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Integrated social and economic development in South Africa: a social welfare perspective

Antoinette LOMBARD ¹

Abstract: Since the dawn of democracy in 1994, South Africa has made significant progress in breaking from decades of colonialism, apartheid and inequality. In the face of continuing high levels of poverty and unemployment, and low levels of education, many South Africans remain socially and economically excluded. In its striving to be a developmental state, South Africa should strike a balance in its macroeconomic policy between economic growth and promoting human-centred development. The adoption of the White Paper for Social Welfare in 1997 mandated the social welfare sector's role in social development. It paved the way for social work to utilise social investment intervention strategies to effect social change through integrated social and economic development. It is concluded that evidence-based research on the effectiveness of social investment interventions is vital for social work to obtain recognition as social partner in development.

Keywords: Social development. Economic development. Social welfare. Development state. South Africa.

Resumo: Desde o surgimento da democracia em 1994, a África do Sul tem progredido de maneira significativa na ruptura com o colonialismo, o apartheid e a desigualdade. Diante dos contínuos altos níveis de pobreza e desemprego, e baixos níveis de educação, muitos sul-africanos permanecem excluídos social e economicamente. Em sua luta para ser um Estado desenvolvimentista, a África do Sul deveria encontrar um equilíbrio em sua política macroeconômica entre o crescimento econômico e a promoção do desenvolvimento centrado no ser humano. A adoção do Livro Branco para o Sistema Social em 1997 demandou o papel do setor de Assistência Social no desenvolvimento social. Essa adoção preparou o caminho para a assistência social utilizar estratégias de intervenção de investimento social para realizar a mudança social através do desenvolvimento integrado social e econômico. Concluiu-se que a investigação com base na eficácia das intervenções de investimento social é vital para que o serviço social obtenha reconhecimento como um parceiro social em desenvolvimento.

Palavras-chave: Desenvolvimento social. Desenvolvimento econômico. Bem-estar social. Estado de desenvolvimento. África do Sul.

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Introduction

Since the advent of democracy in 1994, South Africa has made significant progress in breaking from decades of colonialism, apartheid and inequality (DEPARTMENT OF ENVIRONMENTAL AFFAIRS AND TOURISM, 2008), and in doing so it provided the world with a model of how deeply divided societies can move forward (RSA, 2011a). Statutory racism has been replaced with a human rights-orientated constitutional and legal order (DEPARTMENT OF ENVIRONMENTAL AFFAIRS AND TOURISM, 2008).

South Africa has come a long way in transforming and uniting the country since 1994 (AKOOJEE, GEWER & MCGRATH, 2005); however, the process of transformation is far from complete and South Africa remains a divided society (RSA, 2011a). Continued social and economic exclusion of millions of South Africans is reflected in high levels of poverty, inequality in income and access to opportunity, which constrains human development and economic progress, particularly when it comes to education and employment (RSA, 2011a). The political transition is “yet to translate into a better life” (RSA, 2011a, p. 8), which pertains to social and economic transformation.

The State President declared 2011 to be “a year of job creation through meaningful economic transformation and inclusive growth” (RSA, 2011b, p. 5). However, unemployment and poverty are both

social issues and economic phenomena (THIN, 2002). Whilst “economic growth is an essential way to tackle poverty and inequality, ... the quality of that growth matters as much as the quantity” (GREEN, 2008, p. 189). Economic growth in itself is thus no guarantee that poverty will be eradicated (HALL & MIDGLEY, 2004). What is needed is a development path where “we must all be prepared to do things differently ... find an agreed way forward – a path in which inequality and narrow self-interest give way to a longer-term, inclusive, broad-based development path” (RSA, 2010a, p. 2).

