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YOUTH VIOLENCE PREVENTION AND PEACE EDUCATION PROGRAMMES IN SOUTH AFRICA: A PRELIMINARY INVESTIGATION OF PROGRAMME DESIGN AND EVALUATION PRACTICES

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS:

ACCORD – African Centre for the Constructive Resolution of Disputes

AVP – Alternatives to Violence Programme

AVPSA – Alternative to Violence Project in South Africa

CCR – Centre for Conflict Resolution

DOE – Department of Education

CSVr – Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation

COPES – Community Psychological Empowerment Services

CRD – Project For Conflict Resolution and Development

IPT – Independent Projects Trust

OBE – Outcomes-based Education

OSF – Open Society Foundation

QPC – School and Community Programme of the Quaker Peace Centre

RDP – Reconstruction and Development Programme

SAPS – South African Police Services

SAQA – South African Qualifications Authority

TRSA – Technikon RSA

UPE – University of Port Elizabeth

UWC – University of the Western Cape

VP – Violence Prevention

VPE – Violence Prevention and Peace Education

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We would like to thank the respondents to our rather searching questions for their frankness and their willingness to reflect on the difficulties they face—as well as for sharing with us the pleasures inherent in doing work that is designed to move young South Africans and their caregivers forward to a more positive future. We were struck by the high levels of commitment, and by the creativity shown by practitioners in overcoming challenges and developing ever-better strategies, through timely and

well-planned evaluations. We hope this report offers useful support to the community that is engaged in VP work, whatever form it takes.

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Introduction

In South Africa, the scale of violence amounts to a national public health crisis, and there is an urgent need for effective preventive intervention. Exposure to violence has significant consequences for child development. The effects may be evident in two principle domains: emotional functioning and socialisation. When the exposure is of a more on-going, everyday nature, socialisation effects are particularly likely (especially among boys), taking the form of aggressive and anti-social conduct. Unless alternatives are presented to the young person, aggressive behaviour can become a normative strategy for the resolution of conflict. These realities lend urgency to the need to prevent the sources of violence and to address its consequences.

Aims

The basic aim of this investigation of a sample of South African youth violence prevention initiatives was to establish the extent to which they were research and evidence-based and the extent to which rigorous evaluation was integral to practice.

Methodology

The lack of a South African database of violence prevention programmes (which would have facilitated a survey approach), necessitated a case study approach with a convenience sample derived from snowball sampling. Research participants constituted 12 violence prevention and peace education programme managers, who were interviewed regarding the design, implementation and evaluation of their programmes. The intervention site for all but one of the programmes was the school.

Findings

What follows are the most pertinent findings. The headings indicate the broad areas of programme design in which we were interested.

Programme theory and aims: In general, respondents described an eclectic approach to their work. They felt free to draw from a variety of different approaches in planning their programmes. Of significance is the fact that they were commonly vague about their particular programme theory, and the majority did not locate the design and delivery of their work in the research literature. In part this may be because

practitioners run programmes and few programmes have staff with a research background.

Programme evolution: Most programmes had experienced significant change over their lifetime and indicated that they were sensitive to the need to modify the model when necessary. However, such modifications were commonly born out of practical experience rather than being a result of a cycle of evaluation. While a number of school-based programmes commenced with a focus on teachers or pupils, several came to accept that it is school management who offer the best chance of sustainable change, and thus school-based programmes need to take into account the level of school management functioning.

Programme outcomes, impacts and measures of success: Several (though not all) programmes commented on the importance of baseline assessments in the preparatory period before a programme is instituted. However, few of the programmes actually started in this way, and most interviewed do not have good baseline assessments. All the respondents felt that the programmes they offered had an impact beyond the individuals they trained; however, impacts were not systematically assessed.

Programme evaluation: At present South Africa lacks good evaluation studies of violence prevention programmes. In the absence of good baseline procedures and validated measures, and a tendency to call in the evaluators afterwards, good evaluation practice was absent in all but one case. It is disturbing that none of those interviewed employed the best practice of randomised controlled trials to test their models. Indeed only one programme employed some form of quasi-experimental comparison of treatment of control groups. While it is recognised that real world evaluations are expensive and complex to undertake, they remain the best way to demonstrate programme effectiveness.

Recommendations

The report reflects on the positive and negative experiences of the programmes and concludes with a set of recommendations that are intended to take forward the development of violence prevention initiatives in the future:

- Create and maintain a database of South African violence prevention programmes. This would not only facilitate contact between organisations operating in this area but would also, with careful planning and sufficient

stakeholder buy-in, provide a means to monitor and more systematically evaluate existing programmes and design new ones. The National DOE may be an appropriate site.

- Programmes should try to articulate how they evolved the programme theory they used, and locate the design and delivery of their work in relevant current research literature. Links between research, theory, policy and practice should thus be made clearer.
- Implement an information dissemination model to overcome what one programme staff member referred to as “the ongoing problem of a lack of documented evidence of what’s happening” in South African programmes. This sort of initiative could also go some way to build evaluation capacity.
- Hold regional meetings of VPE practitioners (perhaps facilitated by an umbrella organisation such as the Directorate for Education) to strengthen connections and to allow for a better exchange of information and resources.
- The key finding of this small study is that there is a dearth of sound research and evaluation experience in this field. All the programmes interviewed found measurement and evaluation a challenge. There is therefore a need to increase the numbers of trained evaluators, as well as a need for programme staff to be introduced to the basics of programme design and evaluation procedures.

INTRODUCTION

The underpinnings of violence in South Africa

A brief overview of the historical background of South African education will set the scene and explain how and why violence prevention and peace education (VPE) initiatives have arisen.

In 1954, President H.F. Verwoerd introduced the apartheid regime's policy to educate black people within the system of 'Bantu Education', which would confine them to "the level of certain forms of labour" (Verwoerd cited in Bernstein, (1975) 1985: 77). Verwoerd had made it clear that this "education of gross inferiority...was designed to reinforce the maintenance of a poor, ill-educated, pliant workforce" (Lipman, 1984: 93); but more than that, it was obviously intended to weaken the development of individual expression, to destroy people's sense of selfhood, and thus to exacerbate the erosion of black communities.

Unsurprisingly, the system was grounded in patriarchal and authoritarian ideals:¹ it relied heavily on hierarchical school management systems, endorsed rote-learning and other stultifying forms of knowledge transmission, and was enforced by harsh corporal punishment. School buildings and grounds were poorly maintained and grossly inadequate for the needs of learners and educators, and were usually located in areas that suited apartheid's geography and were insensitive to the reality of people's living conditions and constraints on their ability to travel. Psychosocial violence was, in other words, implicit in every aspect of the system of Bantu Education, a precondition that is internationally recognised to lead to the development of anti-social and violent behaviour (Report of the Gulbenkian Foundation Commission, 1995).

Closer in time

When apartheid finally came to an end in 1994, the majority of South African schools, that is, those located in the urban townships and the rural homelands, were in a desperate state. School buildings were run down and unsafe, educational materials and the teachers trained to use them were the products of apartheid era politics and

¹ Black women were explicitly marginalised: In 1964, Verwoerd announced that they were to be ghettoised into teaching in primary schools to "save money in teacher training and salaries" and because "women are generally better than men at handling small children" Bernstein, Hilda. (1975) 1985. *For their Triumphs and for their Tears: Women in Apartheid South Africa*. London: International Defence and Aid Fund for South Africa.

therefore quite often unsuitable to be used in the reconstruction of the nation, and entire communities and their environments were degraded.

South Africa has a long history of interpersonal violence that has lived alongside political violence. The violence of the post-apartheid period is not a new phenomenon, and is not simply a consequence of the political violence of earlier times. Even during the years of apartheid oppression, rates of criminal violence far outstripped political violence, and rates of abuse to women and children were already very high (Dawes & Donald, 1994).

At this point in our history, youths are particularly vulnerable to violent assault. In 2000, 37% of all non-natural deaths occurred in the 15 – 29 year old group. Firearms and stabbings were the leading external causes of death in 15 –19 year olds (Matzopoulos, 2002). The data also reveal that 13.5% of homicide victims are under the age of 21. It is males who account for the overwhelming majority of these victims. It has become imperative to determine effective ways to address the effects of violence exposure, and prevent the development of violent tendencies in the young. This is a very challenging task in a context of high levels of poverty, few opportunities for youths, and a well-embedded culture of violence.

Matters of definition

It is important to be clear about how we are defining interpersonal violence for present purposes. The World Health Organisation defines violence as follows: “*The intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community, that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, physical harm, mal-development or deprivation*” (Krug, Dahlberg, Mercy, Zwi, & Lozano, 2002: 5).

The following is a more limited definition, which we devised and use in this report, particularly framed for interpersonal violence and excludes inter-group violence and self-injurious behaviour: *Interpersonal violence refers to acts that involve the intentional use of physical force on another person in order to achieve some objective*. The definition does not include terms sometimes evident in the literature such as emotional violence, and neither does it consider the violence inherent in structurally determined relations of power (say between men and women).

It is not helpful that the terms 'aggression' and 'violence' are often used interchangeably. 'Aggression' may refer to an emotional state or to a range of behaviours. As overt behaviour it may be verbal or non-verbal, intentional or unintentional. The definition of violence presented here is closest to the term "instrumental aggression" used to describe behaviour that is intended to hurt in order for the perpetrator to gain something from the victim (Cole & Cole, 2001).

THE DEVELOPMENT OF VIOLENT BEHAVIOUR

As with any other intervention, violence prevention programme designs require a theoretically sophisticated evidence-based understanding of the several sources and developmental pathways that may lead to violent conduct in children and youths. Without such an understanding, money may be wasted on well-intentioned initiatives that do not take sufficient account of the developmental level of the target population and the complex range of influences to which they are subjected.

Violence prevention is challenging because the causes and maintaining factors associated with interpersonal violence are complex, and include individual, familial, community and cultural components. The influence of each aspect varies across child and adolescent development. The purpose of the current report permits only a brief outline of some pertinent findings derived from this complex field.

Some idea of the intricacy of the determinants of violent behaviour is evident from Tolan and Guerra's (1998) systemic approach which was originally formulated to address the causation of child abuse. They postulate three linked influence systems that, with some adaptation, remain useful in the present context:

The *macro-societal system* provides cultural scripts for the use of interpersonal violence. There will be variable adherence to the scripts within and between different cultural communities and families.

Proximal social contexts refer to the primary settings of development outside the family, such as the neighbourhood, school and peer group within which styles of conflict management are practiced and learnt.

At the next level, particularly powerful sources of influence are *close interpersonal systems*, which refer to enduring contexts of development such as the family. At this level for example, family codes of practice for discipline, problem-solving and attitudes toward violent behaviour are repeatedly evident.

Finally, the *individual* level addresses proclivities to aggression that have their roots in the child's biological and psychological make-up, and which may be particularly important in the causation of early conduct problems (Rutter & Herzov, 1985).

The complex challenges for violence prevention should already be evident from this brief outline of the several potential sources of the problem. Historically, the focus of research and intervention has been of a clinical tertiary nature and has focused on addressing the problem at the individual psychological and family levels (e.g. Dodge & Coie, 1987; Patterson, 1982). Particularly during early and middle childhood, growing up in dysfunctional families predicts later delinquency (Eron, 1997; Loeber et al., 1993). Other risk factors for the development of anti-social pathways derive from internal child states such as social skills deficits, and poor impulse control. Dodge's Social Information Processing (SIP) model addresses these dysfunctions and has been used to design interventions with at risk children (Dodge & Schwartz, 1997).

The pathways which different groups of children proceed along on their way to disruptive, violent and serious anti-social behaviour in adolescence have begun to be identified (Loeber & Farrington, 1997; Loeber et al., 1993; Moffitt, 1993). Based largely on retrospective and prospective longitudinal research, path studies attempt to ascertain the stable *sequences* of behaviour that are evident on the road to violence (typically, behaviour A is followed by B and then C etc.).

The research evidence is that when disruptive overt anti-social conduct starts in early childhood, it is associated with authority conflict and if it does not diminish prior to school, it is likely to continue into adolescence and youth, another period of life during which there is a risk for the development of anti-social aggressive behaviour in boys (Moffitt, 1993).

