

PROPOSED PROGRAM FOR  
HOME ECONOMICS EXTENSION  
IN SWAZILAND

by *CC*

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## CHAPTER I

### A DESCRIPTION OF SWAZILAND

The information about Swaziland in this section was reported in the Swaziland Report for the Year 1964 (25).

#### Location, Size and Population

Swaziland lies to the east of the Republic of South Africa and to the west of the Portuguese territory of Mozambique. It has an area of 6,705 square miles measuring less than 120 miles from north to south, and less than 90 miles from east to west. The total population of about 300,000 is unevenly distributed. About 17 percent of the people live in the ten urban areas, the largest of which has 8,400 and the smallest 1,900 inhabitants. Eighty-three per cent of the population is in the rural areas where the highest population densities are close to 300 persons per square mile. The national average population density is 42 per square mile. There is a definite trend toward urbanization, but for many decades to come the rural population will continue to be a large proportion of the total.

#### Brief History and Political Status

The Swazis made their first contact with Europeans about 1845. King Mswati, who died in 1868, was the last of the truly independent Swazi rulers. Thereafter, the course of events in other parts of southern Africa

changed the traditional pattern of Swazi life. In 1902 at the end of the Anglo-Boer War, Swaziland became a British protectorate. A constitution for Swaziland was established by Great Britain in 1963, and independence is expected by September, 1968.

### Climate

Situated just outside the Tropic of Capricorn, Swaziland has a subtropical climate. The winters are cool to warm, with 60°F and 72°F as the mean annual temperatures for the Highveld and Lowveld, respectively. More than 75 percent of the rainfall occurs during the warm summer months. The mean annual rainfall ranges from 20 inches in the Lowveld to 90 inches in the Highveld.

### Occupations and Wages in Swaziland

Cash income is limited for families in the rural areas. The sale of agricultural produce is possible only for the minority who are in areas near European markets. Cash requirements of most rural families are mainly obtained from intermittent employment in European farms, in urban and industrial areas or in the gold mines in the Republic of South Africa. Migrant labor has become an accepted activity as migrants often earn more than they could produce with their present agricultural facilities. In 1960 it was found that 80 per cent of all cash income in rural areas was derived from wages, leaving only 20 per cent from sale of farm produce.

Migrant labor has become a complex phenomenon in Swaziland with many and varied results affecting not only the families of the migrant

laborers but also the urban and rural communities of which the migrants are a part. Migrant laborers are typically found among the younger men. The 1960 survey revealed that nearly 60 per cent of the rural men between the ages of 25 and 30 were employed for wages and almost half were employed outside the country. Rural Swazi men spent 40 per cent of their total working time in employment for wages and the remainder in self-employment on the land. From the economic point of view, it is difficult to say whether rural Swazi men are primarily farmers who occasionally work for wages or primarily wage laborers who have country residences.

As a result of labor migration in many rural areas, there is a preponderance of women, children and older men. The effects on agricultural production are often serious. In the absence of young men, the cultivation of crops and the rearing of livestock becomes a responsibility of women. Even when the migrant laborer returns home in order to help prepare the fields for planting or to help with the harvest, the work is too hurriedly done and not so effective as even the traditional methods would permit. The inevitable result is that the rural areas become progressively impoverished. According to the 1960 survey, 55 per cent of rural Swazi homesteads covered by the survey had to buy supplies of their staple food, maize, while only 10 per cent of the households in question had sold any maize during that year.

Statistics show that in 1964 about 75 per cent of the total African employees were engaged in manual labor, mainly in farms, mines, forests, and public works. The mean gross wage income per head for the whole

population has been estimated between 40 rand and 60 rand per annum. Given below are the monthly wages in rands for occupations in which rural men are most likely to be employed.

Laborer, Wholesale and Retail Trade	R18
Farm Laborer	R7 - R8
Forest Laborer	R8 - R10 (R. Q.)
Construction Laborer	R18
Mine Laborer	R16 (R. Q.)

1 Rand = 10 shillings - \$1.44 in American money  
R. Q. = Rations and quarters supplied free

### Education

Education is neither compulsory nor free in Swaziland. Lack of money, long distances to schools, parental indifference to education, and fulfilling home responsibilities such as herding cattle, make it difficult for many children in the rural areas to go to school.

An Education Proclamation promulgated in 1964 limited the age of first entry into primary schools to nine years, and in 1966 this was lowered to eight years except in schools designated by the Director of Education as overage schools. Primary schools are fairly well distributed over the High and Middleveld, but sparse in the Lowveld which is largely Swazi Nation land.

Books, stationery and equipment cost from 6 rand a year for grades one to four, about 12 rand for grades five to eight, and 24 rand for grades nine to thirteen. Boarding fees range from 60 to 80 rand in many schools, while in Waterford which is a multi-racial boys' high school, the fees are



400 rand per year. These fees are large, but the school is new and has modern facilities and low student-teacher ratio. This is in contrast to the usual school in Swaziland.

Illiteracy among Swazis is common. In 1962 only 36 per cent of the population over nine years of age were able to read and write at least one language. Literacy is almost universal among Europeans and Colored\* and is increasing rapidly among the Swazi, especially young people living in urban areas. In 1962, 65 percent of Swazi over nine years of age, living in urban areas, were literate as compared to 28 per cent of rural Swazi. In 1964, 65 per cent of all children aged 5 to 14 were in school as compared to 43 per cent in 1958.

#### Home Economics Education

Domestic Science and Agriculture courses are included in the primary school curriculum in Swaziland.

The Mbuluzi Domestic Science Training Center located near the capital, Mbabani, trains girls who have passed grades eight, nine or ten, to be Domestic Science teachers in the primary schools or Agricultural Domestic Demonstrators. This center has existed for many years.

With the establishment of the Agricultural College and University in 1966, a two-year program in home economics became available for girls who have completed the eleventh grade. Six students are enrolled in the

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\*Colored refers to people who are partly European and partly Swazi.

first class, and should be ready to assist in the Home Economics Extension Program.

#### Extension Home Economics

Under the direction of the Agricultural Officer (Home Economics), fifteen to twenty Domestic Science Demonstrators are teaching home economics to sixty-eight women's organizations with a membership of 1020 in the rural areas. The demonstrators first organize the groups before teaching them. This program has been organized for only a short time. The only home economist on the staff of Agricultural Extension worked for three years before her untimely death in 1964.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Developing countries or countries going through the process of industrialization are faced with a number of more or less similar problems.

The major problems of developing countries are usually

- . rapidly increasing population
- . lack of sufficient food with resulting malnutrition
- . lack of sanitation with resulting high rate of disease
- . high rate of infant mortality
- . low level of education attained by the people
- . inadequate housing of families
- . disruption of patterns of family living because of industrialization.

Many of the problems faced by families in developing countries center in the home. Improvement or solution of the problems depends on home economics education. Home economics is vital to community development because the family is the unit or microcosm of society. Responsibilities of the family are greater than ever in a rapidly changing and an increasingly complex world. Extension home economics has its greatest opportunity today to make a vital contribution to the societies of developing countries. Progress in any country is directly related to progress in the homes and families. Unless progress occurs in the home, the country itself cannot make sound progress. Some of the major problems that are discussed in the following paragraphs are population, poverty, health, malnutrition, and sanitation.

## Population

In many of the developing countries, the populations are rapidly increasing while levels of living remain low or become lower. The new drugs that medical science has discovered enable many to live longer even though their standards of life may not be improved. Roy E. Brown (7) pointed out that in developing countries the fertility rates are so high that in spite of high mortality rates and short life expectancy, there is approximately a 3 per cent population increase each year. The seriousness of population explosion and its effects on the standards of living can best be revealed by the average densities of population in some areas in developing countries in Africa.