It will be argued in this paper that the social welfare sector, and social work in particular, is an important social partner in this development path of facilitating social change through integrated socio-economic development. The paper will first briefly present the current socio-economic context in South Africa. This will be followed by an overview of the developmental policy framework for South Africa, and its problems and challenges in achieving socio-economic development. The next discussion will contextualise social welfare’s developmental mandate and will explain how developmental social work justifies being recognised for its role in socio-economic development. An analysis of a not-for-profit organisation will be utilised as a case study to illustrate developmental social work in tangible practical terms. Finally, conclusions will be drawn regarding the role of the social welfare sector in promoting social and economic

transformation and development in South Africa.

Socio-economic development context

South Africa is an upper middle-income country by virtue of the average national income per person, or GDP per capita; however, this status conceals high rates of unemployment anchored by widespread poverty, as well as extreme inequality in income and access to opportunity (RSA, 2011a). Whilst South Africa has a growing economy and systematically increasing fiscal expenditures to address poverty and development (DEPARTMENT OF ENVIRONMENTAL AFFAIRS AND TOURISM, 2008), the economy has failed to create jobs at the pace necessary to reduce extremely high unemployment, and the education system has failed to ensure that equalised public spending on schooling translates into improved education for poor black children.

The National Planning Commission (NPC) released a report on 9 June 2011 (RSA, 2011a) providing the most updated Diagnostic Overview of the main challenges confronting the country, which will be briefly presented in this section:

Only 41 percent of the working-age population is working and about two thirds of all unemployed are below the age of 35. Young people are poorly prepared for further training and work. In view of the North African governments,

[...] one must acknowledge the millions of youth who are courageously going against the grain by breaking down social and political barriers. In SA conservative estimates tell us that more than half of South Africans under the age of 25 are unemployed. I do believe it would be foolish for South African leaders to think that these unemployed and disconnected youth may not one day ignite a revolution (NAIDOO, 2011, p. 1).

Given South African history, the influence of the youth should be respected.

Although access to services (such as electricity, sanitation and water) has improved substantially since 1994, challenges still exist in the delivery of basic services, particularly in the poorest communities (DEPARTMENT OF ENVIRONMENTAL AFFAIRS AND TOURISM, 2008, p. 7).

While race is still the key dividing line, issues such as gender and locality are also important factors that explain differences in opportunity, compounded by inequality. The upper end of the income spectrum, poor-quality education and high youth unemployment inhibit the broadening of opportunity necessary to reduce inequality and heal the divisions of the past. The distribution of income to the richest and poorest sections of society did not change significantly between 1995 and 2005. The proportion of Africans in the top 20 percent of income earners increased from 39 percent in 1995 to 48 percent in 2009 (RSA, 2011a). Inequality within the African population has increased sharply. Poverty rates among female-headed households are

higher than the average, and women continue to earn less than men even though differences in years of education have been narrowed.

Since 1994 access to and participation in education has increased to an overall gross enrolment ratio of 92 (RSA, 2011a). Education is compulsory up to the age of 15 years. Public schools cater for over 96 percent of all learners. The gross enrolment ratio for the secondary phase shows that many learners drop out before completing grade 12 (RSA, 2011a). The quality of early childhood education and care for poor black communities is inadequate and generally very poor. Low literacy levels among parents, poor nutrition, violence and social fragmentation are factors that explain why the performance of school children from poor communities remains low relative to their wealthier peers.

The overall health picture for South Africa is one of a country going through a devastating set of epidemics, contributing to the increase in deaths being as large as the number of deaths at the baseline just ten years earlier (RSA, 2011a). The rise in total deaths, the low life expectancy and the high infant mortality rate are all evidence of a health system in distress. SA has 0.6 of the world's population, 17 percent of the world's HIV infections and 11 percent of the world's tuberculosis cases. Infant and maternal mortality rates (43 per 1 000 live births and 625 per 100 000 live births, respectively) are extremely high, and higher than in other middle income

countries (RSA, 2011a). The evolution of HIV has completely changed the nature of the disease burden in SA, especially in the past decade. There has been a dramatic increase in Aids-related deaths among young adults, which is more marked for young women than for men. Another plight is the incidence of foetal alcohol syndrome, for which South Africa has the highest rate in the world.