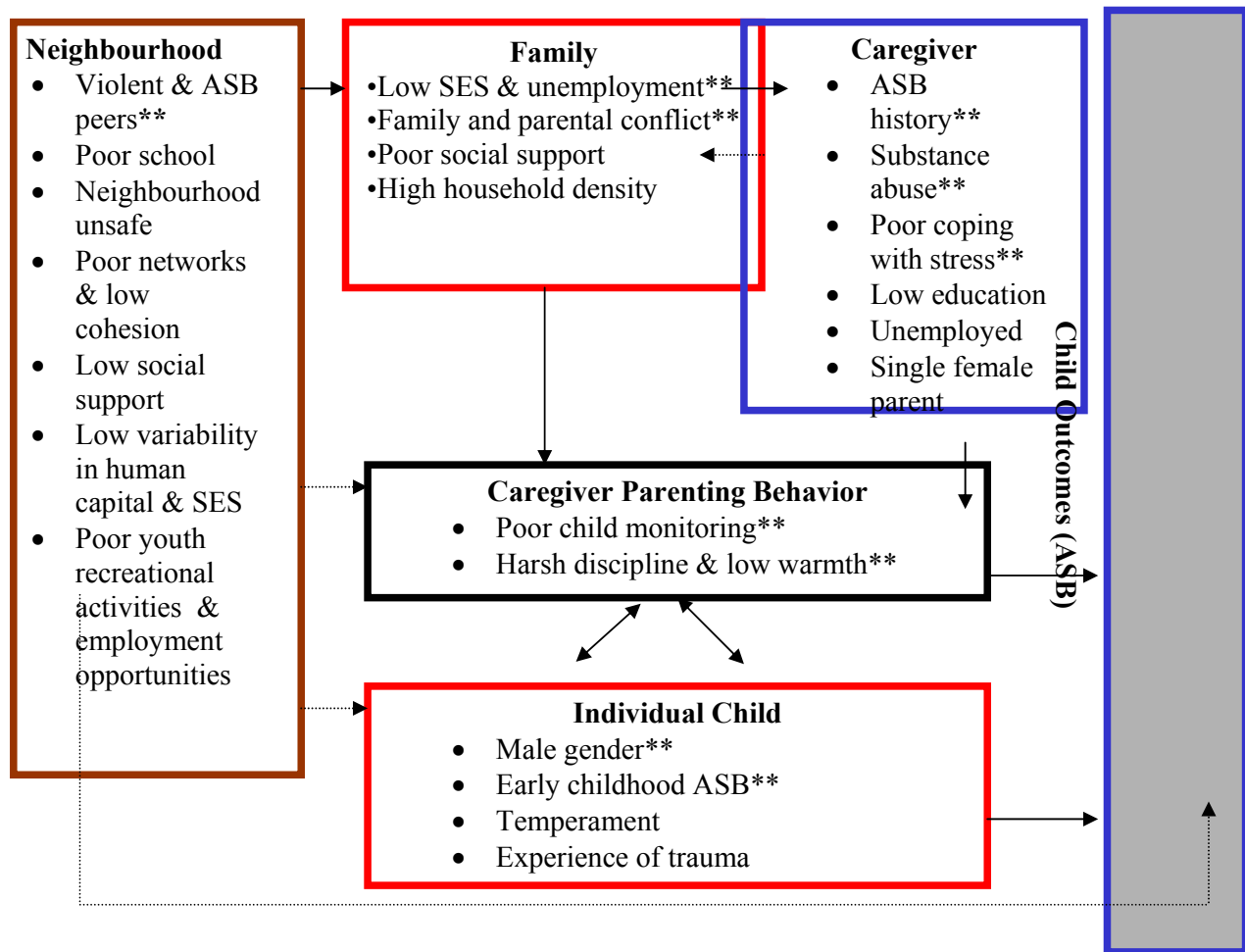
An outline of the risk factors operating at different points in development is presented in Figures 1 and 2 on pp. 6 and 7 respectively. Figure 1 outlines the influence of a key set of variables (both direct and indirect) on the development of anti-social behaviour, including violence, on children. These variables include characteristics of the neighbourhood, the family, the caregiver and the child. The diagram shows how certain neighbourhood factors impact on the family. For example, a neighbourhood characterised by low social support increases the risk of social isolation of family members when they are in trouble. Similarly neighbourhood factors impact on caregivers parenting behaviour. For example, dangerous neighbourhoods may

increase the tendency of caregivers to become very controlling of their children. Neighbourhoods will also have direct influences on the individual child. For example, the presence of many anti-social peers increases the risk that a child will become absorbed into an anti-social group.

It is well known that a family characterised by parental conflict has a negative influence on children and is associated with anti-social outcomes in boys (Patterson, DeBaryshe & Ramsey, 1989). Patterson also notes caregiver risk factors such as a history of anti-social behaviour and substance abuse as being associated with aggressive anti-social behaviour in children. There is also an interaction between caregiver parenting behaviour and characteristics of the individual child, both factors contributing to anti-social outcomes for children (Patterson et al., 1989).

Figure 2 illustrates the main risks associated with each developmental period (after Reid & Eddy, 1997). For example, during early childhood, and depending on their quality, interactions with key socialisation agents such as parents may reduce or escalate the probability of later child behaviour problems. During this developmental period, therefore, preventive family level interventions that focus on improving supportive and non-authoritarian caregiver discipline and pro-social “family management” skills may be most appropriate (Patterson, DeBaryshe, & Ramsey, 1989).

FIGURE 1: ANTI-SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR (ASB): SOURCES OF INFLUENCE AND RISK FACTORS



Key:

** Research evidence indicates that these factors are the best predictors of violent conduct in later childhood and adolescence.

Arrows between boxes in the diagram indicate the strength of influence between variables.

—▶ solid arrows indicate strong influences

.....▶ dotted arrows indicate less strong influence

FIGURE 2: DEVELOPMENTAL PERIODS AND RISK FACTORS FOR VIOLENT CONDUCT

Period	Major Risks
• Prenatal	Maternal nutrition and substance abuse
• Infancy	Caregiver inconsistency and abuse Difficult disruptive child temperament
• Early childhood	Coercive caregiver discipline Exposure to violent conflict at home Disruptive defiant child behaviour
• Middle childhood	Negative scholastic experience Engages in fights Poor parental monitoring & involvement
• Adolescence	Academic failure Engages in fights Poor parent-child relationship Poor parental monitoring & involvement Presence of high-risk peers

The evidence suggests that interventions to prevent the consolidation of early aggressive patterns are important during the pre-school and early school years. The best outcomes include family interventions (e.g. Dodge & Coie, 1987; Petersen & Carolissen, 2000; Webster-Stratton, 1985).

During middle childhood, the school setting becomes an important influence on behaviour. In this period the child's circle of peer and adult relationships expands and opportunities for learning both pro-social and anti-social conduct increase. The child's scholastic performance will also influence engagement with the learning process. Success is likely to increase self-esteem, while repeated failure is likely to increase the risk that the child will reject academic activity and draw closer to peers with similar negative school experiences. Initiatives to promote pro-social behaviour may need to focus on changing teacher and/or child behaviour, or a wide range of practices in the school as a whole (Samples & Aber, 1998).

Friends and peers have an increasingly important influence in the adolescent period. Allen, Weisberg and Hawkins (1989 in Samples & Aber, 1998) present evidence that whether the child's peer group is primarily pro-social or anti-social in orientation affects the probability of the development of aggressive and violent behaviour.

Community level interventions may be necessary to reduce the proclivity of adolescent and youth drug-taking and violent behaviour which places younger children living in that area at risk for engaging in these activities (Hawkins, Arthur, & Olson, 1997).

The findings of research in this area therefore not only assist in mapping the various risk factors in the causation of violence in young people, they suggest entry points for intervention (McGuire, 1997; Reid & Eddy, 1997). Reinforcing the point that knowledge of developmental pathways towards violence is essential for programme development, Reid and Eddy state: “developmental life span targeting is a critical ingredient to effective prevention trials” (1997: 348).

YOUTH VIOLENCE PREVENTION IN SOUTH AFRICA

By the late 1980s a variety of South African stakeholders had adopted a public health approach to violence (Stevens, Wyngaard, & Van Niekerk, 2001). In the past decade, public health adherents have advocated for the recognition of violence as a high priority threat to the health and well-being of South Africans (Butchart, Hamber, Terreblanche, & Seedat, 1997).

Public health practitioners have conceptualised violence in terms of determinants, risk factors, incidence and cost consequences (Butchart, 1996; Krug, Dahlberg, Mercy, Zwi, & Lozano, 2002). Those engaged in interpersonal violence prevention have taken a similar approach (for a full discussion of violence prevention within this framework, see Offord, 1997). Public health interventions typically define three levels of prevention based on the problem and the target group of interest (Flannery & Williams, 1999):

Primary prevention is universal and population-based, for example training all primary school children in non-violent conflict resolution skills (Samples & Aber, 1998).

Secondary prevention programmes target selected groups at high-risk for violent conduct due to the nature of their proximal extra-familial social contexts or close interpersonal factors (e.g. boys in dysfunctional families in high crime neighbourhoods). A South African example of an early preventive intervention is Petersen & Carolissen's (2000) early school-based child and parent intervention programme for aggressive pre-school children.

Tertiary prevention is normally high cost and treatment-based, targeting clinical populations who have already sought help and who have already been diagnosed with conduct or other anti-social disorders. The problem is commonly understood to have a primarily individual level source and solution. Tertiary prevention strategies, designed for individuals who have already entered the justice system as violent or chronic offenders, aim at managing crisis situations through punishment or rehabilitation to prevent future violent or criminal activity.

Children who are diagnosed with conduct disorder or anti-social behaviour represent only a small part of the population within which a generalised acceptance of aggressive modes of problem solving may be apparent. The high prevalence of conduct disorder and aggressive behaviour together with the difficulty and expense of treating established cases make the search for effective primary and secondary prevention programmes of central concern to workers in the field (Offord, Boyle, & Rancine, 1991 in Pepler & Rubin, 1991).

This study focuses on primary and secondary level programmes. We did not initially intend to include any tertiary programmes in this research, but the chronic rates of violence in South Africa, and the extreme youthfulness of many offenders, means that some school-based programmes are also paying attention to rehabilitating young offenders. Examples of this kind of crossover are discussed in this study (AVP, Khulisa).

The challenge facing violence prevention practitioners in South Africa is considerable. Psychosocial initiatives alone can only hope to have a very limited impact on the problem given the significant structural violence of the society.

THE STUDY

Aims

The basic aim of this investigation of a sample of South African youth violence prevention projects was to establish whether they followed good practices in programme design and evaluation. We were in particular interested in the extent to which evaluations were undertaken, and whether the programmes had clearly articulated theoretical and research underpinnings that informed their design and delivery.

Our main objective was to discover whether practitioners in violence prevention programmes in South Africa have developed practical measures to ascertain whether their work was making a positive difference. As Louw (2000) observes, evaluation is often far down the list of programme priorities. While practitioners might abstractly acknowledge the need for it, it may be perceived as costly in terms of both time and money, potentially dangerous to the survival of an initiative if its results are negative, and a generally unwelcome intrusion in the face of urgent and overwhelming need. We recognise the extraordinary challenges encountered by programmes that seek to promote alternatives to violence, and deeply respect the energy, devotion and conviction that practitioners bring to the difficult work they are doing.

Regardless of their type, prevention programmes require several basic ingredients. Thornton et al. (2000) have provided the following checklist. If their outcomes are to be adequately assessed and if they are to have a basis for success, prevention programmes require:

1. Clear goals and objectives.
2. Clear target populations and a good rationale for their selection of *this particular* intervention for the target group in question.
3. Designs that are informed by theory, evidence and good practice models appropriate to the target population and problem.
4. Carefully designed delivery systems that take account of potential threats to implementation and success at the intervention sites. Here one must note that programmes imported from elsewhere that were successful under different conditions may not transfer well.
5. Well-trained delivery staff whose own programme delivery behaviour is monitored as part of the process evaluation.
6. Appropriate and valid measures of key programme variables.
7. Evaluation and monitoring systems built into the process from inception until termination – preferably carried out by programme outsiders.
8. In the case of primary and secondary level interventions in particular, the support of the target community and key persons who can affect delivery, is essential.

These guidelines have been used as a basis for interrogating the programmes we studied.

Methodology

Procedure

The original intention of the study was to take a random sample of primary and secondary level preventive programmes from a comprehensive list of South African programmes. The lack of a database of violence prevention programmes², which would have facilitated a survey approach, required us to modify the scope of our study (as we did not know the population of programmes we were unable to sample from it). We made the decision to shift from a survey methodology to a case study approach with a convenience sample based on snowball sampling. Beginning in the Western Cape, where our research team is based, we approached academic institutions, governmental programmes and non-governmental organisations and not-for-profit organisations involved in the delivery of violence prevention programmes throughout South Africa. They in turn referred us on to programmes in other parts of the region and the country.

Programme managers, planners and implementers were contacted and informed about our research objectives, and an interview, either telephonically or in person, was requested. If the request was acceded to, a copy of the research schedule was e-mailed to participants prior to the interview. The schedule was based on Thornton, et al. (2000), who proposes a set of essential principles or 'best practice' guidelines to follow when designing and/or implementing a youth violence prevention programme. They are based on knowledge derived from rigorous evaluations of interventions reported in reviewed literature.

The comprehensive interview schedule (see Appendix A) was designed to elicit information about the following:

Programme aims;

Programme origin;

Programme resources/sustainability;

Programme trainers and implementers;

Programme recipients;

Programme rationale (theoretical and research underpinnings);

Programme evolution;

Models of programme delivery;

² Institutions such as the Medical Research Council and the Centre for Peace Action (UNISA) have, in the past, attempted to create and maintain such a database but since violence prevention programmes

***Programme outcomes; and
Programme evaluation.***

Because this technique maximises discovery and description in the course of an interview, the research schedule relied on open-ended questions. While the schedule was used as a guide, respondents were encouraged to speak freely about their experiences and to add anything not addressed in the schedule. Interviews took between one-and-a-half to two hours to complete, with the researcher taking notes on her computer as respondents spoke. A request was made for further leads, as is usual with the technique of snowball sampling. After the interview, completed schedules were edited and returned by e-mail to respondents, who had the opportunity to modify them in any way they chose. A total number of thirteen interviews were conducted.