According to the 1952-53 census (14), Nigeria, for instance, had an average density population of 93 persons per square mile. In the Eastern Region figures were as high as 269 persons per square mile and as low as 25 persons per square mile in the Niger Province. As a comparison, Kansas (26) in 1950 had 23 persons per square mile; the United States as a whole had 43 persons per square mile.

The danger to economic development and to raising the standards of living posed by unplanned parenthood has been recognized by many countries. Dr. Gunnar Myrdal (23) pointed out that hunger creates a vicious circle of poverty, ignorance, and apathy. Dr. Arnold J. Toynbee (23) warned that although man can abolish premature mortality caused by war, disease, and famine, yet "unless and until we do regulate our birthrate

voluntarily, the removal or even the reduction of any one of nature's three methods of limitation will have the effect of increasing the danger of seeing our population growth limited by one or other of nature's methods that we have not yet brought under control." The major difficulty is, however, lack of education about methods of birth control.

### Poverty

Alan Bird (15) defined poor people as those people whose level of living is inadequate or whose basic needs exceed their means to satisfy them. The ability to fulfill these needs now depends on current income, whatever the source. Income is, therefore, the principal measure of poverty, but not the only one. In the U.S.A., families with a net cash income of less than \$3000 are considered to be living in poverty. Statistics showed that 43 per cent of farm families had an income of less than \$3000 as contrasted with 17 per cent of all non-farm families. The United States, considered a highly developed country, still has a major problem of too many rural families in the poverty range.

The general poverty of the rural population was recognized by Adebayo Adedeji (14) as a characteristic feature of most of the developing countries in Africa. G. Kay, as cited by Margaret McArthur (22), collected details of the sources and use of cash in a number of villages in Zambia, a developing country in Africa, and recorded that average annual household incomes appeared to range from about 10 rand to 50 rand, which is very low by any standards. When evaluating the progress made by home

economics education in Appalachia, Ellen Urvant ('3) observed that many families had no regular income.

In the Report of the World Food Congress (23), it was pointed out that in most of the developing countries, agriculture will remain the main source of income and employment for many years to come. Therefore, the need for modern methods of farm management cannot be overemphasized. With the present large population increase, the limited area still available for cultivation calls for higher productivity per unit area and, therefore, a wider range of skills. Consequently, general education of rural families is of particular importance to enable the members to break away from ties of gradition and adopt modern techniques of agricultural production.

The Report of the F. A. O. Africa Survey (20) as cited in the papers from the UNICEF-Assisted National Conference on Home Economics/Nutrition reported that "a comprehensive approach to rural development in Africa demands that full consideration be given to the important role of women in the home and community." In most of the developing countries in Africa, women play as important a role as man in the cultivating of crops, the care of livestock, and the marketing of agricultural produce. Home economics education, therefore, derives its importance from the direct economics contribution made by women in raising crops and livestock and in running the household. Indirectly women contribute through their influence on the health and well-being of the family that is important for its effects on the production efforts not only of the present generation but more especially on the generation to come.

## Health

Poverty and illness form a vicious circle. This has been so from time immemorial. Sir Edward Chadwick (6) stated that in Great Britain, at the beginning of the 19th Century, people fell ill because they were poor and became poorer because they were ill. He was convinced that no organization for health could meet the needs of the times unless recognition was given to the plight of the poor and to measures for improving their condition.

Most of the developing countries, despite many variable factors, have a surprisingly similar disease pattern. There are certain common childhood diseases such as malnutrition, diarrhea, and respiratory illnesses that are often interrelated. Many of the illnesses described above are preventable.

The health problems of developing countries are aggravated by an acute shortage of medical and technical staff and limited numbers of hospitals and hospital beds. In 1964 Swaziland had one practicing doctor per 6,576 persons and 2.9 beds per 1,000 persons (25). Statistics for 1957-60 for India, Nigeria, and Ghana show that these countries had 0.24, 0.47 and 0.58 hospital beds per 1,000 persons, respectively. The United States has one practicing doctor per 710 persons and 9.1 beds per 1,000 persons (7).

## Malnutrition

Undernutrition and malnutrition constitute perhaps the most serious deterrents to progress in the developing nations. If malnutrition does not directly or indirectly cause death in developing countries, it limits the

physical and mental development of individuals which in turn will limit their contribution to economic and social progress. Although some progress has been made in improving levels of nutrition in developing countries through the application of available knowledge, the rate of progress is slow. This can be attributable to a failure to impress the importance of the problem not only upon politicians, economists and planners, but also upon the masses of the people.

### Sanitation

Poor sanitation also contributes to the health problems. Rural families in many parts of the world live in conditions below accepted standards. Housing is of inferior construction and sanitation is poor. A Joint UNICEF-WHO Committee on Health Policy as quoted by Roy E. Brown (7) described the general living conditions in the following statement:

Probably three-fourths of the World's population drink unsafe water, dispose of human excreta recklessly, prepare milk and food dangerously, are constantly exposed to insect and rodent enemies and live in unfit dwellings.

Describing the general conditions of health in developing countries, Brown (7) stated that in India children do not die only of hunger but also of lack of care and unhygienic conditions.

### Illiteracy

Statistics (23) show that more than half the population in developing countries is still illiterate and that the incidence is higher in rural areas. In Swaziland 64 per cent of the population over nine years of age did not



possess the ability to read and write in 1962. Only 28 per cent of rural Africans over nine years were literate as compared to 65 per cent of urban Africans. It would appear that in rural areas more women than men are illiterate. In the United States (26) the level of illiteracy is 2.2 per cent, meaning that only slightly above two in each 100 population are illiterate.

Many disadvantages stem from illiteracy, both to the illiterate and to the society in general. Illiteracy has a retarding effect on progress in economic and social development because the illiterate individual is isolated from the modern world as he is cut off from the stimulus of new ideas and the acquisition of new skills. The illiterate develops a sense of inadequacy and inferiority, a restricted outlook and an attitude of suspicion. The Education and Research Commission (23) summarized the disadvantages of illiteracy to the society as follows:

For society the price of illiteracy is a brake on progress, low working efficiency, and a source of disease because of ignorance, superstition, poor living standards and lack of hygiene. The price is higher than the mere cost of primary education.

There is, therefore, an urgent need for adult education, particularly in rural areas. The use by extension workers of practical demonstrations and audio-visual aids is considered the most effective means of approaching and communicating with illiterate homemakers.

#### Contributions of Home Economics to Families of Developing Countries

In different parts of the world home economics has been known by various names such as domestic science, home science, homecraft,

mothercraft, and others. All the names are intended to mean education for family living. Marjorie East (8) defined home economics as "the name presently used to designate a related group of subject areas which are all concerned with helping families shape both the parts and the whole of the pattern of daily living."

The successful implementation of national development programs demands that every person, man or woman, should contribute his or her quota to that development. Speaking on the role of home economics in national development in Nigeria, Chukujekwe (17) pointed out that home economics teaches women to get the best returns from available resources.

If our women acquire increased nutritive value from local food-stuffs, if home economics teaches us to make the best use of our textile materials so that the population would buy just the right quality for the sake of usefulness, if home economics teaches our women to appreciate the value of time, to economize on time, effort and resources, then an increased effort will be made by our women and this increased effort will lead to increased national wealth.

Adebayo Adedeji (14) regretted that the importance of women in primary production had been underrated in Nigeria. He pointed out that

A special agricultural service aimed specifically at women and teaching them modern agricultural techniques and new ways of doing old things will lead to an appreciable increase in primary production. It seems such a service is best provided under the umbrella of home science.

Many speakers in the World Food Congress viewed the role of women in the campaign against hunger as unique and important. Dona E.S. de Lopez Mateos said:

From time immemorial, it is the women who have been responsible for preparing food; nutrition depends on their skill and attention. As part of any nutrition program . . . women should be taught more enlightened culinary methods.