South Africa has vibrant gender activist organisations and a lively women's ministry, as well as legislation for employment equity. Successes for 2010 reflect 44 percent representation of women in the legislature and 43 percent in Cabinet, while at local government level women fill 40 percent of elected positions (RSA, 2011a). However, patriarchal practices still impact negatively on the participation, citizenship and voice of women. Women still earn less than men, on average, and only 18 percent of managers are women (RSA, 2011a). Women are expected to carry out their productive and reproductive roles (child care, caring for the sick, fetching water and fuel), thus reducing the possibility of their engaging adequately with the broader economy. Violence against women is rife and the rate of sexual offences is extraordinarily high by international standards, with poor conviction rates for such offences.

Although the purpose of the NPC Report was not to reach consensus on South Africa's principal national challenges, the analysis points to the glaring need for skills development, which points to education and employment as being the

most pressing challenges facing the country, followed by healthcare and access to services (RSA, 2011a). Education remains central to freedom of all kinds in South Africa (RSA, 2011c).

All of the abovementioned socio-economic problems are closely interlinked and deeply rooted in South Africa's extended colonial and apartheid history. Hence, a proper diagnosis of the true nature and root causes of these problems is a precondition for any attempt to solve them or to ameliorate their negative and humiliating effects (TERREBLANCHE, 2002). It is acknowledged that to resolve these divisions will take time, trust and a careful balance between healing the divisions of the past and broadening economic opportunities to all people, particularly black people (RSA, 2011a).

Developmental policy framework for South Africa

The South African Constitution (Act 108 of 1996), with its enshrined human rights bill, is considered the supreme law of South Africa and provides an overall framework for the right to a healthy environment for future generations, and the right to socio-economic development

Being a signatory to the Millennium Declaration, South Africa is committed to the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and has embraced them in a national set of ten priorities (RSA, 2010b). In mid-2005 the ANC, at its National General Council, committed itself to con-

structing a developmental state (ANC, 2005, in EDIGHEJI, 2010). This commitment is relevant for integrated socio-economic development because it implies that the government recognises its intervention role in addressing the developmental challenges facing the country – including growing the economy and reducing the high rates of poverty, inequality and unemployment (EDIGHEJI, 2010).

Despite its being a controversial topic, Edigheji (2010, p. 2) argues that there is sufficient evidence to uphold the link between democracy and a developmental state. Fakir (ELECTORAL COMMISSION OF SOUTH AFRICA, 2008, p. 21) points to the synergy and the nexus between the two:

While a developmental state deals with issues of service delivery, capacity of the state and its management, a democratic state deals with issues of participation, rights and 'voice' and it promotes inclusivity. A combination of the two will do well for the wellbeing of the society". However, in view of the underlying challenges, it is a concern that much of the debate around the developmental state in South Africa is that it is seen as a 'panacea for the country's social, economic and institutional problems' (EDIGHEJI, 2010, p.3).

The real challenge of truly being a developmental state lies in designing the requisite institutions, and in formulating and implementing policies that will enable it to achieve its developmental goals (EDIGHEJI, 2010). This will be hard to achieve in South Africa in view of the current absence of a common national

vision or strategy for achieving sustainable development (DEPARTMENT OF ENVIRONMENTAL AFFAIRS AND TOURISM, 2008; RSA, 2011a).

The first pitfall is the tendency among policy-makers to proclaim South Africa as a developmental state (EDIGHEJI, 2010) while it is still progressing towards this state. This claim is being made “before undertaking the hard tasks of designing and strengthening developmental institutions and formulating and implementing policies that will enable it to achieve its developmentalist goals” (EDIGHEJI, 2010, p. 15).

