus, whooping cough, measles, Hepatitis B, Tuberculosis and HIB (Haemophilus Influenzae Type B);
- Allergies, including food allergies, and any other diseases such as diabetes and epilepsy that the practitioners should know about;
- The name and contact details of the child's family health practitioner (doctor, clinic, traditional healer).

6.2.2 A record of each child's immunisation programme and Vitamin A schedule must be kept at the centre (i.e. a copy of the Road to Health Card).

6.2.3 There should be policies and procedures written down that cover health care at the centre.

These policies should cover cleanliness, hygiene and safety standards of the centre.

6.2.4 There must be action plans to deal with emergencies.

All staff, children and families and the surrounding community must know what the plan is and what action will be taken in an emergency.

Staff must be trained in first aid.

6.2.5 Staff should be able to recognise children's illnesses and how to deal with these.

Staff should watch out for possible illnesses and diseases in the children. Any illness or problem should be reported to the parent or family immediately. Staff must allow an ill child to rest away from the other children and inform the parent or family.

In urgent cases, the child should be taken to the nearest clinic or hospital for referral or treatment.

Staff must work closely with parents or families of children who are receiving chronic medication to help them see that the particular health needs are taken care of, for example children who are asthmatic, or children who are HIV positive and who are receiving anti-retroviral treatment.

6.2.6 Staff should be trained to recognise early signs of child abuse and how to protect children.

If the child shows repeated bruising or injuries, abuse or neglect or suspected malnutrition, this must be observed, recorded and reported to the social worker of the regional or branch office of the Department of Social Development or any other welfare organisation as well as the Child Protection Unit. The matter must be recorded at the centre.

For more information see Appendix I: Child Protection

6.2.7 Accident, medicine and abuse registers must be kept up to date.

Any accident, injury, bites, knocks to head or incident where treatment is applied while the child is at the centre must be recorded on the day it happened. The supervisor of the centre and the family of the child or children must be informed.

For a specimen of an Incident Report Form see Appendix L: Incident Report Form

A proper record of any medicine that is given to a child must be kept. No medicine should be given to a child without permission of a parent or responsible family member.

For an example see Appendix F: Example of a Medicine Administration Chart.

Any concerns about possible abuse of children should be recorded. A record must be kept of any wounds and bruises on the child if these were not obtained at the centre.

6.2.8 Staff should be aware of special medical and health needs of children at the centre and their responsibility in terms of the law.

The names of children who are allergic to certain substances or products should be placed in prominent places in the place of care and **all** staff informed.

The Medical Officer of Health (Communicable Disease Control Officer) must be notified in cases of communicable diseases or diseases that must be reported. The provisions of the Health Act, 1977, regarding the barring of children from schools owing to contagious diseases are applicable to all places of care.

If head or body lice and/or scabies are observed, the parents or family have to be informed immediately and the child or children concerned may not be allowed back into the place of care before the condition has cleared up.

6.2.9 A first aid box must be provided.

The first aid box must be stored where adults can easily reach it, but out of reach of the children. Contents of the first aid box must be checked regularly and replaced when necessary.

Staff must receive regular training on how to use the contents of the first aid box and how to deal with accidents.

Any medicine brought to the centre for children by the family must be clearly labelled and stored out of reach of the children.

See Appendix E: Suggested Contents of a First Aid Box

6.2.10 There should be a healthy environment for the children and staff.

The centre should be cleaned at least once a day; and toilets and potties must be cleaned after use and disinfected at least once a day.

There should be towels and enough soap available for children and staff.

Staff should wash their hands with soap and water after changing nappies, helping children in the toilet or dealing with any accidents.

Staff should wash their hands with soap and water before preparing or serving food.

Staff should be encouraged to take care of their own health and undergo regular health tests, particularly for tuberculosis. Regular training should be given to staff on childhood illnesses, other infections such as HIV and AIDS, Hepatitis B and notifiable diseases such as meningitis.

Staff and families should learn how illnesses can be spread and how to prevent this in the centre.

For more information see Appendix D: Universal Precautions in the Child Care Setting

6.2.11 No child should be stigmatised or treated unfairly because of any illness or disability they may have.

This is particularly important in the case of children who are affected and/or infected by HIV and AIDS, as there are misunderstandings in communities about this disease.

Children who are HIV positive are not a threat to other children or adults if high standards of hygiene are kept at all times. This is very important when staff deal with body fluids, especially blood.

Children who are deaf should not be forced to learn a spoken language, but sign language should be encouraged.

For more on HIV and AIDS see Appendix G: Children Affected and Infected by HIV and AIDS

6.2.12 All meals and snacks should meet the nutritional requirements of the children.

The amount of food and drink provided for children must be adequate for their age. The dieticians of the Department of Health or medical institutions can be consulted for guidance in this respect.

- Food served each day depends on the hours the centre is open:
- If the centre is open for less than five hours, a snack must be provided.
- If a centre is open for five hours or more but less than eight hours, two snacks and lunch must be provided.
- If the centre is open for eight hours or longer each day, two snacks and two meals (breakfast and lunch) must be provided.

Meals can be provided by the centre or be provided by the parents.

6.2.13 Planning of a menu, whether for babies, toddlers or older children, must be done in consultation with an expert (e.g. clinic sister, dietician), because children of different ages have different nutritional needs.

Menus for all meals at ECD Centres should be available for inspection, as well as for the information of the parents, at all times.

6.2.14 Children younger than one year should be fed when they are hungry i.e. on demand.

Babies who are bottle-fed should be held by an adult while feeding.
Milk formula must be made according to the manufacturer's instructions.

The Department of Social Development actively promotes cup feeding rather than bottle feeding. Due to the fact that many parents still opt for bottle feeding it is important to include this standard to ensure the hygienic management of child feeding practices in ECD centres. (also refer to paragraph 6.1.6 of the Guideline).

6.2.15 Children must be supervised by an adult when they are eating.

Staff should make sure meal times are relaxed.
Staff should be role models for healthy eating habits.
Children should be encouraged to try all the food available but they should never be forced to eat anything they do not want to eat. Children on special diets for health or disability reasons should be accommodated.

6.2.16 Safe, clean drinking water must always be available.

If water is not from a piped source, it can be made safe by adding one teaspoon of bleach to 25 litres of water and left to stand overnight.
All water containers must be kept covered.

For information on planning daily menus see Appendix H: General Guidelines for Nutrition.

6.3 MANAGEMENT

Minimum standards:

- Administrative systems and procedures must be in place to ensure the efficient management of the facility and its activities.
- The privacy of families and children must be respected and protected. There must be admission policies that provide for the children who are affected or infected by HIV and AIDS.
- Policies and procedures regarding reportable incidents or actions must be provided to families. Families must be given information and knowledge about child protection.

Administrative systems for managing the centre must be developed and maintained. Records and information on the children must be kept up to date. Families must be given information and policies relating to the centre.

6.3.1 Centre information and policies must be given to families before the child is admitted.

Families should know what is expected of them and what policies guide the centre:

- The days and hours of opening;
- The age group catered for;
- Rules in connection with times of arrival and departure;
- Arrangements regarding the fetching and transport of the child;
- Procedures to be followed when planning an excursion;
- Steps to be taken in case of an injury or accident or if a child is taken ill while at the centre;
- Admission of ill children/contagious diseases;
- The feeding of the children;
- Clothing;
- Monthly fees payable;
- Details and conditions for administering medicine to children;
- Notice of termination of attendance at the centre;
- Policies on admission of children with disabilities, chronic illnesses, HIV and AIDS infected and affected children;
- Management structures within the centre;
- Written complaints procedure.

6.3.2 Records on each child must be kept up to date.

In addition to correspondence regarding the child, the following forms must be kept on the child's file:

- The child's registration form. This form should include:
 - A copy of the child's birth certificate;
 - Surname, full name, gender and date of birth;
 - The child's home language;
 - Home address and contact details of parents/family;
 - Work address(es) and contact details of parents/family;
 - The income of parents/guardians (only in the case of subsidised places);
 - Name, address and contact details of another responsible person who can be contacted in an emergency;
 - Name, address and contact details of a person who has the parent or guardian's permission to fetch the child from the centre on their behalf;
 - Name, address and contact details of the child's family doctor or health care provider.
- A complete medical history of the child. This can form part of the registration form.
- Written permission from the parent that the child may be taken on an excursion. The date of the excursion and the destination must be entered on this permission form.