It was further pointed out that in developing countries,

The role of women looms especially large in the rural communities . . . and since the percentage of the agriculturally employed is much higher in these countries the importance of reaching the women is proportionately greater. They should be taught to make the best use of the food easily and locally produced.

The report of the Home Economics Branch, Food and Agriculture Organization, clarified the role of educated and informed women in national progress (20),

Women who are trained in the newest agricultural and animal husbandry practices, trained to feed their children better, trained to keep their children healthy, to demand and cooperate with programs of home improvement and village maintenance, to become informed consumers in changing economics which are becoming increasingly money-oriented will rapidly have a markedly constructive effect on national development.

Home economics education can make a vital contribution to rural families in developing countries by providing information that will help family members to understand and to cope with changing situations. It is the philosophy of home economics that people must develop certain fundamental abilities or competencies that will be effective in living regardless of the particular circumstances of the individual or the family.

The FAO Home Economics Branch in Rome as cited by Constance Cooper (18) at the Home Economics/Nutrition Conference identifies a well-planned home economics program in Africa as including the following range of activities of concern to families:

- . training and care of children and development of all family members
- . producing, preserving and using food
- . acquisition and/or making when practical and care of clothing and other household articles
- . health and sanitation
- . improving the physical environment of the home
- . home management and the wise use of all available resources
- . making a contribution to the financial or other resources of the family.

It is important to remember that home economics programs will vary from one country to another depending upon the development of the country, the available number of home economists and their level of education.

#### Reasons for Doing the Study

Extension home economics in Swaziland has been without a full-time leader since the middle of 1964. The writer was sent to Kansas State University to be educated to fill this gap. Some understanding of the principles involved in developing and implementing an extension home economics program is basic to a sound program. The proposed program is planned to improve the existing program in Swaziland whenever possible by relating educational opportunities and information to the needs and goals of the families in Swaziland.

### CHAPTER III

#### PLAN FOR HOME ECONOMICS EXTENSION PROGRAM IN SWAZILAND

##### Conferences with State Leaders of Home Economics Extension at the University of Nebraska and Kansas State University

During July of 1967, conferences were held with the state leaders of home economics extension programs in Nebraska and Kansas in order to gain from them some idea of the type of extension program in home economics that they would recommend for a developing country. Conferences were scheduled with Dr. Shirley Marsh, state leader in Kansas, and Miss Agnes Arthaud, state leader in Nebraska.

A brief summary follows of each of the conferences based on notes taken during the meetings. There is some similarity in topics considered to be important by both leaders, and there is some variation. For example, both state leaders suggested that it was of great importance to include teaching of nutrition and sanitation. As an example of topics that were different, Dr. Marsh suggested that the sources of technical information were of great importance, and Miss Arthaud stressed the importance of having home economics education be an integral part of agriculture in an extension program.

## Summary of Conference with State Leader in Kansas

### A. Most important considerations.

1. Sources of technical information. Countries like Swaziland have simple problems which require highly technical information for their solution. Means of obtaining technical information in the form of experts or consultants in the various aspects of home economics have to be considered.
2. Personnel. In addition to the home economics staff it is necessary to draw on other people who can be of use in the dissemination of knowledge.
  - a. Local leaders should be identified and trained to assist voluntarily.
  - b. Technicians or subject matter specialists are needed to train these leaders who in turn teach the groups.
3. Gaining the peoples' confidence. Knowing the background of the people is important in order to understand their values and their behavior.

### B. Aspects of home economics to be included.

1. Nutrition. The most important and most difficult part is to make the people concerned about their nutritional status.
2. Sanitation.

### C. Specific suggestions.

1. Personal contact with individual families is more effective than group approach. For instance, one homemaker leader may be

assigned only twenty families at a given time.

2. It is more profitable to start with areas where people are willing to learn. The result will persuade the others.
3. All available means of communication should be used to spread information . . . the press, radio, pictures.
4. People appreciate little favors of things they need like sewing needles, pieces of soap, etc.
5. A feasible program can be worked out to cover several years at a time but should be re-evaluated at regular intervals.

#### Summary of Conference with State Leader in Nebraska

##### A. Most important considerations.

1. Home economics education should be an integral part of agriculture. It is important that homemakers have some understanding of agriculture because women have proved to be a great incentive in improving agricultural production in order to attain their aspirations. The "domestic science demonstrators" need to have an appreciation of the role that increased agricultural production with increased money income can play in improved family standards of living.
2. Understanding the people. The "domestic science demonstrators" should be people who know and understand the community in which they work and are also able to have empathy with the families.

3. Working with all members of the family. In order to facilitate the process of changing attitudes, the home economics program should involve all members of the family. School-going children should be encouraged to share what they learn in school with other children. They could also participate in the vegetable garden project by building enclosures for the gardens. Sewing lessons could enable girls to assist in constructing clothing such as school uniforms for other members of the family. Youth organizations are, therefore, an essential part of the home economics program.
4. Coordination between departments of health, education and agriculture. Cooperation in the planning and carrying out of projects is an important principle in a country where human and financial resources are limited. The departments of health, education and agriculture are all interested in better nutrition and improved health of the people, and, therefore, should combine their resources. For instance, information about the importance of immunization against diseases like enteric fever and diphtheria can spread faster if it is taught in the schools and in farmers' and women's associations at the same time that it is taken up by the medical centers.
5. Acceptance of "domestic science demonstrators" by the rural families. It is important to study factors such as age that influence the acceptance of demonstrators by homemakers. Demonstrators should know effective ways of making contacts with the people.



6. Identification of local leaders. Accepted leaders in the community should be identified and recognized by the extension workers. Initial contacts should be made with these leaders who are respected by the people and who can be used to influence others to accept extension workers and their ideas.
- B. Aspects of home economics to be included in the program.
  1. Nutrition and health.
    - a. Increased food production in general should be encouraged but specific efforts should be made to increase the production of food to supply deficient nutrients in the diet such as increasing the efficiency of poultry production. Furthermore, increasing production would lower the cost of protein and release money to meet other needs of the family.
    - b. Food preparation and preservation should be directed towards conserving the nutritive value of foods. Nutritional value of available fruits and vegetables should be known.
  2. Sanitation and health. Children's good health should be the motive behind improving sanitation such as cooking in smokeless kitchens, boiling drinking water, and hygienic disposal of waste.
- C. Specific suggestions.
  1. Teaching of things people enjoy doing. Along with the teaching of selected subject matter, members of rural families should be helped to improve the things they take pride in doing. For instance,

women can be taught new ways of making and using their grasswork and beadwork.'

2. Working with individual families. Some families could benefit more from individual attention in addition to group teaching. The home economist should be on the lookout for clues or indications of special needs of certain families and offer individual attention sometimes with the help of the agricultural extension agent.

### Long-Term Objectives and Teaching Methods for Home Economics Extension in Swaziland<sup>1</sup>

#### Objectives

1. To recruit and maintain an adequate and progressive staff to provide educational opportunities for rural families which will help them attain their goals for individual family and community life.
2. To provide leadership and direction for extension home economics programs in the rural areas of Swaziland.
3. To provide educational information that will enable families:
  - a. To understand the causes of change and the need to adapt to changing social, economic and political changes.
  - b. To wisely manage their human, material, cultural, and social resources.

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<sup>1</sup>Adapted from Plan of Work for July 1, 1965--June 30, 1970, Project No. V, Extension Home Economics, Kansas State University, Manhattan, Kansas.

- c. To improve their health through better nutrition, improved sanitation and health education.
- d. To make the best use of their limited income.
- e. To increase their competence in decision making in the selection of goods.
- f. To provide and maintain functional homes.
- g. To acquire the ability to clothe the family by making use of the family's resources.
- h. To gain competence in the needed homemaking skills and techniques.
- i. To effectively participate in community, district, and national affairs.
- j. To understand changes occurring in the family and their influence on family life.