Within the context of striving to be a developmental state, the macroeconomic policy remains a challenge for government. The eradication of poverty requires sound macroeconomic policies aimed at creating employment opportunities, as well as equal and universal access to economic opportunities, education and training, which will promote sustainable livelihoods through freely chosen productive employment and work; and basic social services, including health facilities (UNITED NATIONS, n.d).

There have been tensions regarding how to balance competing interests so as to ensure economic policies that are sensitive to the interests of both investors and the majority of South Africans (EDIGHEJI, 2010). By 2003, it was becoming increasingly evident in South Africa that whilst the macroeconomic Growth, Employment and Redistribution strategy

(GEAR), adopted in 1997 had borne success in guiding fiscal policy, its neoliberal nature had clearly caused it to fail as a job creation and redistribution strategy (DU TOIT & NEVES, 2007). To fill this gap, the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative (ASGISA) followed in 2007. However, when this still did not achieve the required outcomes, the New Growth Path paved the way with the key recommendation to shift focus from consumption-led to investment-led growth (RSA, 2011a).

A second challenge in becoming a development state is the state’s capacity to adopt appropriate policies. The electricity crises is an exemplar of this (FINE, 2010, in EDIGHEJI, 2010, p. 3). The Dinokeng Group (2009) regards the state’s lack of capacity as a huge challenge to overcome in terms of making an impact on socio-economic transformation and development in South Africa. “Seventeen years after the end of apartheid, the public sector remains chronically unstable” and there is no ‘quick fix’ for deeply-rooted system issues (RSA 2011a, p. 30).

One of the most difficult challenges for South Africa in terms of becoming a developmental state is to find a balance in providing for the right to social assistance and the right to development. Social grants have been the post-1994 democratic government’s priority anti-poverty strategy and, as a result, the most important contributor to falling income poverty from 2000 onwards (RSA, 2011a). Naidoo (2011, p. 1) questions South Africa’s aspiration to be a

developmental state, stating that “with 15 million people living off government hand-outs, it is hard to deny that South Africa is in fact a welfare state”. The sustainability of social grants as a contributor to alleviating poverty is under threat, and the State President himself has indicated the need for exit-level strategies: “Since we are building a development and not a welfare state, the social grants will be linked to economic activity and community development, to enable short-term beneficiaries to become self-supporting in the long run” (RSA, 2011c, p. 3).

If development is mainly measured in terms of economic growth as opposed to promoting human-centred development (EDIGHEJI, 2010), the important role that social policy plays in a developmental state, is ignored. The developmental social welfare approach resonates with the ‘capability approach’, one of the three strands of the theoretical perspective for understanding the developmental state, (EVANS, 2010, in EDIGHEJI, 2010), and is also known as the social development approach to welfare which is associated with capabilities (MIDGLEY & CONLEY, 2010). Sen (2008, p. xiii) refers to a shortage of income as the “classic view” of poverty, and argues that poverty ultimately has to be seen as “unfreedoms” of various kinds, such as the lack of freedom to achieve minimally satisfactory living conditions; the absence of health facilities; the subjugation of women; hazardous environmental features; and the shortage of jobs.

Social welfare and integrated social and economic development

In demonstrating commitment to transformation and the change to a truly democratic society, the social welfare sector adopted a development policy in the form of the White Paper for Social Welfare (RSA, 1997). With the adoption of the developmental approach to social welfare social workers have, in principle, committed themselves to social development, which implies “... promoting people’s welfare in conjunction with a comprehensive process of economic development” (MIDGLEY, 1995, p. 25). Social workers “have recognized that improvements in material welfare are not only the result of economic progress, education, and similar interventions but of wider social and political changes which include advocacy in order to produce peaceful, democratic, egalitarian, and just societies” (MIDGLEY, 2010, p. 17) in a sustainable manner.