6.3.3 Registers must be kept up to date.

The supervisor must keep a register of all children. The date of admission and the date on which a child left must be entered in this register. This register may be combined with the daily attendance register.

There must be a daily attendance register where each child's presence or absence is noted.

6.3.4 A record of daily menus must be kept.

A copy of the daily menus for the various age groups, giving all meals and refreshments, must be displayed in a prominent place. It should also be available to authorised persons.

6.3.5 There must be regulations regarding the transport of children

If transport is provided for the children to and from the place of care, the centre staff must make sure that parents or responsible family members are aware of the rules with regard to the transportation of children. The rules from the provincial traffic department include the following:

- In addition to the driver, there should be at least one other adult in the vehicle with the children;
- The vehicle has to be fitted with child locks;
- The driver must remain in the driving seat of the vehicle and may not assist in handing over the children;
- No children may be transported in the front of the vehicle;
- The driver of the vehicle should be in possession of a special licence to transport passengers;
- A baby in a carrycot may not be pushed in under the seats;
- The seating space for each child and the room for carrycots must comply with the prescribed requirements especially proper safety seating, including for children with disabilities.

6.4 ACTIVE LEARNING

Minimum Standards:

- Children must be provided with appropriate developmental opportunities and effective programmes to help them to develop their full potential.
- Children must be cared for in a constructive manner, which gives them support, security and ensures development of positive social behaviour.
- The culture, spirit, dignity, individuality, language and development of each child must be respected and nurtured.

Young children grow and develop very quickly and holistically. This means that practitioners and caregivers must be aware of all aspects of the child: intellectual, physical, emotional and social.

Most young children follow a developmental path but do so at different rates. Young children learn best when they are actively exploring their world and finding out more about it.

6.4.1 Each day should be organised with many different and carefully planned activities.

Activities must take into account the ages and the developmental needs of the children. It is important to plan for the daily activities. Plans should show that practitioners know the needs and interests of all the children. There should be a range of activities to give children opportunities to choose. Plans should include some routines, for example being welcomed on arrival, toilet, rest and refreshment needs catered for, and departures noted.

7.1.5 Toilet facilities that are safe for children must be available.

Toilet facilities must always be clean and safe.

There should be a toilet and hand washing facility for every 20 children.

Separate adult toilet and hand washing facilities must be provided for the staff in terms of the National Building Regulations.

7.1.6 Provision must be made for the safe storage of anything that could harm children.

Medicines, cleaning materials, cooking fluids (paraffin), sharp knives and kitchen utensils must be stored out of reach of children. Medicines and cleaning materials must be kept away from food.

7.1.7 At least 2 m² safe outside playing space per child must be provided.

The outdoor area must be fenced with a gate that children cannot open.

Children should not be able to leave the premises alone.

Strangers should not be able to enter the premises without the knowledge of the staff.

The outside area can consist of lawn, sand pits, shady areas and hard surfaces.

Outside play equipment must be provided. This must be safe and not have sharp edges or pieces.

No poisonous or harmful plants may be grown on the premises.

7.1.8 All furniture and equipment must be safe and in good repair.

This means that, for example:

- Seating and working surfaces must be available;
- Beds, mattresses or mats for sleeping and resting purposes must be safe and clean;
- There must be enough age appropriate indoor as well as outdoor play equipment and toys, books and print material and other materials;
- There must be adequate storage space for indoor and outdoor equipment;
- Play apparatus must be safe so that children cannot be injured;
- Sufficient safe, clean and appropriate eating utensils must be provided;
- If there is a sandpit, it should be covered overnight so that animals cannot dirty it. It must be cleaned regularly by sprinkling it with coarse salt every six weeks or by wetting the sand with a bleach solution. Sand pit sand must be replaced at least once a year;
- If there is a swimming pool on the premises, the requirements of the local authority must be met. The swimming pool must be covered by a net and have a surrounding fence of sufficient height and a lockable gate.

7.1.9 Alterations and additions, as well as new buildings, must comply with the National Building Safety Regulations.

7.1.10 If pets are kept on the premises they must be tame, clean, safe, healthy and well cared for.

7.1.11 Insects and vermin must be effectively combated.

7.2 HEALTH, SAFETY AND NUTRITION

7.2.1 The medical history of each child should be recorded and kept up to date and confidential.

The following should be included on a Medical History Form:

- Information about the child's general state of health;
- Any communicable illnesses that the child has had and the dates when she had these illnesses;
- Details of the child's immunisation against polio, diphtheria, tetanus, whooping cough, measles, Hepatitis B, Tuberculosis and HIB (Haemophilus Influenzae Type B);
- Allergies and any other diseases such as diabetes and epilepsy that the practitioners should know about;
- The name and contact details of the child's family health practitioner (doctor, clinic, traditional healer).

7.2.2 There must be action plans to deal with emergencies.

All staff, children and families and the surrounding community must know what the plan is and what action will be taken in an emergency.

7.2.3 Staff should be aware of signs of child abuse and how to protect children.

If the child shows repeated bruising or injuries, abuse, emotional abuse or neglect or suspected malnutrition, this must be reported to the social worker of the regional or branch office of the Department of Social Development or any other welfare organisation as well as the Child Protection Unit. The matter must be recorded at the centre in the appropriate register.

7.2.4 An accident, medicine and abuse register must be kept up to date.

Any accident, injury, bites, knocks to head, or incident where treatment is applied while the child is at the centre must be recorded on the day it happened. The supervisor of the centre and the family of the child or children must be informed.

A proper record of any medicine that is given to a child must be kept. No medicine must be given to a child without permission of a parent or responsible family member.

For information see Appendix F: Example of a Medicine Administration Chart.

Any concerns about possible abuse of children must be recorded. A written record must be kept in the appropriate register of any wounds and bruises on the child if these were not obtained at the centre.

For more information on child protection procedures see Appendix I: Child Protection

The names of children who are allergic to certain substances or products should be placed in prominent places in the place of care and **all** staff informed.

The Medical Officer of Health (Communicable Disease Control Officer) must be notified in cases of communicable diseases or diseases that must be reported. The provisions of the Health Act, 1977, regarding the barring of children from schools owing to contagious diseases are applicable to all places of care.

If head or body lice and/or scabies are observed, the parents or family have to be informed immediately and the child or children concerned may not be allowed back into the place of care before the condition has cleared up.

7.5.4 Practitioners should have at least the minimum qualification and work towards improving their qualifications.

- The minimum qualification of practitioners is the registered Basic Certificate in ECD NQF Level 1 of the South African Qualifications Authority. This qualification entails basic knowledge and skills about child development from birth to six years old. The practitioner must at this level demonstrate how to facilitate growth and skills development in early childhood development programmes.
- Centre supervisors should have a minimum qualification of the National Certificate in ECD at NQF Level 4 by the South African Qualifications Authority. They should demonstrate a theoretical and practical knowledge and experience in managing after school centres. They should have management skills that enable them to tackle the various daily responsibilities at a centre, as well as communicate, liaise and meet the needs of all the stakeholders at the centre.

For more information see Appendix C: NQF Levels 1 and 4 ECD qualifications

7.6 WORKING WITH FAMILIES

Families are the first educators of young children. They teach them by the way they behave, as well as involving them in different things that they do during the day.

7.6.1 A good relationship between families and the centre should be developed and supported.

Centre staff should welcome families when they bring or collect children. Practitioners can talk about what the child did during the time they were at the centre. If there is anything that worries the practitioner about a child, she should ask a responsible family member to come in for a discussion. Families should be able to talk freely to centre staff about anything that concerns them about their child.

There may sometimes be differences between the staff and families about child rearing practices. These should be discussed respectfully, remembering that everyone is allowed to have his or her own beliefs.

CHAPTER 8

GUIDELINES FOR FAMILY CARE

Most young children in South Africa do not go to early childhood development or after school care centres. They spend their days with their families or go home to their families after school. In this document, "family" means anyone the child lives with and who takes care of her/him. A family may be two parents, one parent, grandparent or grandparents, aunts, uncles, brothers, sisters or neighbours. Some children in South Africa live only with other children in child headed households. There are many reasons why there are so many different ways to describe a family. One of the main reasons today is that many adults are dying because of the HIV and AIDS pandemic.

