

**PERCEPTIONS OF SUPPORT GIVEN TO LEARNERS FROM CHILD HEADED
HOMES BY INSTITUTIONAL LEVEL SUPPORT TEAMS**

MASHUDA EBRAHIM

20975481

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Promoter: Dr S.J. Kwatubana

Co-promoter: Dr T.J. Makhalemele

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work titled “Perceptions of Support Given to Learners from Child Headed Households by the Institutional-Level Support Teams” is my own original work and that all the sources used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

MASHUDA EBRAHIM

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DEDICATION

In the name of Allah, the Most Gracious the Most Merciful.

This work is dedicated to my late mother Mumtaaz Ebrahim, who sacrificed a lot to educate me and ensure that a strong foundation is laid. May Allah (SWT) grant her the highest stages in Jannah.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of support provided to learners from child headed homes (CHH) by the Institutional Level Support Teams (ILST). This was a two-phased study involving a literature study and empirical research. The study employed a qualitative research method to elicit information from participants by means of individual interviews.

The literature revealed that learners from CHH are part of our school systems even though the phenomenon of CHH is not increasing. These learners experience many challenges such as role adjustment, stress and grief and school drop outs. Due to lack of various needs it would be difficult for them to reach a level of self-actualisation unless schools provide support. Poverty, HIV/AIDS and the breakdown of appropriate alternative care were revealed as contextual factors leading to CHH.

There are also policies and reports guiding the support of learners in schools. There are national programmes that are provided from national level to support needy learners included, namely NSNP, school based crime prevention programmes, the child support grant, the sanitary pads project, exemption from paying school fees and the food garden project.

A qualitative method was used and data was collected by means of semi-structured interviews and documents. Five sites were purposefully selected and fifteen ILST members participated. The research sites comprised of five secondary schools. Data were collected from three strata, namely the principal, ILST coordinator and the teacher with the highest number of learners from CHH in his/her class.

The study revealed that national programmes were more constant than school-based which were ad-hoc and disjointed. Factors hampering the provision of support included problems with identification of learners from CHH, lack of policies guiding the provision of support to learners from CHH, lack of leadership and the ILST members not being committed enough. Factors enhancing the provision of support included good leadership, availability of programmes at national and the involvement of external stakeholders.

Key words: child headed homes, institutional level support team, support, vulnerable learners, programmes for support.

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE

Children are becoming orphans on a much larger scale according to Leatham (2005:80), Maqoko and Dreyer (2007:722) and Williams (2010:12) thereby changing household structures to Child-Headed Households (CHH) and rendering many vulnerable. The responsibility of caring for orphans in South Africa has become a major problem that is exacerbated by poverty and unemployment making it difficult for the extended families to take care of these orphans. The schools therefore, have to take responsibility as these learners spend most of their time at schools. This calls for inclusion of these learners in programmes that support learning.

Within an inclusive education system, all educational institutions need to be able to manage themselves and provide support to learners with diverse support requirements in a variety of ways (DoE, 2005a:16). It has been recommended in White Paper 6 (WP6) (DoE, 2001:29) that all educational institutions have to establish Institutional- Level Support Teams (ILSTs). The ILSTs are seen as an “internal” support team within institutions such as early childhood centres, schools, colleges, adult learning centres and higher educational institutions. The function of these ILSTs is primarily to support the learning and teaching process by identifying and addressing learner, educator and institutional needs.

To ensure effective support, the ILSTs should comprise of the following core members: educators with specialised skills and knowledge in learner support, life skills or counselling; educators that volunteer or share a common interest in that of supporting learners; educators who are involved directly in the management of the school such as the principal, deputy principal or any other member who is part of the management team and non- educators from the school such as administrative staff or care-taking staff (Nel, Nel & Lebeloane, 2012b:56). It is also recommended that

parents, specific members of the District-Based Support Team (DBST) and local community members who can contribute to specific challenges also form part of the ILST (DoE, 2005a:35-37). According to Nel, Müller and Rheeders (2011:40), all these members should have the potential and contribute to supporting learners with diverse learning needs, including those from CHH.

Learners from CHH experience many barriers to learning (Taggart, 2007:ii) and these barriers are brought about from a range of factors (DoE, 2008a:8). Swart and Pettipher (2005:18) and Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2010:21) state that these factors include socio- economic deprivation which includes poverty, the lack of access to basic services, exposure to danger arising from environments that are inaccessible and unsafe. Donald *et al.* (2010:21) and Swart and Pettipher (2005:18) state that social factors such as violence occurring in their living environments can also place learners at risk. These factors are discussed in detail in Chapter 2 (*cf.* 2.6.1.1 & 2.6.1.2).