Developmental social work is also referred to as social work’s social change function by which it promotes improvements in people’s well-being and in wider social conditions (MIDGLEY, 2010). The 1995 World Summit on Social Development, and the adoption of the Millennium Development goals in 2000, re-invigorated social development. A developmental approach is thus a renewed focus on social work’s commitment to eradicate poverty and social injustice, rather than a new approach. Midgley (1996) concurs that historically, the social work profession has been committed to

eradicating poverty. This is evident in social workers' contribution to settlement work and neighbourhood building, as well as to advocacy and political lobbying, which helped shape social work's social change function (MIDGLEY, 2010). Engelbrecht (2009) and Lombard (2003) assent that social work is at the frontline in working with people confronted with poverty, and thus the vulnerable and at-risk. The developmental approach does not keep people captive as "casualties" (LUND, 2008) but focuses on the structural nature of the unjust society that keeps them in captivity, unable to exercise their rights to freedoms of various kinds. The developmental approach thus restores the inherent multi-functional focus of social work on both micro and macro levels and emphasises its invaluable role in society in socio-economic development. This can also be traced in history when Ministers Responsible for Social Welfare, during a United Nations Conference in New York in 1969, urged that "an appropriate balance between remedial, maintenance, and developmental interventions be found and, in particular, that social welfare services should contribute to national development" (MIDGLEY, 2010, p. 8).

Developmental social work is committed to equality and social justice, and focuses interventions on people's strengths, empowerment and capacity enhancement; however, that in itself is not sufficient to facilitate change that will reflect integrated socio-economic development. As Midgley (2010, p. 15) argues, what is required is concrete investments in the

form of resources and services, which are investments involved in

[...] a cluster of interventions that, for example, mobilize human and social capital, facilitated employment and self-employment, promote asset accumulation, and in other ways bring about significant improvements in the material welfare of individuals, families, and communities (MIDGLEY, 2010, p. 15).

Developmental social workers believe that economic participation is a major source of empowerment (MIDGLEY, 2010, p. 1), and make extensive use of interventions that specifically enhance standards of living, including interventions which are productivist in that they foster economic participation and raise incomes and assets (MIDGLEY, 2010).

Midgley and Conley (2010) outline how social workers can influence human, social, and economic capital development in both a direct and an indirect manner. Indirect influencing of the economy includes empowering and supporting local people in communities to handle problems of racism, discrimination, and exploitation by educating them about these issues; challenging exploitative and oppressive power structures; supporting the expansion of education, nutrition, health, access to medical care, maternal and child health services, and family planning; and providing adequate day care services that not only facilitate the employment of parents, but generate human capital through preschool education, nutrition, and medical services (MIDGLEY AND CONLEY, 2010). Social

workers can contribute to direct community economic development by supporting local people in establishing a variety of economic projects, including cooperative micro-enterprises, savings associations, after-school homework classes, adult literacy classes, day-care centres, job training, and job referral programmes provided by non-profit organisations (MIDGLEY AND CONLEY, 2010).

In the following section, the Model and programmes of a not-for-profit organisation will be utilised as a case study to illustrate developmental social work and its contribution to socio-economic development in tangible practical terms.

Future Families: case study (Future Families Annual Report, 2011)

Future Families is a not-for-profit organisation that displays all the components of integrated social and economic development. Launched in 2010, the organisation renders services to children and families infected with or affected by the HIV/Aids pandemic. Their Orphan and Vulnerable Child Care Model was designed to use the scarce skills of social workers to reach large numbers of children by developing a network of care workers in the community. Each social worker has a team under them comprising social auxiliary workers, team leaders and care workers. The team can reach 2 500 children per month. The care workers are well known in their community and this safety net ensures that children in need have someone to turn to. The success of the 230 staff members is embedded in their being committed,

well trained, and empowered to find solutions with the families, children and communities they serve.