### Teaching Methods, Techniques and Activities

#### 1. Teaching methods.

- a. Demonstration.
- b. Lecture.
- c. Discussion.
- d. Visual aids.
- e. Information discussion.
- f. Personal conference.

#### 2. Learning opportunities.

- a. In-service training for Domestic Science Demonstrators, including

workshops, personal office training, correspondence, and telephone conferences.

- b. Refresher courses for Domestic Science Demonstrators.
  - c. Leader training, by Home Economist or Extension Home Economics Supervisors, in areas without Domestic Science Demonstrators.
  - d. Meetings involving discussions, illustrated talks and demonstrations.
  - e. Periodic publications, newsletters, radio and newspaper releases.
  - f. Cooperation with other members of the staff on staff meetings, with nutrition and food programs, and related areas.
  - g. Cooperation with other agencies concerned with specific subjects by making available and obtaining printed material, assistance in instruction, and serving as consultant or consulting these agencies.
3. Plans for evaluation.
- a. Domestic Science Demonstrators' monthly reports.
  - b. Comments by Domestic Science Demonstrators.
  - c. Requests for more information.
  - d. Attendance at planned meetings.
  - e. Evidence of desired changes in attitudes and understanding.

Subject Matter Areas to be Emphasized  
in Swaziland

Child Care

The value placed by Swazi people on children is reflected in their marriage customs. A man is entitled to another wife if his wife has no

children or has children of the same sex. Boys are necessary for perpetuating the family name and were an economic asset when the rearing of children was inexpensive. A married woman gains in status after the birth of her first baby. She is thereafter referred to as "the mother of so and so."

#### Prenatal care and birth

In many aspects of Swazi life there is a clash between the traditional and the modern ways, so there is a clash about the proper way to rear children. In olden days, a pregnant woman was placed under the care of the family witch doctor who attended to her physical well being and took all precautions known to him to insure the safe delivery of the baby. The woman's mother-in-law assisted by two or three other trustworthy women relatives acted as midwives. The physical conditions were unhygienic, and modern scientific methods of childcare were unknown. Consequently, infant mortality was high. Causes of death, however, could always be traced by the witch doctor to enemies of the family.

For the first three months after the birth of her baby, a woman led a relaxed, secluded life. She was considered to be physically weak and too unclean to participate in routine household tasks and family activities.

#### Feeding the baby

All babies, without exception, are breast fed. Insufficient amounts of breast milk were supplemented by a strained mealie-meal gruel. Today

all kinds of milk and baby foods recommended by commercial advertisers are given to babies without medical advice in rural areas of Swaziland.

Swazi babies were fed whenever the mother interpreted the cause of crying to be hunger or when she thought baby was ready for another feeding. Different kinds of food were gradually introduced after about six months of age and sour milk became the main food for the growing child. In the absence of milk, mealie-meal gruel is fed to children. In olden days, babies were breast fed for at least three years. Modern young mothers reduce the breast feeding period to a minimum and some do not wish to breast feed their babies at all.

Traditionally, it was considered unnecessary to provide additional equipment, utensils, or clothing for an expected baby. The only exception was that they insured that there was firewood to keep the nursery warm.

#### Toilet training

Toilet training does not seem to present much of a problem and is generally achieved within the first two years of a child's life. In some areas it is begun as early as three months, as babies are often carried about on their mother's backs. In olden days, diapers were used only when baby's control was weakened by diarrhea or similar diseases. Today flannel or terry cloth diapers are used by families who can afford them.

#### Significant problems of the people

1. Traditional methods of child care need to be adapted to changing conditions in the home.

2. Apart from malnutrition, the high rate of infant mortality is attributable to poor sanitation, especially unhygienic handling of children's food.
3. Health facilities are inadequate in rural areas. Health centers are too far apart and often visited by a doctor once a week.
4. The number of children per homemaker is increasing, and this makes it difficult for her to cope with the physical, emotional and educational needs of growing children.

#### Objectives

1. To realize the influence of environment, especially that of the home and family in the development of children.
2. To gain increased understanding of prenatal, antenatal, and infant care.
3. To be able to recognize symptoms of common children's illnesses and to learn recommended methods of caring for sick children at home.
4. To be aware of facilities outside the home to assist the family in the care of children.
5. To be able to plan and provide for the needs of a new baby with little or no additional cost.
6. To gain some understanding of the physical needs of babies, expecting and lactating mothers.
7. To gain some understanding of the developmental tasks of growing children.

#### Plans for evaluation

1. Incidence of diarrhea and other infantile illnesses, mainly attributable to poor sanitation.
2. Weights of babies at birth.
3. Attendance in clinics or hospitals for prenatal and antenatal care.

#### Clothing

##### Traditional Swazi costume

The national costume of the people of Swaziland is one of the most symbolic aspects of traditional life. Clothing is used, among other things, to mark major distinctions in age, sex, marital and social status. A good percentage of the Swazi people have adopted Western type of clothing, mainly because the early missionaries considered Swazi costume to be primitive and immodest and strongly encouraged Christians and school pupils to obtain Western clothes. With growing understanding and appreciation of their cultural heritage, more and more educated and Christian Swazis adorn their national dress on special occasions like the "Incwala," commonly interpreted to mean first-fruit of the year ceremony. For both men and women, the upper portion of the attire consists of the same brightly colored cotton prints with a variety of designs. There is more variation in methods of attire for the lower part of the costume. In general, the beadwork, necklaces, arm and ankle bracelets are identical for all, yet differences in details of color and design are full of meaning. For example, certain designs



are worn only by the men. Certain designs in a specific color are a sign of betrothal.

All Swazi people have naturally tightly curled black hair. After puberty, no one was supposed to cut off his or her hair unless a close adult relative had died. A married woman cuts off her hair only at the death of her first husband. Growing children wear their hair in a style that accentuates the curls. Single girls and men wear long hair dyed to a reddish brown. Married women dress up their hair to form a dome-like structure with two white strings marking the base. Sweet-scented powder or pollen is sprinkled on the hair to produce predetermined patterns such as a star or a butterfly.

Shoes are not part of the traditional Swazi costume, probably because of the congenial climate. But some homemade sandals were worn by men for activities like hunting. Today, however, it is permissible to wear flat, low-heeled shoes with the Swazi costume for casual wear.

#### Swazi women's clothing

A typical outfit of a young growing girl consists of four or five pieces of clothing. Two of these are tied around the hips and held in position by deftly fastening tiny knots on either side of the hips. The length of these pieces comes a little below the knees, and the width is determined by the hip measurements of the wearer. One or two "imihelwane," as the top pieces of material are called, are fastened by a knot on one shoulder.

Beadwork of various colors and designs adorn the neck, wrists and ankles and complete the costume.

Married women and girls of a marriageable age wear a black, round pleated skirt, "sidvwaba," made from softened and dyed hides. In addition married women proudly display an apron made from goat's skin. They always tie two top pieces of "imihelwane" . . . one over the other and tied on each shoulder.

#### Swazi men's clothing

Men, like girls, wrap two pieces of material to cover the lower portion of the body, but fasten them in such a way that they leave a slit along the right thigh. Triangular pieces cut from the skins of wild animals are worn over these, probably to keep them close to the body.

#### Modern dress in Swaziland

The younger generation and the majority of the people living or employed in urban or industrial areas tend to adopt Western clothes and try to keep up with European fashions. Rural and older women feel more comfortable in full skirts at least three or more inches below the knees. Rural and older women prefer low-heeled shoes. Married women in European clothes are expected to cover their hair with scarves. Otherwise no head covering is used.