Most adults and older children who care for young children want to know the best way to do this. Everyone has needs and everyone has rights but young children often need an older person to help him/her to meet his/her needs and enjoy his/her rights.

8.1 PREMISES AND EQUIPMENT

8.1.1 Homes must be a safe place for young children.

All children need a place where they can be safe.

Babies need space where they can see what is going on around them but where they are not in the way of other people or children. Babies can also be carried around so that they can see what is going on and feel the warmth of another human being.

As they grow and begin to crawl and then walk, they will try to touch everything they see. This is why sharp and dangerous things must be kept where they cannot reach them. They must not be able to reach cleaning fluids or any other poisonous liquids or medicines. It is best to move all these things to a higher level or locked cupboard so that everyone can relax.

Some children will stay near the person caring for them. Other children will crawl or walk off by themselves and these children need to be protected from getting lost or landing in a dangerous place like the road or river. A fence with a locked gate is necessary when there are young children in the home.

The area around the house where children play must be kept clean and all sharp objects, rubbish and thorny or poisonous plants must be cleared away. This gives children space to move about freely and develop their muscles and confidence.

Children enjoy looking at bright colours and things that move. If possible, put up posters or pictures on the walls for the child to look at and talk about.

8.1.2 Toilet facilities must be safe for children.

People taking care of babies must wash their hands after changing nappies.

When children start to use a potty, the waste should immediately be thrown away where no one will touch or tread in it. The potty must be washed each time it has been used.

8.2 HEALTH

8.2.1 The health of children should be protected and illnesses dealt with quickly and correctly.

When young children become ill they often cannot say exactly where the pain is or how they are feeling. Sometimes they can be treated at home and will recover quickly. At other times, they need to be taken to the clinic for treatment.

Take children to the clinic immediately when one or more of the following happen:

- When the child is unable to drink or breastfeed;
- When the child vomits up everything;
- If the child has convulsions;
- When the child is lethargic or unconscious;
- When the child has diarrhoea and sunken eyes or a sunken fontanel;
- When the child has diarrhoea with blood;
- When the child coughs and breathes fast - more than 50 breaths a minute;
- When a child under two months has a fever;
- Any other emergency.

8.2.2 Children must be immunised and receive their doses of Vitamin A.

Take children for a full course of immunisation according to the timetable marked on the Road to Health Card.

8.2.3 Diarrhoea must be dealt with correctly

When a child has diarrhoea, quickly start giving the child available fluids such as thin maize porridge, samp or rice water, fruit juice or soup.

Sugar-salt solution (eight teaspoons of sugar, half a teaspoon salt, and one litre of boiled, cooled water) can also be used: half a cup after each loose stool for children under two years and one cup after each loose stool for children over two years.

If a child is breastfed, continue to breastfeed frequently and for longer periods.

Give fluids each time a child passes a stool using frequent small sips from a cup.

If the child vomits, wait ten minutes then continue, but more slowly.

Continue giving extra fluids until the diarrhoea stops.

8.3 NUTRITION

Children need to eat different kinds of food to make sure that they grow and develop. Sometimes it is difficult to find all the right foods but some people grow their own vegetables so that children have a supply of these. Children also need clean water to drink at any time when they are thirsty.

Before preparing food or feeding children, hands should be washed with soap and water.

All children and especially HIV positive children need to be well nourished to help prevent infections.

Feeding 0-6 months:

Put the child to the breast immediately after birth.

Feed the baby only breast milk for the first six months after birth.

Breastfeed whenever the baby wants — at least eight times in each 24 hours.

Introduce solid food at 6 months:

Continue to breastfeed until the child is at least two years old if the mother is free of HIV infection.

If the mother is HIV positive, she should stop breastfeeding at six months.

At six months, start feeding the child freshly prepared nutritious food that is available at home.

Feed the child using a spoon and plate.

Feeding 12-24 months:

Feed the child nutritious foods such as porridge with added oil, peanut butter or ground peanuts, margarine and chicken, beans, vegetables and fruit five times a day.

Continue to feed with spoon and plate.

Try different foods.

Feeding 2 years and older:

Feed a child five times a day.

Give family foods at three meals each day. Also twice a day give nutritious snacks between meals such as bread with peanut butter or margarine, fresh fruit or full cream milk.

Children need vitamins and minerals:

At nine months, children should be taken to the clinic to have their first dose of Vitamin A.

Foods that have a lot of Vitamin A include paw-paws, mangoes, peaches, apricots, pumpkin, butternut, carrots, and dark green leafy vegetables like spinach. Fish, meat, chicken and ox or chicken livers are all good for children.

8.4 PROTECTION

8.4.1 Children should be kept safe at all times and their rights protected

All children have rights. HIV positive children have the same rights and needs as other children. Orphans and vulnerable children whose parents are very ill need particular care, love and support from those around them.

All births must be registered and the documents kept in a safe place. Every child should have a Road to Health card.

8.5 ACTIVE LEARNING

8.5.1 The importance of learning through play must be understood and supported.

Children learn when they play. They want to find out about the world and they do this by exploring, touching and talking. When children have fun and are relaxed, they learn easily.

There are many ways to help children learn around the home. When they are old enough, they can begin to wash and dress themselves. This will give them a lot of confidence.

Children learn to communicate with others from when they are babies. They need people around them who listen and respond when they cry, smile, laugh or make sounds. Take time to listen to young children. Show that you are interested in what they are doing and saying. Try to make a special time each day to talk to the child about what he/she has been doing. Listen to him/her and help him/her remember and describe what has happened. This will make him/her feel special and you can teach him/her new words.

Many children experience violence or grief and need help to cope with the way they feel about this. Children need to be able to talk to someone they trust and who will listen carefully to them. If children find it difficult to talk about what has happened, encourage them to draw how they feel. Watch them when they play imaginary games and learn more about what is worrying them.

8.5.2 Children should be helped to become strong.

Children need love and families should show unconditional love to young children. Children need to know that they will be loved no matter what they do. Families protect children and show them the best way to behave. Families who respect others show children how to respect themselves as well as other people.

Children need hope and it is important for children to believe that things will be all right. They need to believe that there are people they can trust and who want the best for them.

8.5.3 Children should be helped to become independent and confident.

Families help young children to learn how to do things for themselves. They show him/her and let him/her practice what he/she has learnt. He/she is praised when he/she does something right and when he/she finds him/her own way of doing something.

For more information see Appendix A: The Development of Young Children

PART THREE

APPENDIX A:

The Development of Young Children

Development in young children is holistic and includes social, emotional, physical and intellectual development. It is not easy to separate the different areas of development in young children and most play activities cover two or more areas of development.

Social development

Babies and very young children are self-centred, they see themselves as the centre of their world. As they grow older, they must be supported to share and be considerate towards others.

Children learn how to handle conflict and other social behaviours by watching adults. If the adults around them act with dignity and kindness, the children will learn from this.

Children accept limits to their behaviour if reasons are given for these, if they understand why they should not do certain things. Adults play an important role here and must set reasonable limits, based on what the child can understand and cope with.

Children learn to respect themselves and one another if they see adults behaving respectfully towards everyone. It is important to build respect for all people, their spiritual beliefs, colour, gender and physical attributes.

Emotional development

As they develop emotionally, children learn to name and understand their feelings. They develop a self-image based mostly on what others around them say and how they act towards the child. Many children have to learn how to deal with grief, fear and anxiety as they face death of family members and others close to them. Children need to be able to develop resilience by saying, "I can" (naming the things they can do), "I have" (knowing that there are people around who can help) and "I am" (being sure of their own strengths).

Physical development

Children need to exercise their large muscles so that they learn to move easily and with confidence. Control and co-ordination of their bodies comes from being encouraged to run, climb, jump, hop, balance etc. The control of small muscles comes when children are given the opportunity to hold and play with things, make marks on paper and turn pages of books.

Young children need guidance on how to keep their bodies safe and healthy. This can include activities on eating sensibly, and looking after teeth and hair.