The social work services offered by Future Families strive to comply with the main focus of the organisation, which is to offer care and support to orphans and vulnerable children (OVCs) in their families. To achieve this goal, care workers are trained to reach out to families and OVCs. Specific themed information, which addresses key indicators, is passed on to the families to equip them to create their own future in a more effective ways. All the work is monitored by the social workers with the help of social auxiliary workers and team leaders. The impact of the work is measured through the completion of evaluation forms. This monitoring and evaluation system gives a clear indication of whether all services were rendered and how the family and children benefited from the services, which, in turn, stimulates new care plans to guide the care worker in addressing the needs of each individual family. Supervision services are implemented to support the staff and empower them to deal with their own emotions as well as those of the clients. Programmes include the following:

1. Homework class programmes were started at various schools when social workers identified the need due to parents and guardians struggling or being unable (due to lack of education or because of employment) to assist their children with homework or assignments. The programmes pro-

- vide a meal; assistance with homework and assignments; life skills discussion; and help from community volunteers and students from various faculties at the University of Pretoria with specific areas, including maths, reading, writing skills and group work with themes such as bullying and dealing with loss.
2. The Holiday project includes children between the ages 4 – 18 years. The aim is, amongst others, to offer children the opportunity to build a relationship with their care workers and other OVCs; to keep them safe and off the streets; to involve them in educational programmes (e.g. life skills, preparation for adult life and making the right choices and decisions); to organise educational excursions to the prison and museums; to offer prevention programmes on, for example, HIV/Aids, child abuse and substance abuse; and to provide therapeutic sessions through group work to deal with the loss of loved ones.
 3. The Vhutshilo peer education programme developed by the Harvard School of Public Health and the Center for the Support of Peer Education in South Africa is a 13-session programme on themes such as living with change; communication; responsibilities; decision making; HIV/Aids; self-esteem; and safety. Peer educators, in particular, benefit from the programme, as they are given in-depth training and gain valuable experience when conducting the programme.
 4. The support group under the guidance of the social auxiliary worker targets single mothers from different countries, cultures, and traditions, many of whom are asylum seekers or refugees from countries such as the Democratic Republic of Congo, Burundi, Rwanda, and Ethiopia who have fled the civil war and the destruction of their country to seek asylum in South Africa. A large number of families have witnessed the loss of family members and many households are headed by single parents, in most cases mothers, who have to fend for themselves and their children. The biggest common need amongst these single parent households is for mothers to make ends meet in order to support their families. The aim of the support group for single mothers is to provide them with the opportunity to learn from each other, to provide support to each other, and to talk about and discuss topics that are of interest and value to them as single parents in a foreign country, often with no extended family for support and guidance. Topics discussed include HIV/Aids, the importance of spiritual care and guidance, and the rights and responsibilities of asylum seekers/ refugees in South Africa. The group offers a safe environment for mothers to share the difficulties that they experience in everyday life while at the same time being supportive towards each other. Feedback

from the mothers indicates that day-to-day duties and other tasks such as getting affidavits and renewing asylum papers seem easier to accomplish. Their relationships continue outside the group environment should they need assistance in the form of advice, emotional support, or even food.

5. The Granny programme followed from a needs assessment by the Monitoring and Evaluation manager, who noticed that there are a lot of granny-headed households where the grannies take care of their grandchildren, who are mostly orphans. Granny groups were launched with the aim of equipping the grannies with the necessary skills to raise their grandchildren effectively despite their unique challenges and needs. Topics include physical care of the child; parenting styles; healthy lifestyle (e.g. nutrition and health care); safety; and skills in handling money. Children report that their relationships with their grannies have improved. They trust their grannies and they can share their problems with them. A more open relationship has developed between them and the grannies.
6. The Mamelodi (township) support group reflects a true integration of socio-economic development. It was started at a premises provided by the Ford Motor Company in 2001. The aim was to provide physical and psycho-emotional care to HIV-positive unemployed adult residents of Mam-