An interesting combination of Swazi and European clothing is popular with rural men. The upper portion of the Swazi attire is replaced by a

shirt and/or jacket, and shoes are worn with long stockings, reaching to just below the knees. A hat may complete this outfit. The lower part of the costume, from the waist down, remains the traditional Swazi costume of brightly colored, printed cloth and animal skins.

#### How clothing is obtained in rural areas

Many people in rural areas, especially in the southeastern portion of Swaziland, have not adopted European clothing. The brightly colored cotton prints are sold by every general dealer. The other items of clothing like the women's skin skirt and accessories are made by the older members of the family. School-going children, however, and Christian adults tend to adopt European clothing.

The way in which a family obtains its European clothing depends on financial resources, the homemaker's sewing skill and the level of sophistication of the family. Ready-made garments, manufactured outside the country, mainly from the Republic of South Africa, are available throughout Swaziland. In the larger towns like Mbabane and Manzini, chain stores like Edgars and Truworths operate on the revolving credit system. Good quality ready-made clothing is too expensive for the average rural family. The tendency then is to purchase inexpensive, poor quality goods which give unsatisfactory service. The construction of shirts and trousers require greater sewing skill than many women have attained. As a result, boys' and men's garments have to be bought ready-made.

Fabrics, ranging from the old natural cottons to the latest blends, are available throughout the country. European fashions, especially the tight-fitting short skirts do not appeal to the rural women. With very few exceptions, rural women are compelled to make their clothing at home or to send them to tailors and dressmakers. Girl's clothing, mainly because of the relative simplicity in their construction, is often homemade.

Making a garment at home can be a time-consuming process where sewing machines are not available. Homemakers who own and can operate sewing machines inevitably do most of the sewing in the vicinity. More often than not, the finished product reflects a need for more knowledge of the principles and techniques of dressmaking. Commercial patterns are available in towns, but illiterate homemakers cannot derive much benefit from them.

#### Care of clothing

The majority of rural families clean all their clothing at home. The homemaker either takes the dirty laundry to the source of water or carries the water home. In both cases, the laundry for the family is time consuming and strenuous. Homemade soap is not popular and may be used only as a last resort. The lack of popularity may be the result of not knowing how to make good soap. Detergents are fast gaining in popularity and are actively "sold" to the customers by the shopkeepers. Electricity does not yet reach the rural areas. Ironing is done by irons that are placed on the open fire or stove to heat. Any available flat surface or the floor is

used for ironing. Apparently the irons are like those used by pioneers in the United States.

Commercial dry cleaning and laundering services are available in urban areas, but rural families do not use them often because of expense and lack of convenience.

Traditional Swazi clothing was hung over a horizontal rod or folded and packed in boxes. There is still a tendency in rural areas to follow this practice, but many homemakers are aware of the advantages of hanging clothes in closed closets. Modern western-type clothes are not placed on hangers as is customary in the United States, but usually are hung over the horizontal rod or packed in boxes. The storage of the clothes has not advanced in line with the acceptance of western-type clothes.

#### Significant problems of the people

1. Homemakers have a limited knowledge of the processes and techniques used in the construction of garments, especially Western-type garments.
2. Homemakers need some knowledge of the factors or characteristics to consider or desirable qualities to look for when selecting fabrics or buying ready-made garments.
3. Homemakers are not aware of the factors determining the type of care a fabric or garment needs.
4. Homemakers need more information on the selection, use and care of sewing equipment.

5. The laundering methods and facilities need to be changed to suit modern fabrics and garments.

### Objectives

Learning experiences should help homemakers to:

1. Recognize that the construction of garments for the family can be creative, gratifying and economical.
2. Be able to analyze individual clothing needs of the family and to plan wardrobes in keeping with the family income.
- \*3. Be able to select appropriate fabric for the garment to be constructed.
- \*4. Gain some ability in performing basic processes and techniques necessary for the construction of simple garments for the family.
5. Be able to combine colors effectively.
- \*6. Be able to select, use and care for sewing equipment, including sewing and knitting machines.
- \*7. Be able to select, use and alter a commercial pattern to fit the individual.
- \*8. Understand the importance of caring for clothes properly to obtain optimum serviceability and retain good appearance, and to save time, energy, and money.
9. Gain some understanding of characteristics and construction of commonly used fabrics as an aid to their selection and care.

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\*Selected for detailed unit plans. See pages 50-60.

- \*10. Realize that planned spending and intelligent buying result in better wardrobes for the family.
11. Appreciate the importance of a good fit as related to personal comfort, becoming lines and satisfactory wear life of the garment.

### Foods and Nutrition

The soil and climate in Swaziland are suitable for the production of a variety of crops, fruits and vegetables. Maize and millet are the main cereal crops to which rice has recently been added. There are a number of indigenous fruits and vegetables, many of which, like guavas, grow wild. Pineapples, bananas, peaches, mangoes, pawpaws, grapes, avocados, citrus and other tropical fruits are easily grown. Many times one or two kinds of fruit trees are commonly found by chance near the homes. Common vegetables include sweet potatoes, pumpkins, tomatoes, cabbage, carrots, spinach, and green beans. Legumes are often planted in small patches in the fields.

Traditionally wealth was assessed by the quantity and quality of livestock owned by an individual. Livestock included cattle, sheep, goats, chickens, and, in some parts of the country, horses. Many occasions or events, such as marriage, birth, illness, death, building and moving a home, called for the slaughtering of a beast. Whenever a cow or ox was slaughtered, the meat was distributed among relatives, neighbors, and friends. Hunting wild game was a popular pastime for men and boys, while women

and small girls collected certain types of locusts. Cow's milk is primarily used for human consumption, but goat's milk was given to children when cow's milk was not available. In some parts of the Bushveld, the above conditions still exist, but in other parts of the country, the situation is entirely different.

As a measure to combat soil erosion resulting from overgrazing, the number of cattle per family has been limited to eight oxen for pulling the plow and two milk cows. Many families do not have a single beast. Butcheries or meat markets are very rare in rural families, and many families cannot afford to buy meat regularly. Evaporated and dry milk are, however, available in all grocery stores.

In many homes in the rural areas, food is prepared in three-legged pots, on an open fire in the cooking hut or in the yard. Maize milled into mealie-meal, either commercially or in hand-operated milling machines in the homes, is used to prepare the basic dish. Grinding maize into mealie-meal has almost been discarded in favor of the faster and less strenuous methods. Mealie-meal is available in the shops in mainly three types. The least expensive type, about 3¢ per pound, is milled from the whole maize grain and contains all the natural constituent nutrients of maize in unaltered proportions. The second type of mealie-meal, with part of the bran and germ removed during milling, is finer and whiter in appearance than the first. The third type costs about 5¢ per pound and contains little or no bran and germ.



Maize is available also in the form of samp and mealie rice, both obtainable in every grocery shop or prepared in the homes. Samp is maize broken into halves and quarters while mealie-rice is maize broken into particles more or less the size of rice grains. Both forms have all of the bran and germ removed and cost about 5¢ per pound.

In rural areas the basic dish prepared from maize is served either with green vegetables, legumes, meat or milk (preferably sour milk). Vegetables and meat can be served at one meal, so can meat and legumes, but meat and sour milk are rarely combined in one meal. In olden days, mealie-meal was always cooked in vegetables such as pumpkin or green vegetables, but never as plain white porridge. Infants and growing children then ate mainly sour milk while meat and beer was considered ideal food for adults. A common substitute for milk today is soft porridge or a thin gruel made from mealie-meal and sweetened with white sugar.

In areas where families have neither adequate land nor sufficient income, soft sour mealie-meal porridge sweetened with sugar may be served for breakfast. The midday meal may consist of "amahewu," a semi-solid drink made by fermenting mealie-meal porridge overnight. For supper the family may have thick mealie-meal porridge with meat or vegetables.

Fruits are not usually served as part of a meal, but when available are liberally served in between meals.