Furthermore, Taggart (2007:ii, iii), Maqoko and Dreyer (2007:717-719) and Van Dijk (2008:2) all share the view that learners from CHH develop emotional, psychological as well as cognitive barriers which may lead to them dropping out of school (*cf.* 2.6.1.5.1). Leatham (2005:12) states that learners from CHH are part of the school communities as according to the Constitution (RSA, 1996a) it is their right to education. There are programmes in place at schools to cater for them. Leatham (2005:98), Davids, Nkomo, Mfecane, Skinner and Ratele (2006:33), Kiti (2008:102-122) and Pillay (2011:12) all mention that learners from CHH get food at school through the National School Nutrition Programme (NSNP) (*cf.* 3.5.2.1). These learners also get their uniform from schools (Leatham, 2005:98; Pillay, 2011:12) and the school provides them with a safe place in comparison to what they have at home (Pillay, 2011:12). Davids *et al.* (2006:33) and Hoadley (2008:138) also claim that schools support learners from CHH by exempting them from paying school fees. Furthermore, as part of school-based support, learners are educated through life skills (Scott, 2001:13), which should enable them to make informed decisions. However, a study conducted by Leatham (2005:98) revealed that a few learners from CHH pointed out that they received limited emotional guidance from schools.

The above mentioned examples of school based support for learners from CHH are limited because according to Mogotlane, Chauke, Van Rensburg, Human and Kganakga (2010:24), Korevaar (2009:iii) and Mkhize (2006:vii), it is mainly governmental support.

Many researchers have conducted research on the plight of CHH. Nkosi (2013) focuses his study on challenges faced by children from CHH. Thumbadoo (2013) focused her study on community support provided to learners from CHH. The gap identified in these authors' studies pertains to the fact that they did not focus on the support provided to learners from CHH by the ILST. There is a need for a strong support from the school as educators meet with these learners on a daily basis. The question that arises is: what support is given to learners from CHH by the ILSTs at school level?

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Many researchers mention economic hardships as the major problem for learners from CHH (Davids *et al.*, 2006:4; Maqoko & Dreyer, 2007:717, 724, 727; Department of Social Development, 2008:1; Kuhanen, Shemeikka, Notkola & Nghixulifwa, 2008:130). According to Maqoko and Dreyer (2007:719) and Kuhanen *et al.* (2008:130), these learners end up not having the courage to attend school due to atrocities they suffer both at home and at school. This situation, as stated by Kuhanen *et al.* (2008:128), Maqoko and Dreyer (2007:717, 726), Ayieko (2003:9) and Van Dijk (2008:2) leads to high drop-out rates for learners from CHH.

Another problem in the ILST support services is that the DBST seems to be failing to develop educators and schools to accommodate learners with barriers to learning (Makhalemele, 2011:87-88). The skills that the ILST possess are inadequate and the training given is basically crash courses (Williams, 2010:19) which results in ad hoc and disjointed support for learners. The inadequate provision of support services in schools perhaps due to a shortage of human resources, lack of teacher development

or inadequate policies and legislation contribute to ineffectiveness in the provision of support.

These problems remain a concern when it comes to learners from CHH at schools. This research therefore focuses on exploring support rendered to learners from CHH by the ILSTs.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTION

The following research question was formulated to guide this research:

- What are the perceptions of ILST members regarding support given to learners from CHH?

1.3.1 Secondary questions

- What is the essence of CHH?
- What support is provided to learners from CHH?
- How effective are ILST members in implementing policies pertaining to support?
- What programmes provide support to learners from CHH by the ILSTs?
- What factors hamper the provision of support by the ILSTs to learners from CHH?
- What factors enhance the provision of support by the ILSTs to learners from CHH?
- What recommendations can be formulated to help the ILSTs to provide effective support to learners from CHH?

1.4 AIM

The aim of this research was to determine perceptions of ILST members regarding support given to learners from CHH.

1.4.1 Objectives

The objectives of this study are mainly to:

- determine the essence of CHH;
- determine the support provided to learners from CHH.
- investigate the effectiveness of the ILST in implementing policies pertaining to support;
- determine programmes that provide support to learners from CHH by the ILSTs;
- explore factors that hamper the provision of support by the ILSTs to learners from CHH;
- explore factors that enhance the provision of support by the ILSTs to learners from CHH; and
- come up with recommendations to help the ILSTs to provide effective support to learners from CHH.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research was conducted in two phases. The first phase was done by means of a literature review. The sources that were collected led to categorisation of information into certain themes. The themes for the literature review are indicated in the figures below. Table 1.1 specifies the themes for chapter 2 and table 1.2 shows the themes for chapter 3.