elodi. Members of the group were introduced to anti-retroviral treatment, which had a positive effect on their health. An income-generating opportunity in the form of beadwork was initiated. These objectives are still the main focus of the project. In addition, due to the changing needs of the people served because of their improved health, a life-skills/ social skills component has also been introduced, as well as a skills training and employment component. The skills training aims to equip group members to start a small business (e.g. manicuring) with the view to becoming employed. Where possible, they are also assisted in finding employment. Companies that can benefit from the specific skills the people are trained in are informed, and some already recruit possible employees. Members also benefit both directly and indirectly from their attendance by receiving a daily meal, clothing, skills, grocery vouchers, and a small income from beading. The most outstanding reward of this programme, however, is the self-growth and personal strengthening of members in the supportive and safe environment of the group. Membership changes continually, as it is limited to one year. During this time members are assisted with planning for independence, and with individual and group therapy to come to terms with their HIV status and live a positive life. Many members have become staff members, educators, and care workers within the Future Family organi-

sation where they earn a salary (social auxiliary worker and secretary) or a stipend (care workers).

7. The plant propagation nursery programme is a small nursery in operation at the Ford Care Centre. Here three garden assistants grow seedlings on a small scale for a company that supplies farmers with plants for essential oils, and, on a larger scale, grow vegetable seedlings used to supply start-up gardens for OVCs families in Mamelodi. At present 210 gardens have been cultivated. The plant propagation project is managed by an ex-support group member. Future Families have also trained and assisted other organisations to start gardens.
8. The Mothusi (meaning 'helper') HIV/Aids education project aims to educate members of the public about HIV/Aids; the importance of knowing one's status; and living positively with the virus or preventing infection. Three HIV-positive women, all ex-support group members, visit clinics, schools, and businesses all over Tshwane. They present a powerful testimony of their own life and experiences, and have a vast knowledge of HIV which they share. They offer invaluable counselling while visiting the clinics, where people feel safe to speak with them. During 2010 they reached 55 000 people. These women are extremely dedicated to educating and two of them are presently study-

ing to become social auxiliary workers.

The evidence from Future Families speaks for itself in terms of the developmental approach, which is implemented by the Chief Executive Officer, who is herself a social worker, four social workers and 12 social auxiliary workers who have utilised a community-based intervention strategy by employing the remaining 220 staff from communities to implement the Orphans and Vulnerable Children Model to influence human, social, and economic capital development in both a direct and an indirect manner. The organisation implements social work at the frontline, where people are vulnerable and at-risk. A key developmental feature of the model is its participatory nature. The professionals and caregivers are only the facilitators of this process. The participation is also reflected in the Monitoring and Evaluation system where participants of programmes provide feedback on programmes and services. This feedback is, in turn, utilised for improved but sustained programmes. The participation also extends to engaging donors, government, and businesses, not only for the purposes of resources but also for job creation/ employment.

The OVC Model and programmes feature a developmental approach in the focus on promoting human and social rights, and utilising approaches that reflect empowerment, capability, and productivist interventions. The impact on human capital development is visible in building knowledge and skills

through education (children and adults), nutrition, health, and access to medical care. Future Families' human development impact is evident in its human development strategy. With only four professional social workers and 12 auxiliary social workers, they extend their human resource capacity beyond perceived human-made professional boundaries to a cadre of workers from within communities who are empowered to build the capabilities of those in need in order to unleash their unfreedoms. The extent and impact of the workforce demonstrates good governance.

Many members have become staff members, educators, and care workers within the Future Family organisation, where they earn a salary (social auxiliary worker and secretary) or a stipend (care workers).

Social capital development is evident in the building of social cohesion amongst members in programmes, but also in the broader organisation in that service users become employees who share their experiences across communities and with other employees, encouraging personal growth and highlighting the importance of skills development and having a career vision.