We have quoted as extensively as possible from the interview transcripts (see findings section of this report). Since we interviewed participants in their capacity as spokespeople for their organisations, we have in general chosen not to identify practitioners by name, and have instead given the name of the organisation in parenthesis after each quote, or whenever we refer specifically to an aspect of their approach. Exceptions to this rule are Jannie Malan, who spoke to us in his capacity as a peace educator and member of ACCORD, and Martin Prew (Directorate for Education Management and Governance Development, National Education).

Research participants

We did, at the outset of the study, impose sample restrictions, as follows:

Only school-based programmes were to be included in our ambit, since our intention was to discover how and why school communities, as a whole, were being targeted for violence prevention work. In the course of our study we discovered that some projects include schools as only one arena of focus in developing what they consider to be more comprehensive violence prevention programmes. It was decided to continue to include such projects within this research as they provide a theoretically interesting point of contrast with exclusively school-based programmes.

are intended for the highly mobile school population, and are often precariously funded, they found it an impossible task (Garth Stevens, Personal communication with Dawes, June 2002).

Only risk reduction projects aimed at the general population of South African learners, not more clinical programmes aimed at the correction or treatment of those who had been diagnosed as delinquent or suffering from acute psychological or behavioural difficulties, were included in the ambit of this project. However, practitioners were asked to explain the strategies they had developed to manage learners who showed more severe behavioural problems than what they were trained to deal with.

We did not originally intend to interview practitioners of programmes for youths who had already become chronic offenders but in the course of our interviews discovered that some programmes, which originally started in schools, had begun to offer interventions for this group of youngsters. It was decided to continue to include these programmes in our purview because of their explicit focus on how schools can become a breeding ground for severely anti-social behaviour.

When we realised that the limited small sample obtained would make it difficult to preserve anonymity, respondents were sent a formal letter requesting them to let us identify them by name in our report. They were asked to sign, have witnessed, and return an informed consent form to our offices, agreeing to let us make use of their names (Appendix B). Finally, the case studies that follow were returned to each organisation for their comment and approval. A total of 12 programme managers were interviewed (one withdrew from the study).³ Appendix B provides a brief overview of programmes included, their location and predominant focus. As will be evident, the intervention site for all but one of the programmes is the school.

Description of Programmes

In this section, brief overviews of the programmes are offered. These cover the programme's history, duration, the scale of the programme's operation, programme aims, their target group, modes and models of delivery, and whether any form of programme evaluation is done.

ACCORD, Western Cape

The African Centre for the Constructive Resolution of Disputes (ACCORD) is an international civil society organisation working throughout Africa to bring appropriate solutions to challenges posed by conflict on the continent. ACCORD's primary foci in South Africa are peace education and violence prevention.

³ The latter's programme and views are thus not included in this report.

A component of ACCORD is dedicated to the education of graduate students in conflict resolution and peace education (based at UWC). Another aspect was known as the “Bellville Schools Programme” (the focus of this description), which came to an end in 1997, when the RDP budget for it was used up.

Training sessions were focused on the sharing of insights, real involvement in discussion and practical exercises, and the acquiring of skills in conflict resolution and peace building. Only trained facilitators of ACCORD were involved. The programme content was based on research at ACCORD (in which material and findings from Africa and other continents were and are being used). The handout, “*Conflict – Something to talk about*” (ACCORD, 1997) was also used for some clarification and for future reference. Workshops/training sessions discussed the manual and practical exercises.

The recipients of the schools programme were secondary school learners from the Bellville area (Western Cape), grades 8 – 10. Weekend training sessions were also offered to secondary and primary school educators, in the ‘training of trainers’ mode, so that the same handout was given to them for possible further use in their own situations. Some of these educators were at schools where weekend training sessions were also presented to learners.

Formal evaluation was not prioritised but participants were asked for their feedback on the programme by completing an ‘evaluation’ form after the workshops.

Alternatives to Violence (AVP), Gauteng and national

AVP started in Greenhaven Prison in New York City in the 1960s as an attempt to help prisoners solve conflicts better. It now operates internationally. In 1995 a group of trainers came to SA to train a core group of interested people in the programme’s principles. In 1996, AVPSA was formed in Johannesburg, Pietermaritzburg and Cape Town.

AVPSA works in organisations, communities and schools, and is involved in peace building generally, e.g. it participated in the peace and development platform at the World Summit on Sustainable Development. AVP works to develop personal empowerment of programme participants so that people can use non-violent means to resolve conflict. It offers peace education and violence prevention programmes and training of trainers, and it also does awareness-raising and addresses school safety issues.

It is planning a programme for young offenders. The programme is delivered through weekend workshops (2 days) and anyone interested can attend. The youngest participant has been 9 years and the oldest has been 68. Participants come from all over Gauteng, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, KwaZulu-Natal, the Western Cape, and the Northern Province, and the programme caters to people from all socio-economic positions.

Formative evaluations, which have informed the development of the programme, are conducted and AVP is developing a more systematic internal evaluation process.

Centre for Conflict Resolution (CCR), Schools Programme. Western Cape.

The CCR strives to contribute towards a just and sustainable peace by promoting constructive, creative and co-operative approaches to the resolution of conflict and the reduction of violence. CCR is based in Cape Town, working in South Africa and

other African countries to fulfil its mission. CCR engages in research, consultation, training, mediation and facilitation, with an emphasis on capacity building.

These activities are undertaken by a number of specific projects. One is the Youth Project, which began the schools programmes in 1991 with a broad focus on peace education, and of which violence prevention is considered to be one aspect. The facilitators try to be as broadly consultative as possible, visiting a school before workshops begin and sometimes holding pre-workshops at which they try to gain the support of educators and the community before extending their programme to learners. Their target group, ultimately, is learners, but experience has shown them that educators have to be their prime first targets to reach learners.

The Youth Project has two flagship training programmes, targeting people such as educators in school community settings and encourage them to promote peace education and constructive conflict resolution among young people:

- 1) Creative and Constructive Approaches to Conflict (CCAC) with a focus on understanding conflict and developing skills associated with constructive conflict resolution.
- 2) Mediation in School Communities (MISC), which moves to strategies, in particular the mediation process and peer mediation in school settings. It focuses on application of skills and approaches covered in CCAC.

These training programmes are delivered through workshops and training sessions over a period of five days each, with built-in follow-up workshop components. The project also, on occasion, undertakes training events for organisations that are not a direct target group. No formal process of evaluation exists; evaluation is valued in the abstract but not given enough time and dedication.

Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSV), School Violence Programme, Gauteng

The CSV's main foci are violence prevention, peace education, awareness-raising and school safety. The CSV started working in schools since its beginning in 1988, and this segment of its work was consolidated in 1994 with a pilot project in Soweto schools, which led to the design of a programme for schools in that area. The CSV's consultative process was broad, involving principals and educators, learners in high schools, school authorities and local street committees.

Training is offered in each school for three years, after which there is a six-month follow-up period. The target population is high school students in Soweto and pre-adolescents in primary schools (aged 12 – 14). Younger children are individually referred to the Centre's Trauma Clinic. The programme started in four schools and focused initially on teacher training but now more than 40 schools participate, drawing in educators, parents, policy-makers and learners, as well as broader community structures. Most remarkably, youths who are not in schools or formal employment get involved in the project, thus developing life skills.

CSV also works closely with networks like Gun Free South Africa, Safer Schools, the media, other conflict resolution programmes, the South African Police Services and policy forums. The programme has four pillars: education, prevention, rehabilitation and the development of safe school structures. To deal with trauma, teachers form a helping committee while peer counsellors work with the guidance teacher. School governing bodies (SGB) are trained to formulate policy around

safety, including such problems as strangers at the school and poor physical structures, and are educated about the budgets available for school improvement.

The four pillars are driven by safety teams established through workshops facilitated by the Youth Department of the CSVR. A safety team comprises the principal, chair of the SGB, a police officer, a parent, a teacher, and in high schools, a learner or two. This model has been successfully replicated throughout Gauteng. Evaluation of the programme is given some emphasis as a researcher in the team does formative and process evaluations.

Community Psychological Empowerment Services (COPES), Western Cape.

COPES, a project that works with foundation phase children (first three years of formal schooling) in Lavender Hill, Cape Town, was founded in 1996 with the support of the New World Foundation (NWF). In 1997-98 it was affiliated to the Trauma Centre for Victims of Violence and Torture for administrative purposes, and now is under the full ownership of the Trauma Centre.

The programme originated because the NWF was concerned about the levels of aggression in pre-schoolers living in Lavender Hill. COPES is a 7-year longitudinal early childhood intervention aimed at reducing and preventing aggressive behaviour. It was not community instigated, and to this day, COPES does not consider itself to have sufficient community buy-in, a problem they are working to resolve.

Their ultimate target group is entry-level learners, who have usually had no pre-school experience of conflict resolution. Over a period of 18-24 months, the programme's focus is on teacher training and offering classroom-based assistance to help teachers change their management techniques. Another focus group is principals and SGBs, since their proactive support is key to achieving positive results. Learners who show signs of aggression receive small group interventions to promote social skills. Parents are offered a 4-week parent training course through a COPES partner in the intervention, the Parent Centre.

COPES' experiences have taught them to classify schools by typology: type 1 is a failing school characterised by chaos, mismanagement, and low staff morale. The principal may push his staff to attend their presentations but doesn't allow independence. Often teachers cannot see the point of such interventions. A type 2 school is a more democratic and positive school, where teachers are included in decision-making. COPES work mostly in type 2 schools. Their pilot started in a type 1 school but the level of functioning was too low for the project to work so they have continued to offer nothing but interventions in such schools.

There is a strong emphasis on evaluation, as formative, process and outcome evaluations are conducted. COPES is also working on data gathering for a longitudinal assessment. Its practitioners feel this is a strong programme with an excellent theoretical base that can claim to make an impact.

Educo, Cape Town and national

The international roots of Educo are in Canada, where the programme was founded in 1969. There are now independent Educos around the world, and Educo Africa started in 1994. Its main offices and founders are based in the Western Cape but Educo operates nationally. Educo offers wilderness-based encounters aimed at changing the way people view themselves, their community and the land they're on.

Educo does not consider itself a therapeutic organisation but rather as offering bridging, peace building and diversity education.

A whole section of programmes specialise in healing and transformation (psychological and community healing, offender re-integration work etc., for at risk people). They also focus on skills development, offering outdoor-based experiential learning skills for childcare and social workers (adults). This focus on employment and employability has come about in response to the particular SA crisis.

Children are a prime target audience: programmes are run with child and youth care agencies, community development organisations and some schools. Educo have had problems with incompetence and a lack of understanding from adults who work with youths in the past – they now run programmes for adults to ensure that they're functional and co-operative on the courses. The average youth course is eight days but can be longer; the adult course is five days but can be shorter. The courses entail 24-hour contact through outdoor therapy and intensive wilderness experiences, which include self-reflection and meditation.

Recognising that a wilderness experience is not a good stand-alone process, Educo also works in partnership with people who can sustain their clients before, during and after the programme, thus networking extensively with other organisations involved in violence prevention work (e.g. NICRO). Some emphasis is placed on evaluation, however these have predominantly been formative and process evaluations.

Independent Projects Trust (IPT), KwaZulu-Natal

IPT started work in 1990 and is based and works in KwaZulu-Natal. They describe themselves as "Change Management Consultants." Since their beginning, they have moved away from peace education to a focus on the effects of poor management on schools. IPT's programme aims to protect schools, so their package is viewed as a form of conflict resolution training that promotes effective skills and management.

Programmes encompass a variety of subjects including mediation, conflict management and peace education, co-operative learning and participative school management, school safety and security, and HIV/AIDS interventions. Their target group is the school management team, which includes the principal, teachers, school governing boards, and sometimes students. IPT tends to work within disadvantaged groups and with previously disadvantaged schools.

Interventions (which entail workshops and training sessions predominantly) run for two years or more. In the last two years they have been training management to run schools better and understand school management effectiveness as a structural and social issue. IPT's work is widely spread and addresses many constituencies, so the work they do in schools is also influenced by their work with traditional leaders, the police, DOE, CBOs etc.

In 2000, IPT expanded their project to 14 Durban schools and later the strategic component of "training school management teams". They have learned that needs assessments/base line assessments are vital and one can never underestimate their value: principals who can't run their school well don't run it safely. Therefore, without better management, IPT's experience has shown them, any peace education, violence prevention or school safety programmes are likely to fail.

There is a strong emphasis on evaluation, reporting and documentation of results. Formative, process and outcome evaluations have been conducted.

Khulisa, Gauteng and national

Khulisa's programmes started in 1997 after five or six years of research and preparation; and are based in Gauteng. It runs several programmes with different aims and targets young offenders and at-risk youth in schools.

The first programme aims at youth development, in which community leaders are identified, trained as role models and mentors, and used as a resource to run or back up programmes. The average age of participants is 18 – 25. Everyone is paid for all the work they do once training is completed. Existing programmes are run in Alexandra, Katlehong, Soweto, Potchefstroom, Klerksdorp, and imminently, in Limpopo and Newcastle. Mentors (who are qualified peer drug counsellors) work with school-going youths from grade 6 and up. They run drug awareness programmes with up to 1 000 learners per week and work at police stations and schools.

The second programme focuses on diversion. Mentors are paid per number of divertees they work with. As part of the diversion programme mentors go to schools, visit families once a month, and write reports. They are accountable for all the work they do. Sixty-seven mentors have been trained so far.