Intellectual development

The foundation for intellectual development is laid through play. As children explore their world they discover what works and how, shapes, colours, textures etc. As they play they gain knowledge, learn how to reason and use information. Children show creativity when they sing, dance, draw, paint etc and when they work out problems for themselves.

The following is divided into ages rather than stages. If a child is not doing something by a certain age, practitioners should watch him/her carefully and assess his/her development, remembering that not all children move through stages at the same rate. If there is a big delay in development, it will be important to talk to the family and advise them to go to the clinic with the child.

Babies (0-18 months)

Babies usually become attached to one person so it is important that they have one adult who cares for them most of the time. Babies need love and affection and enjoy being cuddled and carried around.

Babies need to play, explore and move around. They begin by exploring their own bodies and then move to the person or things that are nearest to them. They need to see interesting things that are colourful and move like mobiles, trees or other children. They need a safe space where they can move their arms and legs and then practise rolling and turning. They will then need safe, clean surfaces to practise crawling, standing and walking.

Babies want to communicate and need others around them who will listen, talk, sing and laugh with them. Babies enjoy looking at brightly coloured pictures in books and talking about them.

Activities during the day must be changed to suit each baby. Babies should eat, sleep and play at times that suit them.

Suitable activities to be carried out daily include peeping games and the handling of colourful toys and books, as well as movements such as rolling over, standing up and beginning to walk while holding onto equipment and furniture. It is important to allow time for cuddling and affection.

Toddlers (18-36 months)

Toddlers are very mobile and need a safe space to move around in. Physical development is fast and most toddlers learn to climb, carry things, walk up stairs, run, kick balls, jump and walk on tiptoe before they are three years old.

They are very curious and want to explore everything they see. Play becomes more complicated as toddlers use their imagination and growing communication skills more. Toddlers imitate and act out what they see around them. This helps them name and understand different feelings and thoughts. Activities should include creative activities, problem solving opportunities, games using the imagination and language.

Toddlers should be given books to look at and time for story telling and reading. Their language develops quickly if they are listened to and encouraged to talk and learn new words and ways of expressing themselves.

Toddlers enjoy a routine and look forward to different activities that happen at set times in the day. Meals can be provided at set times but snacks should be available if a toddler becomes very hungry or thirsty.

Depending on the child's stage of development, time should also be allowed for toilet training and assistance in the use of the toilet.

Rest or sleeping times may be determined according to need, but there can be a fixed time for rest or quiet play during the day.

Children (3 - 4 years)

Children learn wherever they are and at this age have already learnt a great deal.

There must be a wide variety of activities. Children this age can play with more advanced apparatus, for example, more complicated puzzles and building blocks. Activities such as drawing, painting, singing, learning rhymes and listening to stories should be provided. Provision should also be made, for example, for a variety of fantasy games, a book area, and a display of natural and other interesting items.

There is a place for routines in the day. Meals and rest can take place at set times in the day. Children

this age are now able to follow a toilet routine. Arrivals and departures should be noted so that children feel they are important.

Reception Year (Grade R) 4 - 5 year olds

Children of this age have had thousands of experiences and learnt from these. Practitioners must start where children are in their development, decide what they should achieve and support them to achieve these outcomes.

The Reception Year is part of the Foundation Phase in the General Education and Training Band on the National Qualifications Framework (NQF). The Department of Education has developed a curriculum framework, Curriculum 2005, and anyone offering a Reception Year programme (Grade R) should use this as their guideline.

Activities should help children discover new knowledge and learn new skills as well as attitudes. Plans for the day should support the holistic development of the child. Children make sense of their world, classify and organise what they experience and use this information to guess what might happen next. At this age, children have developed communication, social, physical and problem solving skills and need to try them out in different situations. Attitudes express values practitioners are encouraging children to develop such as tolerance, respect and independence.

Language forms the basis for development. Communication between adults and children is very important. Children learn to listen, talk, ask questions, guess, tell stories and learn new words. This helps them as they learn more about science, technology and mathematics as well as preparing for becoming literate.

APPENDIX B:

CHILDREN'S RIGHTS

The following has been taken from "The State of the World's Children 2001, UNICEF: Section 28"

Very young children (0 - 3 years)

- Protection from physical danger;
- Adequate nutrition and health care;
- Appropriate immunisations;
- An adult with whom to form an attachment.
- An adult who can understand and respond to their signals.
- Things to look at, touch, hear, smell, taste.
- Opportunities to explore their world.
- Appropriate language stimulation;
- Support in acquiring new motor, language and thinking skills;
- A chance to develop some independence;
- Help in learning how to control their own behaviour;
- Opportunities to begin to learn to care for themselves;
- Daily opportunities to play with a variety of objects.

Pre-school aged children, all of the above, plus:

- Opportunities to develop fine motor skills;
- Encouragement of language through talking, being read to, singing;
- Activities that will develop a sense of mastery;
- Experimentation with pre-writing and pre-reading skills;
- Hands-on exploration for learning through action;
- Opportunities for taking responsibility and making choices;
- Encouragement to develop self-control, cooperation and persistence in completing projects;
- Support for their sense of self worth;
- Opportunities for self-expression;
- Encouragement of creativity.

Children in the early primary grades, all of the above, plus

- Support in acquiring additional motor, language and thinking skills;
- Additional opportunities to develop independence;
- Opportunities to become self-reliant in their personal care;
- Opportunities to develop a wide variety of skills;
- Support for the further development of language through talking, reading, and singing;
- Activities that will further develop a sense of mastery of a variety of skills and concepts;
- Opportunities to learn cooperation and to help others;
- Hands-on manipulation of objects that support learning;
- Support in the development of self-control and persistence in completing projects;
- Support for their pride in their accomplishments;
- Motivation for and reinforcement of academic achievement.

APPENDIX C:

NQF LEVELS 1 AND 4 ECD QUALIFICATIONS

The minimum qualification of ECD practitioners is the Basic Certificate in ECD at NQF Level 1 of the South African Qualifications Authority. This qualification entails basic knowledge and skills about child development from birth to nine years. The practitioner must at this level demonstrate how to facilitate growth and skills development in early childhood development programmes.

The practitioner should therefore meet the following exit level outcomes:

- Set up and manage a variety of active learning activities that are appropriate to the development needs of young children.
- Interact and communicate with young children in a way that supports all aspects of learning.
- Use an inclusive anti-bias approach that respects the cultural, religious and experiential background of the children and supports children with disabilities.
- Maintain a safe and healthy learning environment.
- Establish a supportive and caring environment that meets children's basic and social needs and helps them manage their own behaviour.
- Establish respectful and co-operative relationships with co-workers families and community.
- Contribute to programme planning and evaluation, the assessment of children's progress and administration of the learning programme.
- Identify and maintain standards of childhood care and educational practice and personal development.

Appropriate Work Experience

An early childhood practitioner must be adequately supervised especially during the first three years of working with young children in an informal or formal ECD site. Documented proof of this experience must be available.

ECD site supervisors/heads should have a minimum qualification of the National Certificate in ECD at NQF Level 4 of the South African Qualifications Authority. They should have a general understanding of early childhood development from birth to nine years. ECD programme supervisors should demonstrate a theoretical and practical knowledge and experience in managing ECD sites. They should have management skills that enable them to tackle the various daily responsibilities at a site, as well as communicate, liaise and meet the needs of all the stakeholders at an ECD site.

The following are the ECD site supervisor's exit level outcomes:

- Provide a wide variety of developmentally appropriate learning activities that support and extend learning.
- A range of skills and techniques to mediate children's learning on an individual basis in small and large groups.
- Demonstrate inclusive and anti-bias attitudes, values and practices in all aspects of the learning programme.
- Protect the safety of the children and adults and support good health practices.
- Support each child's emotional and social development in ways that help them learn to manage their own behaviour.
- Establish positive and supportive relationships with co-workers, families and community.
- Manage a well-run, purposeful learning programme responsive to children's interests and development.
- Demonstrate commitment to the development of high quality ECD services.

Appropriate Work Experience:

An ECD site supervisor must have a minimum of three years experience of working in the ECD field.

APPENDIX D:

UNIVERSAL PRECAUTIONS IN THE CHILD CARE SETTING

Childcare providers are responsible for ensuring a safe environment for the normal healthy development of children in their care. To protect children, universal precautions need to be taken to ensure the well being of the children.

The Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) is a serious infection but can be prevented. In the childcare setting, blood is the most likely cause of the spread of HIV. Remember we cannot tell who is infected by a virus and who is not. Protective measures must therefore focus on preventing exposure to blood.

Hepatitis B Virus (HBV) is also a serious infection but can be prevented by washing hands and keeping toilets clean.

The HBV or HIV infected child or staff member is not a risk of infection to others in the childcare setting when universal precautions are followed.

Universal precautions are the careful measures that help prevent the spread of all diseases if all blood, as well as other body fluids, are treated as if infected.

- **Management Practices and Protective Measures:**

Always practise universal precautions. **Treat all blood or body fluids containing blood as infected with HIV or HBV.**

Hand washing: Thorough hand washing with soap and water is the simplest most effective precaution and should be done by caregivers and children.

Intact healthy skin is the best defence against infection. Open sores, skin lesions and broken skin must be covered with waterproof dressings until healed.

Care givers must use latex gloves or plastics packets to cover hands when contact with blood is a possibility, e.g. dealing with bleeding injuries, open sores, skin lesions, broken skin, cleaning up blood spills or handling of blood soiled items.

Gloves, plastic packets and absorbent paper should be kept in particular areas of the facility so that they are easily accessible when required, but out of reach of children.

Children from a very young age must be taught never to touch other people's blood or body fluids. Children should be trained to manage their own bleeding e.g. nosebleeds and minor cuts and grazes.

Attendance Registers and Incident Books must be accurately maintained.

- **Infection Control Measures are applied to prevent the spread of infections, diseases and conditions viz. Diarrhoea, nits and lice.**

Bleeding:

Bleeding needs immediate attention

Apply pressure to the wound avoiding direct contact with blood. (When possible, the injured child should apply pressure to her own wound).

Caregivers must use gloves or plastic packets as a barrier against blood.

Do not move the injured person, until the bleeding is controlled. (This is to keep the blood spill in one area).

In cases of grazes and small cuts, hold briefly under running water: clean with cotton wool and disinfectant, dry and cover with waterproof dressing.

Hands must be **washed immediately** after any contact with blood.

Hands must always be washed after gloves are removed. **GLOVES DO NOT SERVE AS A SUBSTITUTE FOR HAND WASHING.**

If blood splashes onto mucous membranes (eyes, nose, mouth), flush immediately with **running water for at least three minutes**

Blood Spill:

Children must be separated from the person bleeding and from blood spills.

Gloves or plastic packets must be worn when cleaning up the blood spills to prevent skin/blood contact.

Spilt blood must be soaked up with absorbent material e.g. paper, dry soil or sawdust.

Used paper, dry soil or sawdust and used gloves must be carefully placed in double plastic bags, tied securely and thrown away into the rubbish bin. Wash hands immediately afterwards.

The blood stained area must be sprayed with a disinfectant solution (household bleach one part to nine parts of water which is made up daily) and followed with normal cleaning.

Bloodstained Items:

Gloves or plastic packets must be worn when handling bloodstained items such as clothing, linen, carpets etc.

Remove as much of the blood as possible using absorbent paper or tissues.

Rinse or mop with cold water to remove the bloodstain. Clean the mop using the disinfectant solution and dry in the sun.

Place clothing or linen into a plastic bag and return to child's home for washing.

Carpets can be sponged with hot soapy water, rinsed and allowed to dry in the sun if possible.

All disposable cleaning material (e.g. paper, tissue) and gloves to be placed in double plastic bag, tied securely and thrown into the bin. Wash hands immediately afterwards.

Used sanitary towels must be placed in double plastic bags, tied securely and disposed into a lidded refuse bin for collection.

PREVENTING POISONING

Every year, thousands of children swallow dangerous things. These include medicines and tablets, sedatives, household products, garden and garage products. Hundreds of children are admitted to hospitals for treatment after swallowing poisonous substances. Some die as a result, others are left with permanent damage.

Remember that the young child:

- Explores with his/her mouth;
- Is unable to distinguish between odours;
- Will swallow even bad-tasting substances.

Children under four years of age are the ones most exposed to danger.

• *Storage of medicine*

Most important: Lock up all medicines and potentially dangerous household products. Even a high shelf is not safe. Do not forget that children are curious and persistent. And they can climb. Specially designed childproof cupboards - one for medicine and one for other dangerous substances - are advised. Where possible, the centre should have two such childproof cupboards - one for medicine and one for other dangerous substances.

Always make sure that you replace the lid after having given the child a tablet. Put the container away immediately.

Never store potentially harmful products in soft drink bottles, containers or cups used for food or drink. Children get confused and might drink the contents by mistake.

Keep medicines separate from other products.

Never store cleaning products with food - keep them in a locked cupboard.

You must know which products in the centre are poisonous or dangerous. Attractively packaged products that look harmless and that are used in and around the home can be dangerous when swallowed by a child. Often such products are not labelled as poisonous and contain only the word "Caution" as warning. Remember, small children cannot read warnings.

• *Possible trouble spots*

- **Kitchen**

The following can be dangerous to young children: polishes, bleaching powder, detergents, ammonia, washing powder, insecticides and cleaning agents for drain-pipes. In addition, children should be protected from hot food, boiling liquids and cooking fluids e.g. paraffin.

- **Bathroom Cupboards**

The following can be dangerous to young children: Medicines and tablets, prescribed medicines and almost all other non-prescribed medicines that can be bought "over the counter", e.g. Aspirin, Panado, tonics, iron tablets and home perm kits.

- **Toilet**

The following can be dangerous to young children: Disinfectants, deodorant blocks and toilet cleaners.

- **Other**

The following can be dangerous to young children: Perfumes, nail polish remover, mothballs and insect repellents in strips, sticks, aerosol cans and fluids. All batteries are dangerous to young children. Be especially careful with button-sized batteries used in calculators and digital watches. Small children can easily swallow the button-sized batteries.

- **Garage and garden shed**

The following can be dangerous to young children: petrol, paraffin, brake fluid, battery acid, anti-rust paint, paint thinners, swimming-pool chemicals, weed killers, insecticides, pesticides, rodenticides and fertilisers.

A small child can also accidentally spray products in aerosol cans into his eyes.

- **Poison out of doors**

Some plants, berries and mushrooms are poisonous. Children should be taught never to eat anything from the garden before asking an adult.

- **Preventing hints**

- **Administering medicines**

Make sure you have the correct bottle for the correct child before giving medicine. Do not give medicines in the dark. Using the wrong bottle could have tragic results.

- **Read the label**

Measure the dose carefully with a medicine spoon and give only the quantity prescribed for a child. Never talk a child into taking tablets by telling her that they are "sweets" or "lollies". This makes them dangerously attractive at other times.

- **Do not allow a child to take medicine on her/his own.**

Avoid taking medicines or tablets in a child's presence. Children love imitating adults, especially their parents. Remember, always to put containers away after use.

- **Dispose of unused medicines in this way:**

- Never throw bottles of medicine in the rubbish bin.
- Dispose of unwanted, leftover medicines and pills by returning them to the local pharmacist. If this is not possible, flush them down the toilet, or wash them down the drain or put them in a pit latrine.
- Wash out the empty bottle before putting it in the rubbish bin.

Never allow children to play with medicine containers, empty or full.

Teach the children not to eat or drink from bottles or cans left lying about.

Keep a list of emergency telephone numbers near the telephone or in a safe but accessible place.

Source: *Prevent Poisoning - it's not child's play.* Child Safety Centre, Red Cross War Memorial Children's Hospital, Rondebosch and the Institute of Child Health, University of Cape Town.

Important:

Contact your nearest Poisons Information Centre immediately if you suspect that a child has accidentally swallowed some medicine or a poison. The Red Cross Children's Hospital Poison Hotline can be dialled on (021) 689-5227.

Treat all cases of poisoning as urgent. If you take the child to a doctor, clinic or a hospital, also take along the following: the container, label, prescription, remaining tablets, the substance swallowed, vomited matter or whatever might help the doctor to identify and estimate the amount of poison taken.

APPENDIX E:

SUGGESTED CONTENTS OF A FIRST AID BOX

The first aid box must be clearly marked as such and stored out of the reach of children. Every ECD practitioner must know where the first aid box is stored.