Economic capital development is embedded in skills and training which create self-employment or prepare participants for employment, either in the external environment or in the organisation itself. On the health front, by focusing on the health of HIV-infected people; food

production for sustainable livelihoods; preventing infection; and facilitating care in communities, Future Families take the pressure to care for sick people away from the already collapsing South African health system. Protection is not only visible in preventing HIV infection, but also in preventing child abuse and promoting safer families and communities. The focus on the environment emphasises a very important component of sustainable development.

Future Families' programmes are directed at all eight Millennium goals, including a focus or impact on poverty; primary education; women's empowerment; child mortality (as a result of the health intervention and prevention); environmental sustainability; and global partnership for development (donors and awareness of OVC Model).

Future Families follows "[t]he direction of developmental social welfare, [which] hopes to achieve less institutional care and the development of different cadres of people with more broad-based helping and training skills" (LUND, 2008:41). With regard to the focus of developmental social work and the social welfare's perspective on integrated socio-economic development, Future Families demonstrates how social work can maintain a balance between remedial, maintenance, and developmental interventions, and therefore claim the recognition of the sector's contribution to national development.

Conclusion

Social programmes have come a long way since they were accused of consuming scarce public resources (RAHEIM, 1996), and are now recognised as having a social investment function that contributes positively to development (MIDGLEY & CONLEY, 2010). Yet, in government's reference to social welfare services a strong association with social assistance and the profession's residual and maintenance functions remains, as opposed to its developmental function in making a contribution to socio-economic development impacting on a national level.

In the Future Families case study, the contradiction of such a view is clearly evident. Government's perspective can only be changed by social workers themselves. Social workers cannot assume that "professional judgement and expertise is a guarantor of effectiveness" because without evidence it expose the profession to critic that "social welfare programs are wasteful, introduced for political reasons, and have negative unintended consequences" (MIDGLEY, 2010, p. 51). This critique can be counteracted through evidence-based research methodologies, providing data on the effectiveness of social investment interventions in promoting effective practice (MIDGLEY, 2010, p. 51).

It is important that the social welfare sector comment on policies and documents such as the Report of the National Planning Commission (NPC) to ensure that social objectives are included in national

development plans. The NPC, an advisory body of experts, has been appointed by the State President with the brief to release a draft on a long-term development vision statement for 2030 and to recommend a dynamic development plan for Cabinet's consideration in November 2011 (RSA, 2011a). Social work has to assess whether the NPC adheres to committing government to a long-term development plan that will grow the economy, reduce poverty, and improve the quality of life of all South Africans (RSA, 2011a). For South Africa to become a developmental state, its macroeconomic policy needs to serve social objectives, rather than "social transformation being held hostage to macroeconomic policy" and therefore social policy needs to "occupy a prime place as a policy tool in the hands of the state" (EDIGHEJI, 2010, p. 29). As the NPC indicates, if South Africa is able "to reach broad consensus on its principal national challenges, it will stand a better chance of coming up with sensible and achievable solutions" (RSA, 2011a, p. 5).

Although it is of great importance that government builds its own capacity in achieving the status of a developmental state, government build networks with civil society, including the social welfare sector, in its transformative project in improving human welfare and enhancing productivity (EDIGHEJI, 2010). This synergy involves state-society relations built on trust and reciprocity (EVANS, 1997, in EDIGHEJI, 2010). A case-in-point relevant to social work is the NPC's acknowledgement that early

childhood development is underfunded by government and that the poorest communities lag behind despite a policy commitment to early childhood development (RSA, 2011a). This is an example where implementation of a social policy is not contributing to the dire need to promote education and skills development, whilst NGOs, supported by donor funding, can potentially meet this target, but struggle due to resource constraints. For development to succeed requires that political leaders have the political will to deploy the necessary resources to develop and implement policy and programmes (EDIGHEJI, 2010). As social change agents social workers should take the role of development strategists who "seek to manage [economic] growth so that it maximises human welfare." (GREEN, 2008. p. 189).

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