A third programme deals with awaiting trial prisoners (children), on whom the diversion programme is tested. In the maximum sentencing prison programme, Khulisa negotiates drug-free spaces in the prison, rigorously screening and training about 20 offenders per group as drug counsellors. Support groups have been started in prisons with offenders themselves acting as positive role models. They do counselling, teach Ubuntu, and focus especially on drugs. This programme also teaches emotional intelligence to warders with a view to positive morality development.

Participating offenders are offered a “year before release programme” where they take part in an intense programme with the ultimate view of being placed in jobs after release. Those participating in the prison programmes must meet a minimum criteria as the ultimate aim is to employ people: they need grade 10, proficiency in English, to have committed a crime of a non-violent nature, a clean record in prison, and a minimum of 1.5 yrs left after a sentence of not more than three years. They are then assessed to determine their literacy and learning ability and given a creative writing test to see if they have the capacity to be trained for employment, and invited to join the programme.

Finally, there is a reintegration programme. This involves recruiting supportive companies where ex-offenders can get training, jobs, etc. – so community training about restorative justice work comes in there. This forms part of the diversion programme too, and works through forming “Ubuntu blocks” where the community is collectively involved in keeping children out of prison and away from crime.

While there are some one-off workshops, programmes that involve training last six months, plus six months for a community project. The diversion programme is three months and the rehabilitation programme lasts a year and a half. All Khulisa's programmes are in the process of being accredited to the South African Qualifications Association by Technikon South Africa (TRSA), and all the programmes are run by trained ex-offenders and youth offenders.

Khulisa have produced about 72 manuals so far to support their work. Khulisa develops materials on their own and then they are formalised to get proper

accreditation through the TRSA. Formative and process evaluations have been conducted, but there is no formal scientific evaluation. However, Khulisa planned to commence with one at the end of 2002.

Project for Conflict Resolution and Development (CRD), Port Elizabeth

The Project for Conflict Resolution was set up in 1995, is based in Port Elizabeth and focuses on conflict resolution training for educators at schools. It has steadily developed more programmes. Gender training has become increasingly important, as has a rural focus – CRD work in tiny, neglected places. They have also moved out from schools into communities: the programme's target recipients are the whole school community – teachers and education officials, sometimes parents and learners (with the youth programme).

The education programme has developed into peer mediation. Peer mediation work has been ad hoc and based on a “see how we go” approach. However, the project has now stabilised. A part one is youth-specific and it will set up its own NGO in 2003 as CRD don't have enough training capacity. This project will take over life orientation periods at schools; it has been implemented in 10 schools and hopes to link up with the University of Port Elizabeth's (UPE) youth work degree.

Part two is an educational and organisational development programme: it concentrates on governance, school management, codes of conduct, capacity-building in gender, and has also focused on issues like food gardening and fund-raising. They want to increase its focus by working closely with the education department, which is a useful target group because CRD uses the same district model as the Eastern Cape Education Department, which is very decentralised.

'New Frontiers', a 12-month seminar series will be the focal programme from 2003. It links to a peaceable schools model. CRD will create a website which brings its different work together. They would like to maintain their rural capacity-building work, although they realise that a major challenge is that they need to define their focus more.

CRD seminars last half a day; workshops are two days. The training of trainer process takes place in the school holidays and lasts five days. The New Frontiers programme consists of six seminars, 10 workshops, five information sessions and six 'critical friends' sessions. Technical issues around education legislation will also be covered.

Formative, process and outcome evaluations are conducted, but CRD feels they need to focus evaluations more as their programme's focus is very broad.

Quaker Peace Centre (QPC), School and Community Programme, Western Cape and national

QPC started working intensively in schools in 1997. It networks extensively with other violence prevention programmes in the country, especially Alternatives to Violence (AVP), GFSA, the CCR, Help Increase the Peace (the HIP programme), Safe Schools and the Cape Technikon. QPC focuses on peace-building, capacity-building, conflict resolution skills through assertiveness and positive self-esteem. They work from the viewpoint that individuals must have inner peace and that personal growth leads to peace.

They run an educators/facilitator's course (voluntary) for people who've been interested in their work. In the first year there is 60 hours of training; in the second year participants become mediators after a shorter period of training. In the third year they run a peer mediation process. The programme is a long-term one. However, some people don't stay the course, especially since educators are a mobile community. The programme has been run for three years and about 60 participants completed it.

QPC also works at the Cape Technikon with teachers in training, teaching a "positive discipline" approach, which consists of strategies for second and third year students to learn better classroom management. Having discovered that the group that had been there longer had the clearest understanding of their principles, they now like to work with students from the earliest moment possible. The programme is delivered predominantly through workshops and training sessions.

Apart from educators, learners who are at the edge of the system are also being targeted by their programme – such as those who've assaulted teachers or other similar acts of violence, and who are now unwelcome everywhere. QPC is thus attempting to find a means to do restorative justice with these children. The most serious cases come from the Western Cape, where the most work is being done to identify problem learners: children who have perpetrated acts of violence, are now known and systems will be put in place to rehabilitate them.

It's hoped that QPC graduates will be able to manage these problem children, so there may be a good synergy between QPC graduates and the "lost" children. They are also trying to involve communities in managing the challenges posed by these children. No formal scientific evaluations are conducted, although some emphasis is placed on formative and process evaluation.

South African Ecotherapy Institute, Western Cape and national

The National Peace Accord Trust, of which the Ecotherapy Institute is a division, started in 1992 as part of the country's transition process. Its mandate is to work for ongoing reconciliation and healing. The national office liaises with many other organisations involved in violence prevention, and the eco-therapy unit has contact with the Universities of Stellenbosch and Natal, the City of Cape Town, and a handful of others for whom they set up training.

Ecotherapy uses local wilderness experiences to increase psychological awareness and to bring about healing. The South African Ecotherapy Institute started its work with militarised youths but now focus more broadly on educators and those they reach (children and adolescents affected by violence, abuse, and other social problems). The programme operates mainly in the Western Cape but is also run nationally wherever there is a need or request.

Interventions take place in the outdoors and anyone who wants to can attend them. They are intensive, lasting between three and seven days, with 24-hour contact through workshops, retreats/camps, meditation and self-reflection. The Ecotherapy Institute also trains university students to be utilised in community work.

Evaluation of the programme is perceived to be a challenge and no formal scientific evaluations had been conducted at the time of the study. Subsequently the programme had been evaluated. Emphasis is however placed on staff development and self-evaluation.

RESULTS

Through interviews with a small group of violence prevention practitioners, we set out to consider a range as wide as possible of programmes developed to promote alternative, non-violent mindsets in the “new” South Africa. Findings are presented here in accordance with the categories on the interview schedule (see Appendix A). For each programme, Table 1, pp.22-32 presents a summary of programme information.

**TABLE 1
PROGRAMME THEORY, EVALUATION AND OUTCOME MEASURES**

PROGRAMME	PROGRAMME THEORY & RESEARCH UNDERPINNINGS	EVALUATION METHODS & MEASURES OF OUTCOME
<p>1. ACCORD: Bellville Schools Programme (BSP)</p>	<p>The theoretical underpinnings of the programme were very broad. The link between theory and programme content is not very clear, based largely on the director's international academic work in theology and development studies, and heavily emphasised African texts including Malan's own <i>Conflict Resolution Wisdom from Africa</i> (ACCORD, 1997).</p> <p>Justice-restoring and problem-solving approaches, dialogic methods, and an open-minded exploring of mental attitudes are used in the programme to promote and model constructive mental attitudes. Diversity training was important, which emphasises self affirmation and affirmation of others.</p>	<p><i>Expected Outcomes and measures</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Envisaged outcome was that learners and educators would use their insights and skills to become involved and help others to become involved in talks to prevent, manage or resolve conflict. Not measured (no assessment of the efficacy of the programme). • At the end of the training course immediate outcomes were assessed by means of written feedback to the trainer. The key components of the feedback are: level of interest, information and learning; whether expectations were met; likes and dislikes of the workshop; what participants felt could have been done differently; what they learnt; suggestions and recommendations. • Workshop presenters also gave affective feedback on the process of the sessions. • No specific baseline measures were used. <p><i>Evaluations</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formal evaluation was not prioritised, process evaluations are conducted, programme revised accordingly. • It was not possible to implement a second phase of the programme, which could have provided an opportunity to form an impression of how participants were indeed implementing their insights and skills. • Hence, outcome evaluations were not conducted.

**TABLE 1
PROGRAMME THEORY, EVALUATION AND OUTCOME MEASURES**

PROGRAMME	PROGRAMME THEORY & RESEARCH UNDERPINNINGS	EVALUATION METHODS & MEASURES OF OUTCOME
<p>2. Alternatives to Violence Programme (AVP)</p>	<p>The programme's theoretical underpinnings are very broad, drawing from the writings of Ghandi, M.L. King, Mandela and Jung.</p> <p>One of its stated goals is to increase people's emotional awareness and responsiveness: it offers skills to get people in touch with their own emotions and feelings and offers opportunities to practice their emotional skills. Its approach is experiential and personally engaging, and it aims to teach life skills, which AVP thinks will assist in reducing interpersonal violence.</p> <p>Over the years the programme has evolved greatly, and is now making significant use of South Africa-specific materials.</p>	<p>Expected outcomes and measures</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expected outcome: individual change and increased emotional awareness (none measured; AVP would like to assess them more clearly in the future). • Annual newsletter and annual report; people are told when workshops will happen but no infrastructure or resources to get people together for ongoing feedback. • Measures of success: Personal testimony; observed changes in individuals and communities. <p>Evaluation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Process evaluations take place after each session, so there are six per workshop, and formative evaluations are conducted in writing at the end of every workshop. These are compiled into reports by the facilitators. The reports are fed back into programmes and this is how AVP gains an understanding of what works for particular groups. • A systematic internal evaluation process is in place and is being developed all the time. • Trainers learn about evaluation as part of their own training.

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PROGRAMME	PROGRAMME THEORY & RESEARCH UNDERPINNINGS	EVALUATION METHODS & MEASURES OF OUTCOME
<p>3. Centre for Conflict Resolution (CCR)</p>	<p>Theoretical and research underpinnings are ad hoc and fairly eclectic. While developing a programme that is uniquely South African, the designers have been greatly influenced by international peace education programmes in the US, Britain, Australia, South America. The programme utilises the notion of self-empowerment; consciously working to empower individuals who have been brutalised and undermined in the past to overcome their internalised violence and repression. From this individual empowerment it is anticipated that broader empowerment will grow. The narrative therapy approach, where stories are used and participants are assisted in developing their own alternative stories. Trainers give examples of how to do conflict resolution and peace building within everyday interactions so participants learn through modelling.</p>	<p>Expected outcomes and measures</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expected outcomes: increase of peace building and constructive conflict resolution skills among youths; self-empowerment, trained teachers (not measured systematically). • Best current measures of success: follow-up meetings, word of mouth, and teachers materials and questionnaires (developed by CCR). Theses focus on what was done in the programme, what worked, what didn't, key issues, experiences and problems. <p>Evaluation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formal evaluation not prioritised, programme did not document its progress in a systematic way that can be used over time. • Has had one evaluation from an independent consultant who is a life skills educator, and one graduate student has assessed their work as part of her degree. • Cost of a researcher was built into the original budget, whose tasks would include ongoing monitoring, evaluation and impact assessment as well as lobbying and advocacy. However, only a reduced budget was awarded, so no resources are available for dedicated evaluation, which means it now has to be included in the action plans of the staff. • They have a dilemma between what constitutes evaluation and what is ongoing support. • No success in developing formal channels to copyright their own manuals, so CCR does not know how many schools their materials have actually reached.

**TABLE 1
PROGRAMME THEORY, EVALUATION AND OUTCOME MEASURES**

PROGRAMME	PROGRAMME THEORY & RESEARCH UNDERPINNINGS	EVALUATION METHODS & MEASURES OF OUTCOME
<p>4. Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSV)</p>	<p>In developing their programme theory, the CSV team used literature from the United States and Britain but drew most extensively on their personal knowledge of Sowetan communities. Theoretical basis is fairly eclectic. Four pillars: education, prevention, rehabilitation and structural change - these raise awareness, teach conflict management and trauma management skills and encourage schools to develop structures to deal with trauma and violence.</p>	<p><i>Expected outcomes and measures</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expected outcomes: reduction of violence in schools; development of positive attitudes; training of teachers to deal better with violence and trauma. • Best measures: drop in the crime rate in schools and the development of teachers who are equipped to deal with violence and trauma; elicited through numbers, verbal and written feedback. <p><i>Evaluation</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evaluation budgeted for, and a dedicated researcher (trained in evaluation methods) works on formative (focus groups, etc.) and process evaluations (e.g. interviews), and a three-month outcomes evaluation at the end.