A list of emergency numbers must be placed (stuck) inside the first aid box.

Inside the first aid box must be a list of the contents of the box.

| | |
|--|---|
| 2 pairs Latex Gloves (or a supply of plastic bags) | For incidents involving blood or body fluids |
| 1 pair of household gloves | For cleaning after blood spills |
| A small plastic bowl | To hold water and Savlon while cleaning and washing wounds |
| 50 ml Savlon | For cleaning and washing wounds |
| 100 ml household bleach (to dilute with 10 litres of water) | For blood spills |
| 1 packet gauze swabs (20) | For covering larger wounds and eye injuries |
| 1 packet cotton wool (or a roll of toilet paper) | For cleaning out wounds and covering or compressing wounds |
| Waterproof plasters (20) | For protecting cuts and scraps or other breaks in the skin. Waterproof dressings must be used if a worker works with food or drinks. |
| Safety pins | To secure bandages, dressings and slings |
| Micropore (or cellotape) | For securing a dressing |
| 75 mm bandage (or a long strip of material) | For stopping bleeding, covering wounds, or making a sling |
| One-way resuscitator (or an airway) | To keep airways open |
| Plastic bags | For refuse disposal |
| Scissors | For cutting plasters, bandages and material |
| Tweezers | For extracting splinters and bee stings |
| Tissues | For general absorption of liquids |

Improvised First Aid Box

- 2 litre ice-cream container
- Scrap cotton for dressings
- Scrap cotton for bandages
- Scrap cotton triangular bandages
- Scrap small pieces of material for nose wipes
- Scrap material for face cloths
- Plastic bags to substitute for rubber gloves
- litre container (to make re-hydration drink)
- Cardboard & padding for rigid splints

APPENDIX F:

EXAMPLE OF A MEDICINE ADMINISTRATION CHART

NAME OF CHILD:

NAME OF MEDICINE:

INSTRUCTION OF PARENT OR GUARDIAN: (Frequency, dosage/volume)

SIGNATURE OF PARENT/
GUARDIAN

DATE

DATE

TIME

*SIGNATURE

**SIGNATURE OF STAFF MEMBER WHO ADMINISTERS THE MEDICINE*

APPENDIX G:

CHILDREN AFFECTED AND INFECTED BY HIV AND AIDS

Young children who are infected with HIV and AIDS or whose family members have HIV and AIDS are in particular need of supportive services. The National Strategic Framework for Children Infected and Affected by HIV and AIDS recommends the strengthening of families as an essential element of community based care programmes. Part of this is linking families with child early childhood services. As the prevalence of HIV and AIDS rises, more and more of the children eligible for day care services will be infected with the virus.

In terms of the constitution every child has the right to be treated equally, therefore no one may discriminate against children with HIV or AIDS or those affected by it. Yet, HIV and AIDS are highly stigmatised conditions. Children who are HIV positive, or even children, whose family members are infected with it, have been excluded from attending early childhood centres with others because of negative assumptions and misconceptions associated with the disease. Because of poor knowledge of the disease and its transmission, these children, merely by attending the centre with other children, are seen to be placing other children at risk of infection.

HIV is not transmitted through casual contact. That is why it is very difficult for children of any age to become HIV positive from being in an early childhood centre. (So, the risk of infecting other children cannot be used as a reason to exclude children who are HIV positive from an early childhood centre).

The risk of transmission in an early childhood site environment is in the context of physical injuries involving bleeding and open wounds. Following universal precautions and good hygiene in all circumstances can effectively eliminate transmission.

Early childhood centres must provide for children with HIV and AIDS in their admission policies.

A useful guideline for early childhood centres is the Department of Education's HIV and AIDS national policy for public schools and FET Institutions. The main aim is to prevent discrimination against children infected and affected by HIV and AIDS, increase awareness and prevent the spreading thereof. The policy allows for special measures in respect of learners with HIV and AIDS. If an infected child poses a medically recognised risk to others, appropriate measures should be taken. These risks include untreatable contagious highly communicable diseases, uncontrollable bleeding, unmanageable wounds or physically aggressive behaviour, which might create a risk of HIV transmission. (Copies of the policy are available from The Director Communications, Department of Education, Private Bag X895, Pretoria, 0001; Telephone (012) 312-5271. It can also be found on the internet at **<http://education.pwv.gov.za>**.)

Early childhood centres have an important role to play in life skills education for young children especially about HIV and AIDS. The main aim of this education is to prevent the spread of infection, allay fears about the epidemic, reduce the stigma attached to it and to install positive attitudes towards persons with HIV and AIDS. For young children at this age the focus of education should be on family relationships, issues regarding friends, liking, respecting and caring for and protecting their bodies and treating people who are different from themselves with respect and as equal to themselves. How illness is contracted, what HIV and AIDS are and universal measures concerning the handling of blood should be introduced. Other issues appropriate for young children include taking care at home of someone who is ill and death in the family. At this age, the only sexuality education should be about the prevention of sexual abuse.

Caregivers need training to give guidance and life skills education on HIV and AIDS and to implement universal precautions. They must understand the need for non-discrimination and informed confidentiality if a child is positive so that the child is not discriminated against. They are not allowed to tell each other or other parents about the HIV and AIDS status of children. At least one caregiver in every early childhood centre should have been trained on HIV and AIDS so that she can educate and provide information to colleagues, children, parents and the community if necessary. Bereavement counselling should be part of the training.

APPENDIX H:

GENERAL GUIDELINES FOR NUTRITION

1. Plan menus according to the following basic meal patterns:

Breakfast

Porridge with milk and sugar

Mid-morning snack

Brown bread with margarine

Milk

Midday meal

Protein-rich food or dish, e.g. dry beans, meat, fish, chicken, eggs, cheese; Starchy food, e.g. porridge, samp, maize rice, potato.

Vegetables, preferably dark green or deep yellow in colour, e.g. spinach, green beans, cabbage, carrots, pumpkin. The nutritional value of these vegetables is higher than that of other vegetables. Fruit, if possible, twice a week.

Afternoon snack

Brown bread with margarine

Peanut butter or other spread

Milk to drink

2. Do not discard meat bones or the outer leaves of vegetables but use these in soups or stews.
3. Do not scrape, peel or cut vegetables and potatoes the previous evening and leave them in water. These should all be prepared shortly before they are to be used, as the longer a vegetable (either raw or cooked) is left standing, the more food value is lost. Do not soak vegetables once cut.
4. Always put vegetables to be cooked in a small amount of boiling water; more can be added later, if necessary. Cook until soft and not longer as over cooking diminishes the food value. Any leftover water should be used in soup or gravy.
5. A protein-rich food or body-building food such as dry beans, meat, fish, eggs or cheese, or a combination of these, forms part of the main meal every day, as it is essential for good nutrition. A small amount of fish, meat, chicken, egg or cheese, combined with dry beans or other dry legumes, makes a nutritional adequate dish.

Soya beans have a higher nutritional value than any other dry legume. Products made from soybeans, so-called Textured Vegetable Protein (TVP) products, e.g. "Toppers" and "Sungold", are much cheaper than animal protein and are good value for money. Serve these products at least once or twice a week.

6. Peanut butter on brown bread is a good bodybuilding food. It is preferable if milk is served with the same meal.
7. A meal consisting of vegetable soup with bread or porridge is not adequate unless a bodybuilding food is served at the same time.

- Sufficient protective foods, such as vegetables and fruit, have to be included every day in order to protect children against disease. If fruit is not available, use fresh, raw vegetables, e.g. tomatoes, cabbage, carrots.
- Skim-milk powder is the cheapest form of milk. If funds permit, full-cream, or low-fat (2%) milk should be used. Milk blends, although much cheaper, are not recommended, as these do not have the same nutritional value as milk products. Always look for the “Real Dairy” mark before you buy dairy products.
- Use measuring spoons and cups and/or a scale to measure and weigh ingredients for recipes.

FEEDING OF INFANTS UNDER TWO YEARS OF AGE

If the mother is healthy, breast-feeding is recommended for the general well being of the baby.

If it is not possible to breast-feed the baby, the directions for preparing the artificial (formula) food should be followed very carefully. All bottles must be washed and brushed regularly. Cup feeding should be promoted at all times. If parents prefer that bottles be used, all bottles must be washed and brushed regularly after use.