White mealie-meal, white bread and white sugar are more desired than their brown counterparts.

### Significant problems of people

The food patterns of rural people result in a lack of adequate protein in the diet. Other problems center around lack of enough food of good nutritive value, but lack of high quality protein is the major nutritional problem. The prevalence of protein-calorie deficiency diseases, like kwashiorkor and pellagra, is mainly attributable to the difficulty of obtaining high quality protein and ignorance of the nutritional requirements of various age groups.

Some old social customs and taboos are nutritionally unsound but still are followed by many people. In some families the nutritious native foods are too often neglected and replaced by refined western diets that may be far from ideal in the circumstances.

Many homemakers lack understanding of the methods and recommended principles in preparing and preserving food, especially new types of food, to retain maximum food value.

The problem is emphasized because of the preference for refined cereals along with the high proportion of cereals in the usual diet.

### Objectives

1. To understand the relationship between proper diet and good health.
2. To know the essential nutrients, their functions in the body and their sources.
3. To gain some ability in planning and preparing nutritious meals for the family.

4. To know the nutritional needs of infants, pregnant and lactating women.
5. To understand and apply the recommended principles of preparing and preserving various types of food to regain maximum nutritive value.
6. To develop the ability to make wise selection of foods in the market place or in public eating establishments.
7. To understand the importance of sanitary handling of food in order to keep the family healthy.
8. To understand factors that influence the formation of good eating habits.
9. To derive pleasure and to experience a sense of accomplishment in planning and preparing balanced meals for the family.
10. To gain some ability in serving meals properly and in using acceptable table manners.

#### Specific plans for evaluation

1. Observation of the extent of favorable change actually occurring in the food-consumption patterns of particular groups over a given period of time, e.g., by weighing foods actually consumed in selected family groups during a one-week period.
2. Incidence of malnutrition diseases as reported annually by the health and medical services.
3. Anthropometric indices of selected groups of growing children.

#### Health and Sanitation

Judging from their traditional habits of personal cleanliness and simple methods of sanitation, Swazis are a clean people. For instance, the first

thing everybody did after getting up in the morning was to wash his or her face and hands, and again hands were washed before each meal. Yet in many homes the water used for drinking and food preparation carries disease germs. Waste is disposed in more unsanitary ways than a hundred years ago, and many homes are infested with disease-carrying pests such as flies, rats, and cockroaches. Homemakers and even young girls now need lessons on personal cleanliness.

#### Water

In olden days one of the important considerations in selecting a site for a homestead was nearness to a clean source of water. The water carried by women to the home is mainly used for drinking, food preparation and washing of the face and hands. It is kept in the cooking hut or kitchen . . . in earthen or metal containers and usually left uncovered. Food was not always covered. The crust or top layer on solid foods was always removed for reasons seemingly unrelated to sanitation.

Bathing the body was done in the many streams, rivers and waterfalls. Boys swam or played about in the water as they took the cattle to drink. After a day's work in the fields, adults bathed before they returned home to rest. A tree, rock or a temporary stooping provided adequate privacy should a member of the opposite sex pass by while one was bathing. The idea of a bathroom in the home is new to the Swazi and not very practical to consider in some areas. Lack of running water in the home coupled with new values of modesty make personal cleanliness a problem. Some

homes are so far away from the available water supply that it takes two to three hours to carry home four gallons of water. The homemaker has of necessity to use water sparingly.

Bilharzia is one of the prevalent water-borne diseases. In 1964 it was reported that the Bilharzia situation in regard to unsafe water remained unchanged, and no active control measures were being taken. "Surveys reveal an overall incidence of 30% infected with urinary bilharzia, yet attendance of bilharzia sufferers at hospitals accounted for less than 1% of all cases dealt with" (25).

#### Disposal of waste

In olden days a valley or forest at least half a mile away from the homestead was used exclusively for the disposal of human wastes. Threats and fables were used to discourage growing children from disposing waste near the home. The idea of a latrine is not only new but contrary to traditional values. Yet living conditions today demand more hygienic methods of sanitation. Many homes in rural areas have neither the latrine nor any other provision for the disposal of human waste. Hence the prevalence of diseases that are carried from the bodies of people through waste materials such as typhoid fever, dysentery, and certain parasitic worms, continues to be widespread.

### Significant problems of the people

1. Water is often unsafe for human consumption. Some homes are too far from the sources of water.
2. Sanitation is poor and unhygienic conditions and practices in many homes are conducive to the development and spread of diseases.
3. Health facilities are limited and mainly concerned with curative measures.
4. Scientific causes and preventative measures of common diseases are unknown to many homemakers.

### Objectives

1. To be aware of the relationship between sanitation and prevention of diseases, especially sanitary handling of food.
2. To know simple ways of providing the family with clean, safe water.
3. To employ sanitary methods in the disposal of waste.
4. To employ hygienic practices in caring for the sick.
5. To be aware of available health facilities for the prevention and cure of diseases.

### Housing and Home Management

The choice of a site for a homestead in olden days was partly guided by material considerations such as availability of adequate land, water or wood and partly by social factors such as nearness to relatives and friends. More important today are factors such as nearness to place of employment, to the main road, to a school or even to a church group.

## Structure

Originally the Swazis lived in huts that were clustered together into homesteads and linked by winding footpaths. The frame for the hut was shaped like a beehive and made from pliable wooden rods of about 1 1/2 inches in diameter. The grass used for thatching was attached to the frame by plaited ropes radiating from ornamental pinnacles and interlacing at regular intervals with ropes running horizontally. The arched doorway was a little less than four feet high so that people had to crawl to enter or leave the hut. The diameter of the huts ranged from approximately 10 to 15 feet and the height was about 8 feet. Two pillars on either side of the fireplace divided the hut into three functional areas. The earthen floor was stamped firmly and smeared regularly with fresh greenish cow dung. Surrounding the homestead was a six-foot high screen made from a special type of grass or from reeds for royal homesteads. The grass was interspersed with wooden poles and held together by three or four horizontal ridges beautifully bound by plaited grass ropes. The material needed for building the entire homestead was locally available, and the necessary labor was provided by members of the family, neighbors, and relatives. No Swazi homestead was complete without a cattle byre.

As a result of contact with Europeans and other African nations, the traditional Swazi homesteads are undergoing a gradual but definite change in structure. Round, square or oblong huts whose walls are made of wood and mud, stones, unbaked, sun-baked or baked bricks have been adopted by

the Swazi. These structures often thatched with grass may have more than one room. They have comparatively high doorways and at least two small windows. Depending on the financial standing of the family, some of the newer houses have walls made from cement blocks and corrugated iron roofs. The floor may be cemented and/or covered with linoleum. In rural areas it is not uncommon to find all these different architectural styles in one homestead. Houses in urban areas are comparable to houses in any European city except that in Swaziland, the houses are often built on one level.

#### Furniture and utensils

In olden days providing furniture and utensils for the home was a joint responsibility of all the members of the family. Every woman was taught to make grass mats which were used for both sitting and sleeping. Pottery, too, was a special craft for women who produced all the cooking, drinking and eating bowls and pots. Men carved wooden headrests, milk pails, meat platters, spoons and forged iron knives, hoes and weapons. The number of possessions was limited because utensils were intended for group use. They were mainly stored on the floor which was also used as the work surface.

In Swaziland today the furniture found in homes ranges from the traditional grass mats and wooden headrests to the modern suites and schemes of the West. The amount and type of furniture a home has is determined, among other things, by the financial standing, the level of education, or the



degree of sophistication of members of the family. Many conservative rural families have the traditional furniture mixed with selected items of European furniture, such as a table with two or more chairs and a bed. Adults, especially men, may sleep on beds, while the younger members of the family and women may sleep on grass mats. The same can be said about using the table and chairs. In rural areas, other household activities besides cooking are performed in the kitchen. Ironing, sewing, eating and entertaining friends may all take place in the kitchen. Besides the centrally situated table and chairs, the other kitchen furniture and equipment are arranged in accordance with individual taste or as space permits. Commonly found in these kitchens are a stove, some cabinets for storing utensils and food, sometimes a side table to hold water containers, a bench and some grass mats. More often than not, pieces of furniture are purchased ready-made. A few men who have a knowledge of carpentry make their own furniture.