**TABLE 1
PROGRAMME THEORY, EVALUATION AND OUTCOME MEASURES**

PROGRAMME	PROGRAMME THEORY & RESEARCH UNDERPINNINGS	EVALUATION METHODS & MEASURES OF OUTCOME
<p>5. Community Psychological Empowerment Services (COPES)</p>	<p>Theoretically, the programme is founded in social context theory, uses developmental theory, and is guided by psychological theory. Muller & Roberts were drawn from to establish the typology of schools.</p> <p>As a pre-school programme, COPES drew on the American work of Webster-Stratton, with limited success.</p> <p>Today, COPES focuses on teacher training: classroom management, social skills of pupils and alternatives to corporal punishment.</p> <p>If particularly aggressive children are identified, interventions tailored to their needs are provided, e.g. life skills programmes or individual group work.</p>	<p>Expected outcomes and measures</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Outcomes: change in classroom practice, reductions in aggressive behaviour in children. • Measures: Programme records and records of attendance, self-reports, focus groups, observations, parent and teacher assessments. • Baseline assessment of school's functioning before taking on training, open-ended needs assessment. <p>Evaluation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formative, process and outcome evaluations are conducted. • Staff trained in evaluation methods and external evaluations are conducted every funding cycle. • Broader impact is not measured, but COPES has started a community profile; data is being gathered for a longitudinal assessment.

**TABLE 1
PROGRAMME THEORY, EVALUATION AND OUTCOME MEASURES**

PROGRAMME	PROGRAMME THEORY & RESEARCH UNDERPINNINGS	EVALUATION METHODS & MEASURES OF OUTCOME
<p>6. Educo</p>	<p>Theoretical underpinnings of the programme are very broad, drawing on Kurt Hahn, Kolb's action learning, and Coleridge as primary theoretical influences. The initial shape of the programme came from Educo International but the South African programme is considered wholly indigenous, drawing on different inputs, including wilderness experiences, adventure programmes with added metaphoric and spiritual elements. Aims to move participants from being victims of circumstances to start the process of self-awareness and personal mastery through teaching accountability, responsibility, and a sense of consequences. Programmes specialise in healing and transformation, through psychological and community healing, and offender re-integration work, etc.</p>	<p><i>Expected outcomes and measures</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expected outcomes: development of leadership and life skills, non-violent values and approaches to conflict, psychological healing. • Indicators vary according to programme type – motivation levels, school attendance, not re-offending, family harmony (not measured systematically). • Best measures: personal testimony and self-reports, sometimes years after the original wilderness encounter. Also questionnaires and focus groups targeting programme recipients, parents, deliverers and partner agencies. <p><i>Evaluation</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Large evaluation budget and evaluation is an important part of the organisation's methodology—they are a learning organisation so self-reflection is part of their daily activity. • Staff do a 3-day workshop in monitoring and evaluation, key staff more in-depth training. SA Evaluators' Forum (Evalnet) is now creating user-based, utilisation-focused evaluations, both in formative and summary formats and for Educo. • No formal external evaluation at the time of the study. However, have set up monitoring systems in the organisation (formative evaluations). Design courses with evaluation in mind, will have a system in place for when an external evaluator is brought in. • Aims to have constant formative evaluations conducted internally.

**TABLE 1
PROGRAMME THEORY, EVALUATION AND OUTCOME MEASURES**

PROGRAMME	PROGRAMME THEORY & RESEARCH UNDERPINNINGS	EVALUATION METHODS & MEASURES OF OUTCOME
<p>7.Independent Projects Trust (IPT)</p>	<p>Theory and research underpinnings are broad. IPT draws extensively from the Mennonites and Quakers. Do not subscribe to any one theory but try and test a multitude of ideas and models, attempting to find processes that have an impact on the groups with whom they work. They are beginning to capture these findings and record them, facilitated by Clive Harber at the Birmingham University School of Education, who is consolidating IPT's theoretical underpinnings. Understands school management effectiveness as a structural and social issue, hence focus on training school management to run schools better - includes mediation, conflict management, co-operative learning, participative school management, school safety & security. Feels the development of these effective skills can develop safe environments in which learning can occur.</p>	<p>Expected Outcomes and measures</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expected outcomes: safer schools - reduction in crime rate and improved feeling of safety and safer communities. • Measures of success include: programme records, records of attendance, self-reports, questionnaires. • Other measures: focus groups and police records. • Clear indicators, e.g. 50-point questionnaire used to measure what changes took place. Developed up front before programmes begin; these are externally evaluated as part of the programme. <p>Evaluation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evaluation component is always built into their budgets. Undertakes formative, process and outcome evaluations. • Evaluation is action research that includes a baseline, participation and a year-end evaluation. The formative evaluation, in the form of a 50-point questionnaire (which serves as a baseline measure), is used to assess a school's safety and then to measure what changes took place in the course of the intervention. • Outcome evaluation: Each pilot project evaluated at the end by external evaluators. • The new schools management project results will be published in a book. The services of a "colloquium of critical friends" have been built in: after the pilot period, IPT will present its findings to 12 – 13 academics and experts to critique and write articles for the book. • The organisation has struggled with how to share what they've learned and make government listen and use it. Publishing seems to achieve this – so they now make a policy of publishing as much as possible about their work, usually on the internet. The new book will be launched with a public briefing, which generates media responses and useful debate, opening up IPT's work for a broad public response.

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PROGRAMME THEORY, EVALUATION AND OUTCOME MEASURES**

PROGRAMME	PROGRAMME THEORY & RESEARCH UNDERPINNINGS	EVALUATION METHODS & MEASURES OF OUTCOME
<p>8. Khulisa</p>	<p>Programme theory very broad and based on the theory of creative thinking development and aims of the specific programmes: Programme 1: Youth development: identifying leaders and training them as role models and leaders. Programme 2: Diversion programme has a mentorship focus. Programme 3: Prison counselling, teaching 'ubuntu', drug education, teaching of emotional intelligence to warders with a view to positive morality development. Programme 4: Reintegration - involves recruiting supportive companies where ex-offenders can acquire training, jobs etc. Theory and work on community training about restorative justice is included here.</p>	<p>Expected outcomes and measures</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expected outcomes: successful employment of ex-convicts; changes in children's behaviour at school; successful mentoring or motivated mentors; rehabilitation and transformation. • Measures: school marks pre-and post-intervention (youth programme), statistics on relapses, referrals from schools and police, field surveys to track participants (ask teachers and families about changes in child's behaviour). • In prisons, mentors keep records of attendance and measure long-term participation, as do the mentors delivering the drug programmes. Each mentor has a file with a record of what was done. All record keeping is carefully monitored. • Are looking at improved ways to broaden pool of people who can give evaluative data through community questionnaires and other such tools. <p>Evaluation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Khulisa have run their own evaluation of workshops and programmes: formative, process and outcome evaluations. • Programme participants and staff evaluate either facilitators from outside Khulisa or Khulisa's own facilitators at the end of each workshop or the end of each cycle. Mentors are evaluated by the divertees. These evaluations take the form of questionnaires, pre-and post-intervention, or are administered just after a one-off workshop. Mentors are trained to administer the forms and assist attendees in completing them. • The prison programme was evaluated but it was a completely unhelpful exercise as the evaluation was poorly designed for the mobile prison population. • A computer programme has now been developed to assist the evaluation programme. No outside evaluations have been conducted yet, but a tender has been put out to complete one. •

**TABLE 1
PROGRAMME THEORY, EVALUATION AND OUTCOME MEASURES**

PROGRAMME	PROGRAMME THEORY & RESEARCH UNDERPINNINGS	EVALUATION METHODS & MEASURES OF OUTCOME
<p>9. Project for Conflict Resolution and Development (CRD)</p>	<p>Theoretical and research underpinnings are broad, drawing from the Community Board, Quakers, Morton Deutchs' early materials on peace education, ideas from the Harvard School. Indigenous materials the basis of their programmes - have put together their own conflict resolution handbook. Their ethos is action learning oriented. Programme aims to raise awareness through teaching respect for diversity and create tolerance. It links to safe and peaceable schools idea, incorporating educational and organisational issues - school governance, management, codes of conduct, etc.</p>	<p>Expected outcomes and measures Expected outcomes: development of new school safety policies, district prioritising issues; SAPS co-operation with schools, and the creation of safe schools desks.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Measures: programme records and records of attendance at workshops/training sessions. • Other measures: questionnaires, focus groups and police records, surveys, direct observation, stories, copies of policy developed. <p>Evaluation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formative, process and outcome evaluations are budgeted for and conducted by staff, and an external evaluation is carried out once every cycle (3 years). • Previous evaluations have proven very useful and have led to the successful modification of programmes.

**TABLE 1
PROGRAMME THEORY, EVALUATION AND OUTCOME MEASURES**

PROGRAMME	PROGRAMME THEORY & RESEARCH UNDERPINNINGS	EVALUATION METHODS & MEASURES OF OUTCOME
<p>10. School and Community Programme of the Quaker Peace Centre (QPC)</p>	<p>Theoretical and research underpinnings are broad and there is an emphasis on pathways to inner peace, finding the space within and moving on from there. Focus on theorising what peace is, how it can be defined, what it means, and peace and capacity-building.</p> <p>Skills of conflict resolution through assertiveness, self esteem. They work from the viewpoint that the individual must achieve personal growth, which leads to inner peace. Offer alternatives to traditional authoritarian discipline and use a 'positive discipline approach' with teachers.</p>	<p>Expected outcomes and measures</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expected outcomes: fewer children presenting behavioural problems in schools because educators use the proper language to manage them; development of self-esteem which enables people to take on more and do things differently (not measured systematically). • Measures: programme records, minutes, self-reports, questionnaires, focus groups and observation, also interviews with educators, programme recipients and programme implementers. <p>Evaluation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formative and process evaluations are carried out. • Outcomes evaluation is administered by an external evaluator at the end of the entire programme (once per cycle).

**TABLE 1
PROGRAMME THEORY, EVALUATION AND OUTCOME MEASURES**

PROGRAMME	PROGRAMME THEORY & RESEARCH UNDERPINNINGS	EVALUATION METHODS & MEASURES OF OUTCOME
<p>11.South African Ecotherapy Institute</p>	<p>Programme has broad theoretical and research underpinnings and draws extensively from indigenous materials, with the work of Jung proving an important theoretical basis. Sangomas were also consulted in providing a psychological framework. Aims to achieve healing, personal growth and psychological awareness, through promoting the realisation that participants find themselves in a projection of an internal state which they have to take personal responsibility for.</p>	<p>Expected outcomes and measures</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expected outcomes: increase in psychological awareness and personal growth, which brings about healing (not measured systematically). • Measures: personal testimony, observed changes in communities, questionnaires and focus groups with implementers and participants. <p>Evaluation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Evaluation is budgeted for, but the Institute has experienced a shortage of good evaluators. Previous experiences have been very ad hoc so far. • They have also taken a long time to develop evaluation scales, which were ultimately unsuccessful. There was no proper data collection process at the end of the evaluation and they've struggled to do something comprehensive. In the end, chunks of research have been put together "as" an evaluation but it is inadequate. • Most of their current evaluations (internal – predominantly formative and process) focus on personal growth aspects, which are seen as essential for the betterment of the programme.

Programme Aims

In his description of the logical hierarchy of programme components, Johann Louw explains that “[a]ll interventions start with the realisation...that a problem of some kind or another exists within a community....These problems are not objectively given in society. They have to be ‘made into’ social problems by one or more interest groups,” who then identify them, diagnose and define them, and lobby for their inclusion in the social agenda (Louw, 2000: 63).

Of the violence prevention programmes in South Africa that we interviewed, all described themselves as arising from a commitment to fill an absence. Response to the question, “Is there a history of PE or VP programmes in the community in which you work?” was universal. Every one of the interventions represents the first formal exposure that a community has been given to alternatives to endemic violence. Similarly, when asked, “How did you identify a need for this programme?”, all practitioners told us that their organisation’s mandate was to identify opportunities to do violence prevention or peace education, and that programme delivery began because they initiated contact with likely recipients. As a result of awareness-raising and the introduction of programmes, communities began to come forward on their own when they learned of programmes that were on offer. In the case of the longest-running organisations, demand now far outstrips their capacity to deliver programmes.

Respondents were clear that working in the complexity of post-apartheid South Africa requires the development of initiatives that are multi-focal. Sometimes, violence prevention programmes include an element of peace education, which assumes that personal transformation leads to social transformation; and sometimes they aim for school safety in the narrower sense of securing the property and persons of the school, both from external dangers and from internal violence between pupils and between teachers and pupils. According to most of the respondents, programmes tend to involve themselves in both projects since they are usually presented in communities with overwhelming needs. This section will reflect briefly on the various terms that might be used to describe programmes with such a broad ambit, and describe why we chose the term violence prevention as the best overall descriptor.

Drawing from his many years in the field, Malan (ACCORD) acknowledges in an interview that those at whom peace education is aimed, may well be “adversarially minded” (2000). He includes in his ambit both learners and educators, since in his experience resistance to non-violent educational practices comes from both quarters. He observes that, within the complexity of the South African situation, the term “peace education,” although brief, convenient and widely accepted, does not necessarily offer the clearest description of education practices that aims to construct and model positive mental attitudes (Malan, 2000).

It may at first seem convenient to use a single term to describe the work that these educators are committed to but because people’s “concepts of peace are many, varied and complex” (Dovey and Kirsten, 1993), a carefully nuanced description of the different practices and ideals that underpin “peace education” programmes is necessary. Theories about what constitutes “peace” range widely, from a “negative” definition of peace as an absence of war and violence; to an understanding that peace is a state of individual, inner contentment, which translates into successful inter-personal relationships; to a belief that peace can only be conceptualised in global terms. Definitions of “peace education” may, in fact, appear so broad as to spiral off into abstraction.