Do not add salt or sugar to the food.

Parents should be told what their baby has eaten every day.

As babies get older, i.e. from six months onwards they can eat pureed, mashed and semi-solid foods. By eight months, most infants can also eat pieces of food that they can pick up by themselves from the plate. By twelve months, most children can eat the same types of foods as the rest of the family. They should not be given foods that may cause choking (i.e., items that have a shape and/or consistency that may cause them to become lodged in the trachea, such as nuts, grapes, raw carrots).

Babies and toddlers need to be given food when they are hungry. For the average healthy infant, meals should be provided four to five times per day, with additional nutritious snacks (such as a piece of fruit or bread) offered once or twice a day.

Babies and toddlers need to be given a variety of foods, if possible. For example, meat, poultry, fish or eggs should be eaten daily, or as often as possible, as they are rich sources of many nutrients such as iron and zinc. Milk products are a good source of calcium and several other nutrients. If children have a diet that does not contain animal source foods (meat, poultry, fish or eggs, plus milk products), they cannot meet nutrient needs at this age unless fortified products or nutrient supplements are used. Other foods such as soybeans, cabbage, carrots, squash, papaya, green leafy vegetables, guava and pumpkin are useful additional sources of calcium.

Every day children should eat foods that contain Vitamin A e.g. dark coloured fruits and vegetables; Vitamin A fortified oil or foods; Vitamin C rich foods e.g. many fruits, vegetables and potatoes, eaten meals to enhance iron absorption; and foods with Vitamin B vitamins, including liver, egg, dairy products, green leafy vegetables, soybeans, Vitamin B6 e.g. meat, poultry, fish, banana, green leafy vegetables, potato and other tubers, peanuts and folate e.g. legumes, green leafy vegetables, orange juice.

Babies and toddlers should not be given too many drinks of tea, coffee or sugary drinks. Instead, they should be given clean, safe water when they are thirsty.

APPENDIX I:

CHILD PROTECTION

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ECD AND THE PROTOCOL DEVELOPMENT IN CHILD PROTECTION SERVICES

The family is the basic unit of society and children need to grow up in nurturing and secure families to ensure their survival, development and protection. A healthy family provides the child with a sense of belonging, imparts values and life-skills, creates a sense of security, provides a spiritual foundation and instills a sense of discipline.

Society should respect and support the efforts of parents and ECD practitioners to nurture and care for children in a family environment and services should be aimed at preserving and strengthening families.

There is always the need for a broad range of services to be available and accessible to children and families in different stages and circumstances. This is why early childhood development services are an essential component of such a range of services.

We also know that child protection is a community problem. No single agency, individual or discipline has all the knowledge, skills or resources to provide the assistance needed by children and their families who are in need of care. Two very important principles are involved here, namely *partnership* and *clarity of roles and boundaries* between all those involved. When these are absent or inadequate, children will fall through gaps, or be torn between the different parts of the system.

Early childhood development services have an important role to play in the recognition and referral of children in difficult circumstances. Early childhood development services are well placed to observe signs of child abuse, or changes in a child's behaviour or the failure to develop.

That is why it is important that staff members be trained in the detection and management of child abuse so that cases can be referred to an appropriate authority. The head of the ECD service or principal should carry the responsibility of liaising with the social services departments and other relevant agencies, such as clinics, regarding cases of child abuse. It is essential for the early childhood development services to develop and follow set procedures for the reporting of suspected abuse. A link must be formed with the Protocols that have been established in all the provinces, so that referrals are made as quickly and smoothly as possible.

Through the daily programme of the ECD services, ECD practitioners have the responsibility to help the children to resist abuse in their own lives and to prepare them for the responsibility of adult life and parenthood.

The community in which the ECD venue is located has a responsibility for the well-being of the children and should remain alert to circumstances in which children may be harmed. The management committee of the ECD service should ensure that awareness programmes and preventive education forms part of the daily activities. This will help to create a climate conducive to reporting any abuse.

It is therefore important that the child protection system should be child-centred and should:

- Recognise children as individuals as well as members of families and communities;
- Give primary attention to their best interest, as reflected in their needs and experiences;
- Provide opportunities for them to be heard in all matters affecting them; and
- Respond to the diversity of their cultural backgrounds and of the circumstances in which they find themselves.

Serious attention to the perspective of the child will lead to a substantial increase in supports of families and a decrease in the inappropriate separation of children from their families.

APPENDIX J:

BASIC CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT

BASIC CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT ACT, 1997: POPULAR SUMMARY

This is a popular summary of the most important sections of the Basic Conditions of Employment Act, 1997. Workers must be able to see a summary at their workplaces in the official languages that are spoken there.

1. WHO IS THIS ACT FOR?

The Act applies to all workers and employers except members of the National Defence Force, National Intelligence Agency, South African Secret Service and unpaid volunteers working for charities.

This Act must be obeyed even if other agreements are different.

2. WORKING TIME

This section does not apply to senior managers (those who can hire, discipline and fire), sales staff who travel and workers who work less than 24 hours a month.

2.1 Ordinary hours of work

- A worker must **NOT** work more than:
- 45 hours in any week;
- Nine hours a day if a worker works five days or less a week; or
- Eight hours a day if a worker works more than five days a week.

2.2 Overtime

If overtime is needed, workers must agree to do it and they may not work more than three hours overtime a day or ten hours overtime a week.

Overtime must be paid at 1,5 times the workers' normal pay or by agreement get paid time off.

More flexibility of working time can be negotiated if there is a collective agreement with a registered trade union. For example, this can allow for more flexible hours for working mother and migrant workers.

A worker may agree to work up to 12 hours in a day and work fewer days in a week. This can help working mothers and migrant workers by having a longer weekend.

A collective agreement may permit the hours of work to be averaged over a period of up to four months. A worker who is bound by such an agreement cannot work more than an average of 45 ordinary hours a week and an average of five hours of overtime a week over the agreed period. A collective agreement for averaging has to be re-negotiated each year.

2.3 Meal breaks and rest periods

A worker must have a meal break of 60 minutes after five hours work. But a written agreement may lower this to 30 minutes and do away with the meal break if the worker works less than six hours a day.

A worker must have a daily rest period of 12 continuous hours and a weekly rest period of 36 continuous hours, which, unless otherwise agreed, must include Sunday.

2.4 Sunday work

A worker who sometimes works on a Sunday must receive double pay. A worker who normally works on a Sunday must be paid at 1,5 times the normal wage. There may be an agreement for paid time off instead of overtime pay.

2.5 Night work

Night work is unhealthy and can lead to accidents. Workers working between 18:00 at night and 06:00 in the morning must receive extra pay or be able to work fewer hours for the same amount of money. Transport must be available but not necessarily provided by the employer.

Workers who usually work between 23:00 and 06:00 in the morning must be told of the health and safety risks. They are entitled to regular medical check-ups, paid for by the employer. They must be moved to a day shift if night work develops into a health problem. All medical examinations must be kept confidential.

2.6 Public holidays

Workers must be paid for any public holiday that falls on a working day. Work on a public holiday is by agreement and paid at double the rate. A public holiday is exchangeable by agreement.

3. LEAVE

3.1 Annual leave

A worker can take up to 21 continuous daysí annual leave or by agreement, one day for every 17 days worked or one hour for every 17 hours worked.

Leave must be taken not later than six months after the end of the leave cycle.

An employer can only pay a worker instead of giving leave if that worker leaves the job.

3.2 Sick leave

A worker can take up to six weeksí paid sick leave during a 36 months cycle. During the first six months a worker can take one dayís paid sick leave for every 26 days worked. An employer may want a medical certificate before paying a worker who is sick for more than two days at a time or more than twice in eight weeks.

3.3 Maternity leave

A pregnant worker can take up to four continuous months of maternity leave. She can start leave any time from four weeks before the expected date of birth, OR on a date a doctor or midwife says is necessary for her health or that of her unborn child. She also may not work for six weeks after the birth of her child unless declared fit to do so by a doctor or midwife.

A pregnant or breastfeeding worker is not allowed to perform work that is dangerous to her or her child.