Enamel plates, mugs, cups, dishes, basins and saucepans are replacing the traditional earthen utensils in rurals. Though silver cutlery is gaining popularity, big wooden spoons are mostly used for stirring and mixing. Three-legged iron pots are most suitable for open-fire cooking, while enamel saucepans are mainly used on wood or coal stoves. China-made utensils are less durable and relatively expensive for the average rural Swazi home, but China teacups are very popular. Spoons, as against knives and forks, are commonly used for eating, but women and children prefer eating with their hands.

### Significant problems of the people

1. The problem of management time and energy in household tasks in order to release time for recreational activity or gainful employment.
2. Primary considerations in planning a home to meet the needs of present-day families.
3. The kitchen needs immediate attention. It is imperative to devise inexpensive, smokeless stoves for both hygienic and aesthetic reasons.
4. Homemakers need more knowledge of the care requirements of present-day houses, furniture, equipment and utensils if desirable standards of cleanliness are to be attained.
5. Rural people do not realize that a better living can be achieved without adding income if they make the best use of the resources they have.

### Objectives

1. Be able to make the best use of the resources of time and energy to achieve family goals.
2. Understand the causes of fatigue and methods of minimizing or postponing the occurrence of fatigue.
3. Develop some ability in using the decision-making process.
4. Be aware of the importance of saving time and know-how to make a time plan.
5. Understand the changes in the family life cycle of present-day families and know how to plan to meet the needs of the family at the various phases.

6. Learn to make or create various articles for the home at very little or no cost.
7. Learn to make simple repairs in the home.
8. Gain some skill in recognizing and meeting storage needs.
9. Understand methods of improving lighting in a study center, reading area and any other work area.
10. Know sanitary cleaning methods to protect the family from infection.
11. Develop skills in the production and marketing of home industry items.

#### Implementation of the Program

The extension home economics program in Swaziland is in its embryonic stage when compared to extension programs in countries like the U.S.A. Yet much has been achieved since its implementation in spite of many obstacles that retard progress.

Suggestions for increasing qualified personnel and for obtaining technical information have been discussed earlier. Among the major obstacles to be tackled early in the implementation of the proposed program will be illiteracy of the rural homemakers, poor attendance at the meetings, and failure to involve all the members of the family in home economics education.

The extension home economics staff will work in close cooperation with the Swaziland Sebenta Society, an organization engaged in an adult literacy campaign. Members of women's organizations will be taught to

read and write Swazi, some basic general education such as the units of measurement, and simple calculations involving the use of money.

Efforts will be made to reach a larger number of rural homemakers. Women's organizations are an effective channel through which information is disseminated and leadership developed. It is, therefore, essential to find effective means and methods of increasing their membership. For instance, members of a new organization can be taught what they want to know even if this is not essential for raising their levels of living, such as baking a cake. Starting with activities that have concrete results such as sewing children's clothes or constructing smokeless stoves will impress the homemakers.

Single educational experiences are often insufficient to bring about desired changes in human behavior. To reinforce home economics education it is essential to involve every member of the family. Ultimately home economics will be part of both the primary and high school curriculum in Swaziland. In the meantime, ways in which home economics can be introduced to the youth will be considered, perhaps as an extra-curricular activity.

#### Detailed Unit Plan for Extension Clothing Program in Swaziland

##### Selection of Area of Clothing for Unit Development

The prevalence of deficiency diseases and high rates of infant mortality in developing countries makes it imperative for any home economics

program to place great emphasis on the area of food preparation and nutrition. Every effort is being made to find the most effective methods and techniques to facilitate the spread and adoption of the desired changes. Progress has been made but intangible results are not convincing to illiterate or semi-illiterate rural people. In 1964 only 1020 women in Swaziland belonged to women's associations (25).

It has been observed that learning how to bake a cake or how to knit a sweater is more interesting to rural women than a lesson on balanced meals, which may be more important for the family. Women everywhere want to look their best. Being well-dressed develops confidence and self respect. These feelings are some of the prerequisites in motivating people to adopt new ideas. Though food preparation and nutrition should be given first preference in a home economics program for a country like Swaziland, the area of clothing could be used as bait to draw and hold the interest of homemakers while they are taught improved methods of food preparation and child care. It is for these reasons that a series of six subject matter units have been developed in the area of clothing.

#### Unit I: Selecting appropriate fabric

##### A. Unit objectives

1. To be able to select fabric appropriate for garment to be constructed.
2. To become aware of the variety of natural and synthetic fabrics on the local market.

3. To gain increased knowledge of the characteristics of commonly used fabrics as an aid to their selection and care.
4. To recognize the importance of design, construction and color in the selection of fabric to improve personal appearance.
5. To know the factors determining suitability of fabric to intended use of garment.

#### B. Generalizations

1. Satisfaction in the end product of a constructed garment is partially determined by the choice of fabric.
2. Wise fabric selection involves some knowledge of the fiber content, design and color.
3. Texture and design have the effect of creating illusions and are important considerations for various figures and occasions.
4. Colors chosen to harmonize with skin, eyes and hair enhance appearance.
5. Some considerations in judging fabrics are fiber, weave, suitability for use and care requirements.
6. Comparative shopping often results in a good buy.
7. It is more economical to buy a good quality in a lower-priced fabric than to buy a poor quality in a higher-priced one.

#### C. Lessons

1. Factors determining fabric quality.
  - a. Kind of fiber.

- b. Fabric construction.
- c. Colorfastness.
- 2. Advantages and disadvantages of fabrics made from cotton, wool, rayon and blends.
  - a. Durability.
  - b. Comfort.
  - c. Appearance.
  - d. Shrinkage.
- 3. Simple aids in the identification of common fabrics.
  - a. Appearance of fabric.
  - b. Creasing of fabric.
  - c. Tearing of fabric.
  - d. Burning of fabric.

## Unit II: Sewing equipment

### A. Objectives

- 1. To be able to select, use and care for sewing equipment, including sewing machines.
- 2. To understand the relationship between adequate sewing equipment and the quality of the finished products.
- 3. To be aware of the types of sewing machines available on the market.
- 4. To be able to operate and take proper care of a sewing machine and other sewing equipment.

5. To be able to recognize common machine difficulties, like poor tension, and know how to correct them.

#### B. Generalizations

1. Good sewing equipment contributes much to one's efficiency in clothing construction.
2. Proper care of sewing equipment insures longer life and better day-to-date operation of the machine.

#### C. Lessons

1. Essential items and their functions.
  - a. Cutting equipment.
  - b. Measuring equipment.
  - c. Marking equipment.
  - d. Hand-sewing equipment.
  - e. Pressing equipment.
2. The sewing machine.
  - a. Parts of a sewing machine and their functions.
  - b. Preparing the machine for use.
  - c. Operating the sewing machine.
3. Care of sewing equipment.
  - a. Cleaning or servicing equipment.
  - b. Servicing and repairs.
  - c. Storing sewing equipment.



Unit III: Basic sewing techniques.

A. Objectives.

1. To gain some ability in performing basic processes and techniques necessary for the construction of simple garments for the family.
2. To realize that pressing and final finishes are part of the construction process and give a professional touch to the garment.