Detractors, particularly those working within the context of political repression, might argue that “peace,” and educational systems that try to promote it, are nothing more than a disguise for a process of pacification designed to make youngsters into more malleable citizens. In South Africa, this latter contention has had a significant impact on discussions about how to name co-operative types of educational philosophy. In the years of the anti-apartheid struggle, the conviction that violent conflict was the only means left to overcome systemic injustice meant that “peace education” could rarely be talked of in positive terms. Instead, recounts Malan, a name change was needed, and in some circles, the terms “conflict resolution” and “conflict studies” became acceptable substitutes to describe a form of educational practice that could both support the struggle, and yet, it was hoped, offer strategies through which to rebuild those caught up in it.

In the period since the transition to a post-apartheid state – during which all the organisations interviewed in the course of this study have been operational – discussions about terminology have continued unabated. Our interviews revealed that the broad range of views about peace education do not seem to be limiting: even if practitioners take one position, they understand and explore the usefulness of others. There is movement between theoretical perspectives and an active interest in finding the right term to describe the work that is being done.

Louw remarks that, “more attention needs to be paid to the question ‘Why should this intervention work?’” and asks that, “special attention...be paid to understand how the intervention is supposed to bring about the desired changes” (Louw, 2000:65).

Taking our cue from this observation, the first questions in the interview schedule sought to discover the aims of the programme, how they were to be achieved, why these aims had been set, and what their achievement was expected to lead to. An important part of this process was to think about the terminology that people use to describe their programmes.

Respondents were asked if they would use the term “peace education” to describe their work, because it is understood to describe an approach that is transformative and healing; involving the development of greater self-knowledge, which leads to a change in behaviour and attitudes. It is considered especially appropriate for a post-conflict context. Most programmes did not, however, use this term. Instead, they positioned themselves as violence prevention initiatives with, in some cases, a peace education component. Only one programme (CCR) claimed that the end goal of its programme was “educating for peaceful co-existence...[starting] with the self and [moving] out.”

The majority of respondents were interested in finding a more descriptive name for what they were doing. Those who did not use the term “peace education” contended that the concept, and the methods used to transmit it, is fuzzy, idealistic, and impractical in a context in which a significant number of schools, educators and learners continue to face the most profound deprivation. They were grappling with an eclectic set of aims, and felt that it was equally appropriate for them to be concerned with practical safety and violence prevention problems like the incursion of gangs onto school grounds as a result

of inadequate school fencing, as much as with more philosophical issues like the promotion of personal strategies to prevent violent conflict.

Reflecting this range of intentions, those interviewed described themselves not as peace educators per se but as using components of peace education philosophy within programmes designed to promote conflict prevention, school safety and diversion. While it may not have been their most specific area of focus, respondents saw peace building/national reconstruction as the framework in which school violence prevention programmes are situated. Only one respondent was actively opposed to being associated with peace work, stating that the term peace education “has no bite and is unable to command respect or interest” (IPT).

In summary, the most commonly held programme aims were:

- To raise awareness and change attitudes to what conflict is and how to deal with it;
- To build a new environment in which it is safe to learn;
- To train school managers to make them more efficient, as well as less prone to violent disciplinary action.

Linking these aims to the report's earlier discussion of sources of risk for the development of violent conduct (see Figures 1 and 2, pp.6-7), it seems that South African violence prevention programmes more commonly are directing their efforts towards community risk factors and resources (e.g. school quality, social support/isolation) and the developmental periods of middle childhood and adolescence.

Programme origin

In the process of problem identification, it is necessary to assess needs so that resources can be properly focused (Louw, 2000). The study sought to discover the history of VP programmes, how they had come about, why, and for whom. We asked about the theoretical underpinnings of the programmes and their development for the South African context. We were also interested to learn more about how practitioners experienced competition in the field of violence prevention, a context in which resources may be growing scarcer.

All the programmes we interviewed began in the 1990s, the earliest being the Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation. It worked in schools from its inception in 1988,

although its most current initiative was only consolidated in 1994. The Independent Projects Trust began to work in schools in 1990, the Centre for Conflict Resolution started its schools programme in 1991, the Ecotherapy Institute (a division of the Peace Accord Trust) in 1992. The other programmes were all started after the official transition to democracy in 1994.

The intellectual underpinnings of the eleven programmes were similar, in that practitioners were generally well versed in (Anglophone) international peace education theories and practices, drawing extensively from work done in the United States, Britain, and Australia. Three programmes had been developed outside South Africa and adapted for local use (AVP, Educo, QPC); the rest described themselves as indigenous but able to draw freely from international and local practices. In the case of one programme, an early attempt to replicate a violence prevention programme developed in the US was described as only partly successful, although elements of this early work have remained influential in the adaptation of the project to suit local conditions (COPES).

Most respondents described a sense that they were part of a community of like-minded individuals and this has facilitated a sense of a common intellectual purpose in determining methodological approaches, programme content, and more recently, accreditation. Practitioners had a high number of monthly contacts with others working in the field, and it was felt that information and resource sharing was unusually generous, even though financial resources are felt to be fairly scarce. In particular, there was a high level of communication about best practices and strategies for sharing materials and research results produced in different parts of the country.

Our respondents almost universally felt that there was more work than any of them could have handled alone: they were happy to know of other initiatives to which they could refer interested clients. In all cases, projects were described as being grounded in a commitment to indigenous healing, epistemological and violence prevention practices, with some respondents reporting that strategies developed in South Africa are now being replicated in other parts of the world (CCR, QPC).

One of the most interesting phenomena was a high level of commitment to working within the framework of the SAQA to accredit programmes and receive some kind of formal recognition of the skills acquired by those who completed them. Khulisa and the Quaker Peace Centre had made the greatest strides towards receiving accreditation for their manuals and programmes. Khulisa was the only programmes interviewed that has developed a system in which successful participants (young offenders in their last year of imprisonment) “participate in an intense programme with the ultimate view of being placed in jobs after release.”

The move towards formal accreditation is in line with the Directorate for Education’s commitment to better negotiate the movement between national policy and the local use of it (Prew, interview). Prew pointed out that school development planning has shown that localised issues, and solutions, can be generalised. But the question is always, ‘what richness do you lose in making it broader and wider?’ How can the essence of a particular programme be distilled so that space is left for other richness to develop? The Directorate holds that it is critical to create a framework that is not prescriptive but is nonetheless clear. At the same time, it is essential to maintain some control while encouraging local innovation. Violence prevention programmes seeking to concretise their work through SAQA accreditation are therefore playing a significant role in supporting the Directorate’s goal of rolling out proven and reliable programmes of action.

Another important indicator of the growing professionalism of the VPE field can be seen in the fact that practitioners are highly committed to working with tertiary institutions. The majority described using academics as their local experts, through whom they honed their programme delivery and evaluation strategies. Some have used student workers engaged in practicum work as volunteers (COPES; Ecotherapy Institute, QPC). Three programmes were actively involved in tertiary education: ACCORD runs an Honours level programme in peace studies at the University of the Western Cape. The Quaker Peace Centre has become increasingly involved in in-service teacher training, working at the Cape Technikon with second and third year student teachers, training them in the skills of “positive discipline” strategies, which do not involve physical coercion, for better classroom management. The Ecotherapy Institute runs training programmes for the Universities of Stellenbosch and Natal.

In summary, the majority of programmes we interviewed, were:

- Indigenous (local) initiatives which originated in the transition period or after the end of apartheid to deal specifically with South African problems;
- Community-based but willing and able to work with tertiary institutions and the SAQA.

Programme resources/sustainability

Increasingly, as budgets tighten, questions are being raised about whether psychosocial interventions are efficient (Louw, 2000: 70). Accordingly, our next set of questions aimed to discover how money was raised and allocated, how much programmes cost, whether evaluation was budgeted for, and how sustainable practitioners thought their programmes were.

In general, VP programmes are financed through a mix of national and international funding, and there is a general perception that funding sources are drying up, necessitating more creative strategies such as selling resources, charging for workshops, outsourcing to formal structures such as the Department of Education or SAPS, and others. The bulk of programme costs are made up by staff salaries and other core costs. Nine of the programmes interviewed had a specific budget for evaluation and considered it to be their most significant site of spending. This is despite the fact that evaluation practice was not strong in most instances. In most cases, the programmes were thought to be financially sustainable with continued careful management and a commitment to ever-greater professionalism.

As Louw (2000: 70) points out, it is technically difficult to ascertain whether a programme is ultimately worth its cost. In the case of VP programmes, where a high premium is placed on individual transformation, it may prove exceedingly difficult to express the relationship between costs and effectiveness in monetary terms. This was one area of concern in the interviews: that none of the programmes we talked to had yet developed a satisfactory mechanism to ascertain their cost-effectiveness, especially in terms of their broad impact in the community. One of our recommendations, therefore, is that more energy be put into answering the question, “who might be impacted on in addition to the target group, and how can this impact be measured?”

Programme trainers and implementers

We were interested to learn more about the demographics of the programmes under review, and asked interviewees to describe the gender, race, age and educational ability of their staff, the importance they placed in volunteer labour, their strategies for ensuring programme implementation and continuity in schools, and finally, whether or not implementers were trained to identify and deal with manifestations of severe psychological problems.

As might be anticipated from programmes whose aim is to modify people's core values, all the programmes paid particular attention to achieving broad representation in their staff. Black South Africans were the most represented group in most programmes, followed by coloureds and then whites. One programme's respondents identified white indifference as one reason for their demographic make-up (QPS), whereas others regarded their recruitment as reflecting the needs of the communities with which they would be working.

An interesting picture of the gendered division of labour emerged: in some organisations, women are over-represented but little attention has been paid to why (AVP). Some respondents put their gender ratio down to perceptions that peace building and childcare are "women's work" in which men are unwilling to participate (QPC, CCR), others to the fact that the lower salaries paid to women ghettoises them into NGO work (CRD), and still others to the fact that men simply didn't like the environment of VPE (IPT). Some organisations had made specific efforts to attract male workers: this was described as a deliberate strategy "because we need positive male role models to do children's work specifically" (COPES). In others, the fact that the population with which they worked was predominantly male had skewed their gender ratio towards men (Khulisa). Still others reported that men did not seem to find the VP environment a friendly one in which to work, and mentioned that deliberate strategies need to be developed to attract more male workers, especially when a focus of the programme is gender-based violence (IPT, QPC).

There was an equally varied response to the question about what programme recipients and implementers tend to look like. Again, predominantly black and coloured teachers attend workshops, and the ratio of women to men is skewed. There was some discussion about principals' expectations that women would be better suited to attend

VP courses because of their supposed predisposition to peaceable classroom management strategies (CCR).

The tendency to dismiss men as caregivers, or to mistrust their motives when they come forward for training, was specifically remarked on by Mr. Prew, who identified one of the goals of the National Directorate of Education as “redefining what masculinity is.” As a start, the “Captain Crimestop” figure has been reviewed and rejected as a role model because it emphasises traditionally masculine ways of coping with conflict. Making teachers aware of avoiding the endemic levels of sexualised violence in South African schools is another major project of the Department of Education, and should be prioritised in all training offered to educators and school managers.

On the question of how well-equipped staff were to handle extraordinary psychological damage, those respondents whose programmes were not in themselves therapeutic (Educo, Ecotherapy Institute) were clear that referral mechanisms were carefully set in place before a programme began. Two mentioned that staff went through a debriefing process after a workshop (AVP, Khulisa).

Programme recipients

Respondents were next asked to describe the recipients of their interventions, why this target group was chosen, how workshop participants were identified, whether any were barred from attending and how this exclusion was managed, and finally, whether a financial contribution was expected from workshop attendees.

There were four responses to the questions. Some practitioners reported a shift in their target audience, from learners to educators; as they gained awareness of how school hierarchies function. They described how they learned, in the course of offering their programmes, that educators and school management trained in VP methods were the most effective means to reach learners (CCR, COPES, IPT. As a result of this shift, school management was the only target group of the latter).

Several remarked that teachers find it difficult to handle children who “know more” than they do, and observed that such teachers were unresponsive to initiatives aimed at learners as primary targets. Programmes have been modified to accommodate, and in the process overcome, this hierarchical frame of reference, an approach which is more

in line with “whole school” approaches that target the entire school community, including learners, parents, educators and management (CRD). A third group, which includes programmes that are not offered on school premises, described their target audience as “anyone who wants the programme” (AVP, Ecotherapy Institute, Educo). In the case of Khulisa, a programme that specifically targets prisoners, screening processes are fairly tight as the goal is to train people for gainful employment. Participants in this programme “need grade 10, proficiency in English, have committed a crime of a non-violent nature, a clear record in prison, and a minimum of 1.5 yrs left after a sentence of not more than 3 years” (Khulisa).

Because attendance at VP programmes is often self-motivated, and because such programmes are usually instituted after a public consultation process in which the potential of a programme is outlined, the respondents did not generally experience problems with having to screen potential recipients out of their programmes. Educo Africa, however, did mention as an important lesson learned the development of a screening process for those wishing to attend their courses.

Lack of financial resources was not cited as a reason to exclude people: most programmes heavily subsidise the cost of workshops, although in a number of instances, a small fee is charged to increase individual or community buy-in and commitment to completing the course (AVP, CCR, Educo, IPT, QPC).