3.4 Family responsibility leave

Full time workers employed longer than four months can take three days paid family responsibility leave per year on request when the workerís child is born or sick or for the death of the workerís spouse or life partner, parent, adoptive parent, grandparent, child, adopted child, grandchild or sibling. An employer may want proof that this leave was needed.

4. JOB INFORMATION AND PAYMENT

4.1 Job information

Employers must give new workers information about their job and working conditions in writing. This includes a description of any relevant council or sectoral determination and a list of any other related documents.

4.2 Keeping records

Employers must keep a record of at least:

- The worker's name and job;
- Time worked;
- Money paid;
- Date of birth for workers under 18 years old.

4.3 Payment

An employer must pay a worker:

- In South African currency;
- Daily, weekly, fortnightly or monthly;
- In cash, cheque or direct deposit.

4.4 Payslip information

Each payslip must include:

- Employer's name and address;
- Worker's name and job;
- Period of payment;
- Worker's pay;
- Amount and purpose of any deduction made from the pay;
- Actual amount paid to the worker.

If needed to add up the worker's pay, the payslip must also include:

- Ordinary pay rate and overtime pay rate;
- Number of ordinary and overtime hours worked during that period of payment;
- Number of hours worked on a Sunday or public holiday during that period;
- Total number of ordinary and overtime hours worked in the period of averaging, if there is an averaging agreement.

4.5 Approved deductions

An employer may not deduct any money from a worker's pay unless:

- That worker agrees in writing;
- The deduction is required by law or permitted in terms of a law, collective agreement, court order or arbitration award.

4.6 Adding up wages

Wages are based on the number of hours normally worked. Monthly pay is four and 1/3 times the weekly wage.

5. TERMINATION OF EMPLOYMENT

5.1 Notice

A worker or employer must give notice to end an employment contract of not less than:

- One week, if employed for four weeks or less;
 - Two weeks, if employed for more than four weeks but not more than one year;
 - Four weeks, if employed for one year or more.
- Notice must be in writing except from a worker who cannot write.

Workers who stay in employer's accommodation must be given one month's notice of termination of the contract or be given alternative accommodation until the contract is lawfully terminated.

An employer giving notice does not stop a worker from challenging the dismissal in terms of the Labour Relations Act or any other law.

5.2 Severance pay

An employer must pay a worker who is dismissed due to the employer's operational requirement pay equal to at least one week's severance pay for every year of continuous with that employer.

5.3 Certificate of service

When a job ends, a worker must be given a certificate of service.

6. CHILD LABOUR AND FORCED LABOUR

It is against the law to employ a child under 15 years old.

Children under 18 may not do dangerous work or work meant for an adult.

It is against the law to force someone to work.

7. VARIATION OF BASIC CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT

7.1 Bargaining Council

A collective agreement concluded by a bargaining council can be different from this law, as long it does not:

- Lower protection of workers in terms of health and safety and family responsibilities;
- Lower annual leave to less than two weeks;
- Lower maternity leave in any way;
- Lower sick leave in any way;
- Lower protection of night workers;
- Allow for any child labour or forced labour.

7.2 Other agreements

Collective agreements and individual agreements must follow the Act.

7.3 The Minister

The Minister of Labour may make a determination to vary or exclude a basic condition of employment. An employer or employer organisation can also do this on application.

8. SECTORAL DETERMINATIONS

Sectoral determinations may be made to establish basic conditions for workers in a sector and area.

9. EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS COMMISSION

This Act makes provision for the Employment Conditions Commission to advise the Minister of Labour.

10. MONITORING, ENFORCEMENT AND LEGAL PROCEEDINGS

Labour inspectors must advise workers and employers on their labour rights and obligations. They inspect, investigate complaints, question people and inspect, copy and remove records.

An inspector may serve a compliance order to a compliance order by writing to the Director General of the Department of Labour, who will then look at the facts and agree, change or cancel the order.

This decision can be challenged in the Labour Court.

Workers may not be treated unfairly for demanding their rights in terms of this Act.

11. GENERAL

It is a crime to:

- Hinder, block or try to wrongly influence a labour inspector or any other person obeying this Act;
- Obtain or try to obtain a document by stealing, lying or showing a false or forged document;
- Pretend to be a labour inspector or any other person obeying this Act;
- Refuse or fail to answer fully any lawful question asked by a labour inspector or any other person obeying this Act;
- Refuse or fail to obey a labour inspector or any other person obeying this Act.

APPENDIX K:

RIGHTS OF CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES

The assumption is that one can generalise on all children's rights. Discrimination may be direct or indirect and as a means to educate society on disability issues, it is important to state these rights separately.

Children with disabilities:

- Have a right to inclusion, integration and mainstream facilities and services;
- Have a right to a normal environment;
- Have a right to all other benefits enjoyed by their non-disabled counterparts and siblings;
- Have a right to family, social and community life;
- Have a right to sports and recreation;
- Have a right to an accessible environment;
- Have a right to develop independence and self-reliance;
- Have rights to special needs and attention;
- Have a right to be different;
- Children who are deaf have a right to sign language;
- Have rights to devices that assist them when they need them;
- Have a right to appropriate active learning that is suitable for their abilities without them being isolated.

SPECIMEN INCIDENT REPORT FORM

(Complete in triplicate)

One copy to parent
One copy to child's file
One copy to the accident file

Name of the child _____ Date of the incident _____

Description of accident / injury / incident _____

Where did it occur? _____

When did it occur? _____

Who witnessed the accident / injury / incident? _____

What injuries or symptoms resulted (describe part of the body)? _____

Was any blood present? _____ How much blood? _____

Where was the blood? _____

What was done for the child (first aid treatment)? _____

Is any further medical attention required? _____

When was the parent notified? _____

When did the parent collect the child? _____

What advice was given to the parent? _____

Who was in charge when the incident occurred? _____

What measures are necessary to prevent such an incident in the future? _____

Signature and date of staff member _____

Signature and date of parent _____

APPENDIX M

THE QUALITY ASSURANCE REVIEW

In terms of the Child Care Act No 74 of 1983 with the integration of amendments as on 1 January 2000, the Director-General or a person authorised by him or her shall at all times be entitled to evaluate the place of care, its books, documents and registers and its developmental programmes, and to examine the health, nutrition and general well-being of the children in the place of care. (From Regulation 3 substituted by GN 416 of March 1998)

The quality assurance review is important as it helps improve the way the centre is run.

- Good practice must be noted and praise given where appropriate.
- Where there are improvements to be made, these should be discussed with the responsible staff member and guidance offered so that changes can be made.
- Where there are unacceptable practices, these must also be discussed and agreement reached on changes to be made immediately to ensure the safety and well being of the children at the centre.

The three-point quality assurance scale

The evaluation takes place according to a scale under the following three headings:

- Not acceptable;
- Acceptable with a few adaptations;
- Acceptable.

The top of the scale, i.e. acceptable is the level to be aimed at for registration according to the minimum requirements.

The following is an example of a quality assurance report.

QUALITY ASSURANCE REPORT

Name of Department of Social Development official:

Date of visit:

CENTRE DETAILS

Name of ECD Centre:

Date opened:

Postal Address:

Physical Address:

Telephone number (if available):

Hours of opening:

STAFF

Supervisor:

ECD Qualifications:

Other relevant qualifications:

Number of other practitioners:

ECD Qualifications of practitioners:

Other relevant qualifications:

Number of other staff:

Kitchen workers:

Gardeners:

Caretakers/security:

Cleaners:

Other (specify):

CHILDREN

Number of children registered: _____

Number of children present on day of review: _____

| Age | Girls | Boys | Total |
|-------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|
| 0 - 2 years | | | |
| 2 - 3 years | | | |
| 3 - 5 years | | | |
| TOTAL | | | |

MANAGEMENT

Admission / Registration forms available: Yes/No

Are the Admission / Registration forms up to date? Yes/No

Are there job descriptions for all staff? Yes / No

Is there a Staff Development Plan? Yes/No

Menus Yes/No

Admission policy Yes/No

Admission policy of HIV/AIDS infected and affected children Yes/No

Admission policy of children with disabilities Yes/No

Other policies: Specify _____

Outings procedure: _____

Complaints procedure: _____

Emergency plan: _____

First Aid kit: _____

Attendance Register: _____

Accident register: _____

Abuse register: _____

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