B. Generalizations.

1. Knowing how to sew can be a means of saving and making money.
2. Correct construction procedures contribute to more satisfactory results.
3. Modern sewing methods facilitate the construction of garments.
4. Trimmings and decorative stitches give individuality to a wardrobe.
5. Leisure time can be used to advantage by creating attractive accessories and by applying hand decorations.
6. A knowledge of clothing construction helps to develop standards for buying readymade garments.

C. Lessons.

1. Emphasis on function of stitches.
  - a. Joining stitches.
  - b. Hemming stitches.
  - c. Finishing stitches.
2. Emphasis on appearance of product.
  - a. The use of lace and trimmings.

- b. Decorative hand stitches.
- c. Pockets and fasteners.
- 3. Machine stitching.
  - a. Plain stitching.
  - b. Decorative stitching (if applicable).
- 4. General techniques.
  - a. Tucks.
  - b. Darts.
  - c. Gathers and pleats.

Unit IV: Using a commercial pattern.

A. Objectives.

- 1. To be able to select, use and alter a commercial pattern to fit the individual.
- 2. To appreciate the importance of a good fit and its relationship to personal comfort, becoming lines, and satisfactory wear-life of the garment.
- 3. To understand the relationship between body bulges, and the placing of seams and darts in the garments.
- 4. To apply knowledge of pattern alteration to the alteration of ready-made garments.
- 5. To be able to produce figure-flattering garments to enhance personal appearance.

### B. Generalizations.

1. Wise selection of a pattern is the first step to a satisfying and attractive garment.
2. Correct grain line insures proper draping of garment comfort in wearing, good fit and appearance.
3. Selection of the correct size and type of pattern reduces the need for alteration.

### C. Lessons.

1. Understanding a commercial pattern.
  - a. Pattern companies.
  - b. Pattern sizes and figure types.
  - c. Determining one's size.
  - d. Using the pattern guide sheet.
2. Pattern alteration.
  - a. Fitting and testing pattern.
  - b. Principles of pattern alteration.
3. Cutting and sewing garment.
  - a. Fabric preparation.
  - b. Laying of pattern and cutting out.
  - c. Sewing the garment.
  - d. Pressing and final finishes.

## Unit V: Care of clothing

### A. Objectives.

1. To gain increased knowledge of the care requirements of commonly used fabrics.
2. To understand that clothes need proper care in order to give optimum service and retain good appearance.
3. To realize that proper care of clothing saves time, energy, and money.
4. To know some inexpensive ways of obtaining or constructing simple storage equipment from available resources.
5. To learn simple ways of improving laundry facilities in the home.

B. Generalizations.

1. Various fibers and weaves require special care as to water, temperature, cleansing agent, washing and drying methods and type and temperature of ironing or pressing.
2. The expenditure of money for family clothing may be reduced by proper care of clothing.
3. Personal appearance is improved by proper care and repair of clothing.
4. Proper storage contributes to the overall appearance of the home.

C. Lessons.

1. Cleaning methods and techniques.
  - a. Home laundering.
  - b. Removal of common stains.

- c. Dry cleaning and laundering.
- d. Cleaning of other items of clothing.
- 2. Mending of clothing.
  - a. Preventative mending.
  - b. Patching and darning.
- 3. Storing clothing.
  - a. Storage space and equipment.
  - b. Methods of storing different garments.
  - c. Control of destructive insects, bacteria and mildew.

#### Unit VI: Wardrobe planning.

##### A. Objectives.

- 1. To be able to analyze individual clothing needs of the family members and to plan wardrobes in keeping with the family income.
- 2. To realize that planned spending and intelligent buying result in better wardrobes for the family.
- 3. To gain some ability in coordinating color, design and pattern to enhance personal appearance.
- 4. To understand psychological factors affecting choices of different family members.
- 5. To know some ways of adapting present wardrobes to meet future needs.

##### B. Generalizations.

1. A satisfactory wardrobe is made up of clothing that is appropriate, coordinated, becoming, economical and easy to care for.
2. Proper dress for an occasion or activity does not require expensive clothes.
3. It is wiser to have fewer but better and more wearable garments.

C. Lessons.

1. Factors influencing wardrobe requirements.
2. Characteristics of a well-planned wardrobe.
3. How clothing is provided.
  - a. Homemade clothing.
  - b. Ready-made clothing.
  - c. Places and methods of payment.
4. Color combination.
  - a. Shoes
  - b. Accessories.

Educating Future Home Economists

The extension home economics staff in Swaziland can be graded into three levels:

1. Field Staff. Field workers are mainly drawn from the graduates of Mbuluzi Domestic Science Centre and the Agricultural University and College. Domestic Science Demonstrators are engaged in the actual teaching of rural women. With the existing training facilities it should be

possible in the near future to recruit and maintain an appreciable number of Domestic Science Demonstrators.

The basic educational standard of field workers is relatively low but adequate for present needs as the levels of education are generally low in rural areas. In the near future it will be necessary to raise the qualifications of the field workers.

2. Supervisory Staff. Field staff, at the level of education discussed above, require careful training and considerable help in planning their work. Home Economics supervisors often have the same educational qualifications as the field workers. They are promoted to the supervisory rank if their work and experience justify it. The writer is not aware of any special training they undergo in preparation for their new responsibilities.

3. Senior Staff. The responsibilities of the senior staff members of the extension home service call for advanced training in home economics. Their duties include directing the junior staff, planning in-service and short courses, and giving instruction at the training college.

#### Shortage of Personnel

The most serious deterrent to progress in home economics in Swaziland is the extreme shortage of qualified personnel to guide and direct the program and the workers in the field. Reporting on a survey undertaken in Malawi, Zambia and Swaziland in 1964, Margaret McArthur (21) observed that there was not a single African woman with degree qualifications in home economics, and none with a degree in nutrition in any of these countries.

This may not be an accurate statement in 1967, but it tells us that it will be some time before the number of Swazis with professional qualifications can be expected to increase appreciably.

The need for home economists in Swaziland is probably greatest at the advanced degree level. Highly qualified and trained personnel are needed as administrators, university and training college lecturers, nutritionists, and specialists in the various subject matter encompassed by home economics, and research workers in these areas. Little or no research has been done on any of the problems that face people in their homes. Research is needed to provide the background for the program in home economics. For example, research on how the local foods can be combined to provide adequate diets, is needed as a basic part of the nutrition for people program. The main weakness of the extension home economics program in Swaziland is the lack of suitably qualified home economists at the advanced level and the lack of sufficient funds to meet the capital and recurring expenditures necessary for providing advanced training.

The solution to these problems might be:

- Obtain scholarships and fellowships to enable Swazi women to study in selected training establishments.
- Request the services of home economics personnel from other countries, where personnel needs are more adequately met.
- Ultimately provide for advanced training within the country itself, in order to develop facilities for local research.



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PROPOSED PROGRAM FOR  
HOME ECONOMICS EXTENSION  
IN SWAZILAND

by

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AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S THESIS

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Swaziland, a small, developing country in southern Africa, has more than three-fourths of her population living in rural areas. The levels of education are low as are the standards of living. Rural families in Swaziland are faced with the problems characteristic of many developing countries, such as overpopulation, high levels of illiteracy, malnutrition, low levels of health and sanitation, and poverty.

The present study was undertaken to develop an extension home economics program to meet the pressing needs of Swazi families. Conferences were scheduled with State leaders of home economics extension at Kansas State University and the University of Nebraska. From these conferences some ideas were gained about important factors to be considered and subject matter to be emphasized in developing a home economics extension program in a country like Swaziland.

Long-term objectives and general teaching methods for home economics extension in Swaziland are presented. The subject matter areas considered important to meet the major needs are child care, clothing, food and nutrition, health and sanitation, and housing and home management. For each subject matter area, the present situation in Swaziland is described, significant problems of the people are listed, and the objectives for this topic are presented. In one subject matter area, clothing, detailed units were developed as a guide to the type of units that would be developed for the various subject matter areas.