Programme rationale (theoretical and research underpinnings)

To succeed, it is necessary for psychosocial interventions to develop a clear theoretical basis, and moreover, to be able to articulate that basis clearly (Louw, 2000: 66). Our next intention was to identify how programme goals and objectives are determined and achieved, and to hear how practitioners explain what they are doing. Respondents were asked to describe how their programme goals were met, what theories underpinned these goals, and to outline how they hoped programme recipients would be changed by attending the programme (see Table 1, pp.22-32 for a summary of the theoretical and research underpinnings of various programmes interviewed).

In general, respondents described an eclectic theoretical underpinning to their work, in that they felt free to draw from a variety of different approaches in planning their

programmes. However, there was often vagueness concerning how they had evolved the particular programme theory they used. Following Louw, we conclude that greater attention to evaluation would be of significant benefit in helping practitioners explain more clearly what it is that makes their intervention work (Louw, 2000: 66).

There was, however, a high level of awareness of the need to distinguish between immediate outcomes – the learning of skills such as effective classroom and school management (CRD, IPT) or personal assertiveness (QPC) – and impacts, or the capacity for long-term change. In the majority of cases the ultimate programme goal was impact-based, referring to the promotion of individual self-transformation. This included a capacity to take responsibility for oneself (Ecotherapy Institute, Educo), to shift perspectives and move forward from past trauma (AVP, CRD, CCR, COPES) and to develop strategies for dealing with new manifestations of violence (CSVV).

Programme evolution

The achievement of long-term behavioural changes requires that interventions are sustainable; but a sustainable programme, if it is being effectively evaluated, will also be one that demonstrates changes over time (Louw, 2000). To determine how programmes are gathering information about their effectiveness, and modify and reapply their activities accordingly, we asked respondents to comment on the programme's evolution: to explain whether and why the stakeholders or the target audience had changed over time, to consider how past experience had influenced current practices, and finally, to comment on how they might have avoided any errors they had made in developing their programmes.

One significant change that was reported had to do with target audience: in two cases, a programme had started by focusing on youths and soon realised that this target group would not ultimately maintain the programme's goals "as the hierarchy of knowledge flows away from learners. Also, this focus failed to take into account that educators themselves are often survivors of violence who need to be empowered before they can embrace the policies of the programme" (CCR; IPT). In the case of IPT, another lesson learned was that it is school management who offer the best chance of sustainable change.

Several programmes commented on having become “more South African in focus,” a process which one respondent described as having made her organisation “amazingly adaptable and flexible” (AVP). Others described the increasingly indigenous heart of their work as having come from a better understanding of local conditions. Creating opportunities for employment in the process of healing memories was a goal common to several of the programmes (Ecotherapy Institute, Educo, Khulisa). Educo explained how this had directly influenced the evolution of the programme:

“The initial focus was generalised to leadership and personal development but the programme soon changed in response to our recognition that healing work was specifically necessary. So now a whole section of additional programmes specialise in healing and transformation (psychological and community healing and offender re-integration work for at risk people). We now focus on skills development – offering opportunities to develop experiential learning skills.... We focus on employment and employability, in response to the ongoing South African crises.”

A few programmes described the achievement of ever-greater clarity, focus, and organisation as their major sites of change (CCR, CRD, QPC). All respondents noted an increasingly systematic connection to other, similar programmes, institutes of tertiary education, national initiatives and/or governmental departments. This was seen as an indication of the growing professionalism in the field of VP. Similarly, respondents reported becoming stricter in their expectations of workshop attendees, more committed to overcome the challenges of sustainability, and considerably more aware of the need to document initiatives and distribute news of their outcomes.

To our final question, of what they might have done differently, respondents indicated a number of areas of learning. Most common among them was recognition of the importance of debriefing after workshops. This is to prevent burnout and promote mentoring and personal growth among programme providers while guaranteeing better evaluations/reports. Several respondents spoke of the difficulty of using volunteers to run workshops, especially in a country with such high levels of unemployment (AVP, CSV, Khulisa). Khulisa has resolved this problem by refusing to use volunteer labour at all.

The wilderness programmes both commented on the difficulty of expecting programmes such as theirs to stand alone: they have now developed careful strategies to support people when they return to their communities (Ecotherapy Institute, Educo; see also

Roberts, not dated). Those involved with work in prisons (AVP, Khulisa) also spoke of the importance of developing broad-based support structures for programme recipients.

Another comment related to time management: many respondents observed that it was important to have time to digest what is learned in each workshop (AVP, CCR), to write it up in publishable form (COPEs, CRD, CSVr, IPT, Khulisa), and to retrain trainers whenever necessary. Several programmes commented particularly on the importance of needs/baseline assessments in the preparatory period before a programme is instituted. Another valuable lesson was described as having learned to take time in setting the groundwork in place before training commences.

Models of delivery

Respondents were also asked about the duration of their programmes, whether they offered follow-up sessions, where the programme was located and why, and if it could be replicated in other locations. Finally, they were asked to describe the methods used in the delivery of the programme.

Reflecting international preferences for sustainable long-term interventions (Flannery and Williams, 1999), some programmes run from eighteen months to three years (COPEs, CRD, CSVr, IPT, Khulisa). Those who offer a mostly workshop-based approach (AVP, CCR, Educo, Ecotherapy Institute) tended towards short but intense interventions lasting from three to ten days and used a variety of follow-up mechanisms, such as refresher workshops or school visits, to maintain lessons learned.

Programme outcomes, impacts and measures of success

Several programmes commented on the importance of baseline assessments in the preparatory period before a programme is instituted, and a valuable lesson was described as having learned to take time in setting the groundwork in place before implementation. However, few of the programmes actually started in this way.

All the respondents felt that the programmes they offered had an impact beyond the individuals they trained. One respondent felt that the effect was qualitative, not quantitative, and is best seen in a “reduction in crime in schools and improved feelings of safety in target schools” (IPT). This was echoed in a comment that learners change

when “educators use the proper language to manage them” (QPC). It was felt that the training spreads “through people’s future relationships” (CCR) both at home and school, and through broader professional connections: “We hope teachers might share things with other teachers and we encourage this especially” (COPES). Another felt that parents were impacted “because their kid’s behaviour changes. Children grow and leave those behind who don’t mature with them, and they become less troublesome” (QPC).

However, it was evident from the interviews that it was very difficult for programmes to provide objective evidence of these claims. Indeed, while most programmes believed they were having an effect as a result of informal feedback, they did not attempt to measure this effect. The Khulisa programme is an exception to this trend as it uses mentors to speak to family members and record their responses to changes in the person participating in the programme.

Those who had not found concrete measures to assess their broader impact were nevertheless engaged in considering how to do this. The IPT interviewee remarked that:

“Measuring effectiveness is quite difficult, especially if you work in schools that don’t keep effective records. In such cases, sometimes it looks like violence has worsened but in reality, people are talking more about their experiences. Denial has been a strategy for coping with violence in schools since a cover-up is one way to keep them running; and it’s hard to overcome that tendency” (IPT).

The CCR responded similarly:

“It’s pretty difficult to evaluate the impact of the programme, because how do you measure the effect of how personal empowerment moves into broader empowerment? Can you measure the effect of one person implementing the strategies in her/his class if a whole school doesn’t follow suit? What if the greatest impact is felt on a group you didn’t even target – how do you work out what personal changes a person has been able to make in her/his home life? Also, the programme encourages cross-pollination between schools in very different areas, which sometimes leads to new coalitions of which the CCR might be unaware.”

Responses to the questions about positive and negative impacts were very thoughtful, with most respondents offering concrete instances of having learned useful lessons in the process of instituting programmes. The CCR had an experience with “some educators who come for training because they are seen as trouble-makers in their own schools: they want to develop strategies to overcome their own social isolation but when they return to their schools their efforts are tainted by their past history and no-one wants

to work with them.” This experience, which may well indicate problems with the CCR’s screening process, has been successfully solved by “a kind of ‘cross-pollination’ whereby the skills of such teachers can be used in less tainted spaces” (CCR). Others identified similar difficulties with finding people to take their work forward. The most challenging reflection on this issue came from the Ecotherapy Institute:

“It’s hard to find competent people to work in the field – many people have the physical skills but can’t relate to the psychological work, facilitate growth, etc. Doing this programme relies on a huge base of skills. We under-estimated, in the beginning, how difficult it would be to find appropriate people. We’d make assumptions about someone’s skills and be wrong: then we’d fall behind and have to rebuild.

Most strangely, as people started to succeed in the wilderness, so they encountered greater resistance/non-acceptance from those they lived with in their communities, who would try to sabotage their growth, or undermine them to the point where they self-sabotage. Wilderness leaders (mostly men) were seen as getting above themselves and needing to be disciplined. This problem eventually became so prevalent that we had to cater for it. We had to be cautious about how to identify people and to anticipate a broad spectrum of potential outcomes when training them. This has been the most painful and difficult problem to deal with – it’s counter-intuitive that a community would resent the development of its own members but we have watched our work being undone and seen people being personally damaged in the process.”

The most commonly expressed positive impact of the programmes on offer was surprise and delight that profound changes could be seen in people in a very short time, as well as awe that these programmes are so highly regarded and eagerly received by the community.

On the question as to whether there were any other spin-offs of the programmes, respondents reported new initiatives on HIV/AIDS and gender-based violence, as well as on substance abuse (AVP, COPES, CRD, CSV, Ecotherapy, Educo, Khulisa, QPC). Only three organisations reported that it was not in their mandate to take on these broader issues (ACCORD, CCR, IPT). These responses are further evidence that South African VP programmes are committed to continually evolving their approach to present appropriate strategies for managing emerging social crises.

Programme evaluation

Our focus on methods of evaluation was particularly strong. Following Louw (2000: 60), we believe that the incorporation of “an evaluative way of thinking into...everyday

activities” while “integrat[ing] evaluation into programme processes, to strengthen the intervention and make the evaluation a built-in part of it” is the best means to improve performance and establish whether interventions are making a difference.

For good practice to be identified, sustained, and replicated, evaluation must be centrally integrated into the design and delivery of VP initiatives. Yet international reports have shown that evaluation studies of school conflict prevention programmes are somewhat scarce because they are difficult to do, time consuming and costly. As a result, claims of success may rely solely on anecdotal evidence that improvements are felt after an intervention has taken place.

At present, we do not know if this is the case in South Africa. Certainly, there is a significant commitment to evaluation (within financial constraints) on the part of the Directorate for Education, which is trying to build internal capacity to do evaluation, conducting ongoing research – which in itself needs an evaluation component – and putting in place major baseline studies to look at what the impact of currently in place programmes and evaluation strategies are. The DOE is also building evaluation processes into all projects with which it works (Prew interview).

While this leadership is encouraging, a central goal of this research was to investigate how such ambitions are being translated into practice. We wanted to find out how seriously VPE practitioners have thought through the problems by attending programme evaluation, and to identify the strategies they have developed to overcome these problems. In our next set of questions we thus asked respondents to describe the kind of evaluation they were doing (whether formative evaluations, process evaluations or outcome evaluations), whether, when and how the measurement of programme outcomes was built into programme delivery, how success was measured, when an evaluation was undertaken, and by whom. We also asked respondents to comment on the quality of evaluations undergone by their programme (if any), the usefulness of such evaluations for programme development, and the tools used in the evaluation process.

Both the need for evaluation and successful processes to undertake evaluation studies was recognised. Among our respondents, only two did not undertake any formal internal evaluation at all (CCR and the Ecotherapy Institute), although both programmes had

experienced at least one external evaluation. In neither case was the external evaluation considered entirely helpful, as it was felt that external evaluators had done too little to prepare themselves for their work, had run out of time, and had missed many of the most valuable nuances of the programmes they were assessing. We infer from these respondents that their pre-existing scepticism about the difficulty and utility of evaluation was reinforced by the evaluations they have experienced thus far.

Seven programmes reported that the measurement of the outcome of the programme is explicitly built into the process, so they undertake the full spectrum of evaluations – formative, process and outcome – as well as external evaluations (AVP, COPES, CRD, CSV, IPT, Khulisa, QPC). All seven respondents were able to offer concrete examples of how their programmes have benefited from the evaluation process, and all of them are striving to improve their evaluation processes along with the programmes they deliver.

The measurement of recipient outcomes was, however, vague, with most programmes reporting that it is too difficult to measure the extent to which individuals may have changed after attending a workshop or course. Most, as a result, rely on word of mouth or other forms of testimony to measure recipient impact. These are weak forms of evaluation, and despite these programmes' belief that they are evaluating their work, sound evaluation priorities, particularly good baseline and outcome measures are commonly absent.

There was a general consensus (also expressed by the DOE) that there is a paucity of good external evaluators in South Africa and that external evaluations do not always produce as much useful feedback as those conducted internally. Perhaps as a result of this problem, there was a high level of commitment to training programme implementers to develop and manage their own evaluation processes. Focus groups were reported as one of the most appropriate forums for conducting evaluations, because it was felt that there is a tendency in South Africa for people to be intimidated by questionnaires requiring written responses. Whether this is correct or not is mute. The onus of writing up reports thus falls squarely on the workshop facilitator, and many programmes have paid particular attention in their "training of trainers" to simplify and professionalise this process (AVP, COPES, CSV, Educo, Khulisa).

High-tech solutions to overcome the constraints on evaluation, such as a lack of time and money, are being actively investigated: Khulisa has developed a computer programme to assist in keeping records and other evaluation data, and IPT has utilised the internet to facilitate evaluation studies, having placed online a 50-point questionnaire to assist in the development and measurement of indicators for a successful intervention. Similarly, AVP connects its programme implementers via the internet.

Finally, as is mentioned above, discussions about evaluation addressed the question of how to overcome the perceived discontinuity between theory and practice that has traditionally dogged VPE programmes. It was generally felt that one means to address this problem is to put more energy into sharing the results of different interventions (which is why respondents were so willing to participate in this research). In this area, IPT has made the greatest strides forward: having struggled with how to share the results of their evaluation studies, especially for the use by government institutions, they have made a policy of publishing as much as possible about their work, both in book form and online.

Their objective is to build a sound basis of academic knowledge about what they are doing, as well as to generate media responses and useful debate by raising issues in the public domain where it is open to broad, public response. In our view, their experience should be harnessed to overcome what Prew (National Department of Education) described as “the ongoing problem of a lack of documented evidence of what’s happening” in VPE programmes in South Africa.

CONCLUSION

Undertaking violence prevention and peace education in a country as fraught with historical injustices and contemporary social challenges as South Africa is a complex and often frustrating task.

Due to our limited programme sample, we cannot answer the question posed: "how are we doing in South Africa with regard to quality violence prevention programmes?" A few programmes employed pre-post testing to establish change. However, only COPES utilised a control group design. If this observation reflects a more general trend,

measurement of programme outcomes and programme evaluation is one area that needs serious attention.

The study has several major limitations. As has been mentioned, the absence of a comprehensive South African database made it impossible for us to contact as large a number of programmes as we had initially hoped. Furthermore, some practitioners were reluctant to discuss their programmes. A few ascribed this reluctance to time constraints, while others failed to offer any explanation for their unwillingness to be interviewed.

Therefore, a shortcoming of this study, as a result of these limitations, is its geographic narrowness. We were only able to contact programmes in the Western and Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and Gauteng, and received no leads to initiatives in any of the other five provinces, although the Director of the Directorate for Education Management and Governance Development in Pretoria, was able to inform us about programmes in those areas. Problematically, then, is the fact that urban-based programmes are over-represented in this report, and we are unable to offer any conclusions about the state of violence prevention initiatives in the nation as a whole. One of our recommendations (see below), as a result of our experiences in undertaking this study, is that the question of how to establish and maintain a countrywide VPE database should be urgently revisited.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Shortly before the interviews for this report were concluded, the Open Society Foundation for South Africa published an extremely comprehensive review of eight interventions in South Africa, *Preventing Crime and Violence in South African Schools* (Griggs, 2002). The report proposes eight best practices for the VPE community, all of which are consonant with our findings:

1. Educators must be thoroughly trained in the use of learner support materials on VPE so that programmes are sustainable;
2. Research-based resources, information and training must be offered on the subject of drug education so that schools can play a greater part in the prevention of substance abuse and related problems;

3. Democratic school management must be facilitated by better training and resources, and nurtured through community partnerships so that school security plans can be developed, implemented and sustained;
4. Recognise that many learners (and educators) are traumatised and need healing and introspection as well as skills for anger management;
5. Active learning techniques work best in helping schools and communities learn new ways of taking ownership of problems and finding solutions;
6. Learners (and educators) need specific training in how to identify, understand and reject gender-based violence;
7. Democratic classroom management techniques should be taught to parents so that behaviours that promote pro-social behaviours can also be modelled at home;
8. School safety teams are key to the development, implementation and maintenance of school security plans, and resources must be directed towards their training (Griggs, 2002).

To this highly comprehensive list, we would add these additional points:

9. We propose, that another attempt is made to create and maintain a comprehensive database of all VPE programmes in South Africa. This would not only facilitate contact between organisations operating in this area but would also, with careful planning and sufficient stakeholder buy-in, provide a means to monitor and more systematically evaluate existing programmes and design new ones. The Department of Education, which is currently establishing a comprehensive call-in centre for school security, would seem a logical place to house and develop this national database.
10. Programmes should try to articulate how they had evolved the programme theory they used, and locate the design and delivery of their work in relevant current research literature. Links between research, theory, policy and practice should thus be made clearer.
11. We recommend regional meetings of VP practitioners (facilitated by an umbrella organisation such as the Directorate for Education) to strengthen their connections, to allow for a better exchange of information and resources, and time for self-reflection in a nurturing environment. Such

meetings would also help to break the log-jams that are occurring in some areas where well-known organisations cannot manage the amount of work they are being offered but at the same time do not know of potential partner organisations in their areas of operation.

12. In the interests of better disseminating research, we would recommend that the Department of Education, or one of its affiliates, undertake to improve its website as a first-level resource for information on what is being done and written in the field of VP in South Africa. Training and access to computer technology, in return for regular web reports, could become an important strategy to overcome the problems of lack of documentation and inadequate evaluation that have been identified by the DOE as priority areas. The success achieved by organisations such as Khulisa and IPT in utilising computer technology to facilitate their work deserves attention. How can their technological expertise and resources be shared with others in the field?
13. Respondents raised the concern that VP programmes are too overwhelmed in the struggle to survive to undertake enough lobbying and advocacy work. Strategies, such as regional networks, should be developed to overcome their inadequate political activism.
14. Finally, attention should be focused on training external evaluators, especially due to the crucial links between evaluation and the clear articulation of programme theory.

The Griggs Report alludes to the difficulty of forging alliances between NGOs in an environment characterised by competition for resources (Griggs, 2002). We found, by contrast, a high level of willingness to co-operate and share information and materials. The frequency of contacts between the organisations we interviewed suggests that firm relationships have already been founded but that they are often being informally maintained.

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APPENDIX A: THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Peace Education and Violence Prevention Schedule

A Programme aims

1. Which of the following best describes the aims of the programme?

- a. violence reduction/prevention (clinical – individual change)
- b. peace education (group transformation)
- c. training for VR
- d. training for PE
- e. awareness-raising
- f. school safety
- g. directing of services (e.g. to hotlines, NICRO etc.)
- h. other

How do you achieve these aims?

Why do you do this work?

What do you hope to change?

B Programme origin

Give a brief history of the implementing organisation.

Which of the following best describes why the project came about, and who decided this work needed to be done:

- a. peace education or violence prevention is a/the mandate of the organisation
- b. community requested it
- c. perception of need from educators or other community leaders which

- . led them to actively seek out opportunities for training
- d availability of resources, e.g., being offered training, having access to
- . time and money
- e personal commitment/conviction, e.g., an educator who drove the
- . process because of personal beliefs
- f. other

Is there a history of PE or VP programmes in the community in which you work?

If not, how did you identify a need for this programme?

How did you incorporate the history of your recipient community into the programme?

Were the programme recipients consulted in the development process?

Did you use a ready-made package or develop your own tools?

Whose work/theories proved most useful in developing the programme?

To what extent do you network with other organisations doing similar work to this? Does contact/consultation with them play a part in the way your programme works?

How many contacts have you had with other organisations in the last month? In the last six months? In the last year?

Do you experience a sense of competition or co-operation in the PE/VP field?

Can you talk about it and what it means for your programme's success?

If there are other stakeholders involved in this programme, which of the following do they include:

- a. Department of Education
- b. Department of Community Safety
- c. Department of Sport and Recreation
- d. Department of Social Services / and Poverty Alleviation
- e. SAPS

Nat	Prov	

Please describe the racial, social and educational background of your trainers and implementers.

Please estimate the division of labour with regard to gender. How do you think this gender ratio came about?

Are differences in race, class, gender, geographic location, religion, sexual orientation, physical or intellectual disability, addressed in the training sessions?

Are trainers equipped to identify psychological problems that are outside the scope of the programme? Do they ever refer individuals to more therapeutic programmes as a result?

E Programme recipients

Please describe the programme's intended recipients (specify age, demographics and other descriptors).

Why did you choose to target this group?

How do you identify potential recipients of the programme? What criteria do you use?

What criteria do you use to screen recipients into the programme, or out of the programme?

Do people pay to participate in the training?

F Programme rationale (theoretical and research underpinnings)

Can you sketch how your programme is intended to work? How do you understand the connections between the inputs and outcome(s) of the programme? (Draw a diagram or mind-map if it helps you).

How do you hope people will have changed after experiencing this programme?

What new skills will they have learned?

Is there a specific theoretical model underpinning your work? How did you choose this model?

G Programme evolution

In what ways has the programme changed over the years, and why?

o. other

I Programme outcomes

Do you know, or can you guess, who might be impacted in addition to the target group?

Is it possible to measure this impact?

Is it an objective of the programme to measure this impact?

If so, how is it being done (e.g. through community surveys)?

Which of the following best describe how positive outcomes are being/will be sustained?

a through booster sessions

.

b through other means of follow-up

.

c through the formation of support groups, e.g., for parents

.

d through the ongoing support of existing community structures and referral services

e other

.

If there are fewer positive outcomes than anticipated, can you identify why?

Please describe any unexpected negative impacts of the programme.

Please describe any unexpected positive impacts of the programme.

Are opportunities created for youth development and economic advancement as an alternative to violence? If so, which of the following best describes these spin-offs:

a leadership skills training

.

- b youths job/skills training offered
- .
- c organised sport
- .
- d poverty alleviation skills (e.g., growing food gardens)
- .
- e community service initiatives developed
- .
- f. other

Does the programme provide opportunities to address other social problems such as substance abuse or gender-based violence?
 Is this a core part of the programme or is it handled through some other mechanism, e.g. referral? If so, what?

J Programme evaluation

There are various kinds of evaluation. Which of the following best describes the kind of evaluation you are doing (if any)?

Formative evaluations. These inform the development of the programme (formative techniques are usually used before an intervention is fully implemented in order to modify it. Processes can include focus groups, interviews with community leaders and youth, observation of communities and neighbourhoods to plan strategies);

Process evaluations. These involve finding out what services are actually delivered to the target population (e.g., does the programme keep records on the number of youths, parents, teachers & others served over time; does it keep information on the background of participants such as age, gender, neighbourhood, etc.);

Outcome evaluations. These show what has changed in the time from before the intervention is implemented to post implementation (pre-post differences). These

evaluations need to be able to prove that changes are a result of the intervention and not other factors.

None of the above.

Is the measurement of programme outcomes built into programme delivery?

Why? How? How often? When: in the programme, after the programme? How long after?

If not, why not?

How do you know if you have succeeded in your goals? What are the indicators of success or failure?

How long does an evaluation take?

Are any of your staff members trained in evaluation methods?

If not, who evaluates the programme? How are evaluators chosen?

Please describe your reactions to any evaluations that have been conducted: were they accurate, useful and informative?

What are some of the challenges experienced in evaluating the programme?

If evaluations are conducted, is the programme modified based on feedback?

Which of the following best describes who is interviewed in the course of the evaluation?

a learners

.

b educators

.

c programme recipients

.

d parents

.

e religious leaders

.

f. policing forums

g programme deliverers

APPENDIX B: INTERVIEWEE LIST AND BRIEF DESCRIPTIONS OF PROGRAMMES

ACCORD: Bellville Schools Programme (BSP) and UWC Honours BA module in Conflict Studies (UWC).

Contact person: Jannie Malan, malanj@accord.org.za; 021-919-0909

Alternatives to Violence Programme (AVP). Gauteng and national. Started in South Africa in 1995.

Contact person: Margaret Roper, roperm@mweb.co.za, 011-646-3535.

(Peace education; also working in juvenile justice system).

Centre for Conflict Resolution (CCR). Cape Town

Contact details: Pepe Hendricks, pepe@ccr.uct.co.za; 021-422-2512

or Val Dovey 021-671-2300

(General peace education training)

Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSV), School Violence Programme. Gauteng

Contact person: Dorothy Mdhluli, dmdhluli@csvr.org.za; 011-403-5650

(Violence prevention and school safety, especially in Soweto).

Community Psychological Empowerment Services (COPES). Cape Town.

(part of Trauma Centre for Victims of Violence and Torture and New World Foundation)

Contact person: Erica Jacobs; Erica@tc-children.org.za; 021-701-1150

(Working with primary school children and educators; emphasis on positive discipline and classroom management).

Educo. Cape Town.

Contact details: Marian Goodman, marian@educo.org.za

7 Dalegarth Rd, Plumstead, 7800. Tel: 761-8939.

(Wilderness therapy initiative/Diversion programme).

Independent Projects Trust (IPT). KwaZulu-Natal.

Contact details: Iole Matthews; 031-3058422 ; iolem@iafrica.com;

www.ipt.co.za

(School safety; specific work with SGBs and other management).

Khulisa. Gauteng.

Contact details: Lesley-Ann Vanselm, info@khulisaservices.co.za; 011-788

8237

(Diversion and violence prevention; works with at risk youths in schools and youths in prisons).

Project For Conflict Resolution and Development (CRD). Port Elizabeth.

Contact details: Michael Bendle. 041-363 5651. michael@pcrd.org.za

(Violence prevention; specific work with school management; work in rural areas).

School and Community Programme of the Quaker Peace Centre (QPC).

Cape Town.

Contact person: Elvira Ford, Elvira@qpc.org.za; 021-685-7800

(Working on positive discipline; highly involved with in-service training).

South African Ecotherapy Institute (part of National Peace Accord Trust).

Cape Town.

Contact details: Gavin Robertson, gavinrobertson@bigfoot.com or

npatgr@sn.apc.org

021-790-1795.

(Wilderness therapy).