1.5.1 Conceptual framework

Table 1.1: Themes for Chapter 2

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|---|
| Legal framework for Children in South Africa |
| Payne, 2012; Human and Van Rensburg, 2011; Mogotlane, Chauke, Van Rensburg, Human and Kganakga, 2010; Naidoo, 2008; Mkhize, 2006; Rosa, 2004; Sloth-Nielsen, 2004; RSA, 1996a |

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| Phenomenon of CHH |
| Campbell, Andersen, Mutsikiwa, Madanhire, Skovdal, Nyamukapa, Gregson, 2014; Nyaradzo, 2013; Phillips, 2011; Van Breda, 2010; Nziyane, 2010; Department of Social Development, 2010; Korevaar, 2009; Ruiz-Casares, 2009; Kuhanen, Shemeikka, Notkola and Nghixulifwa, 2008; Department of Social Development, 2008; South African Government, 2005; Monasch and Boerma, 2004; Sloth-Nielsen, 2004; Rosa, 2004; Taggart, 2007; RSA, 1996a |
| Contextual factors leading to CHH |
| UNICEF, 2014; Gregson, 2014; Statistics South Africa, 2014a; Statistics South Africa, 2014b; Danial and Mathias, 2012; Payne, 2012; Phillips, 2011; Pillay, 2011; Human and Van Rensburg, 2011; Nziyane, 2010; Meintjies, Hall, Marera and Boulle, 2010; Van Breda, 2010; Francis-Chizororo, 2010; Bonthuys, 2010; Williams, 2010; Ruiz-Casares, 2009; Korevaar, 2009; Campbell, <i>et al.</i> , 2008; Naidoo, 2008; Kamper, 2008; Kuhanen, Shemeikka, Notkola and Nghixulifwa, 2008; Department of Social Development, 2008; Kidman, Petrow and Heymann, 2007; Maqoko and Dreyer, 2007; Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute, 2007; Ramosolo, 2007; Germann, 2006; Thurman, <i>et al.</i> , 2006; Mkhize, 2006; Mphahlele, 2005; Adato, <i>et al.</i> , 2005; Hartell and Chabilall, 2005; Boris, <i>et al.</i> , 2005; Leatham, 2005; Rosa, 2004; Monasch and Boerma, 2004; Odhiambo and Manda, 2003; Bicego, <i>et al.</i> , 2003; Hasan and Hashim, 2001; Foster, 2000; RSA, 1996a |
| Prevalence of CHH in South Africa |
| Statistics South Africa, 2014c; Nyaradzo, 2013; Bonthuys, 2010; Meintjies, Hall, Marera and Boulle, 2010; Van Breda, 2010; Human and Kganakga, 2010; Korevaar, 2009; Van Dijk and Van Driel, 2009; Department of Social Development, 2008; Mogotlane, Chauke, Van Rensburg, Naidoo, 2008 |
| Challenges that learners from CHH face |

Campbell, *et al.*, 2014; Van der Walt, 2013; Nyaradzo, 2013; Kendrick and Kakuru, 2012; Daniel and Mathias, 2012; Human and Van Rensburg, 2011; Saungweme, 2011 Makhalemele, 2011; Nel, *et al.*, 2011; Pillay, 2011; Ogina, 2010; Nziyane, 2010; Francis-Chizororo, 2010; Van Breda, 2010; Department of Social Development, 2010; Williams, 2010; Hlengwa, 2010; Van Rensburg, Human and Kganakga, 2010; Ruiz-Casares, 2009; Korevaar, 2009; Kamper, 2008; Naidoo, 2008; Chitiyo, Changara and Chitiyo, 2008; Kuhanen, *et al.*, 2008; Department of Social Development, 2008; Kidman, Petrow and Heymann, 2007; Maqoko and Yolanda, 2007; Taggart, 2007; Maqoko and Dreyer, 2007; Rossi and Stuart, 2007; Huitt, 2007; Sloth-Nielsen, 2004; Mkhize, 2006; Boeree, 2006; Masondo, 2006; Adato, Kadiyala, Roopnaraine, Biermayr-Jenzano and Norman, 2005; Hartell and Chabilall, 2005; Leatham, 2005; Bennell, 2005; Rosa, 2004; Lushington, 2002; Pynoos, Steinberg and Piacentini, 1999; Abraham Maslow, 1970

Table 1.2: Themes for Chapter 3

The paradigm shift towards inclusive education

Jama, 2014; Department of Education, 2014; Nel, 2013; Nel, Engelbrecht, Nel, Tlale, 2013; Mahlo and Hugo, 2013; Nana, 2012; Nel, Müller and Rheeders, 2011; Makhalemele, 2011; Perumal, 2010; Tebid, 2010; Wood and Goba, 2010; Department of Education, 2011; Department of Education, 2010; Ogina, 2010; Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana, 2010; Bonthuys, 2010; Williams, 2010; Pillay and Di Terlizzi, 2009; Department of Education, 2008; Mkhize, 2006; Landsberg, 2005; Swart and Pettipher, 2005; Mphahlele, 2005; Swart and Phasha, 2005; Department of Education, 2005a; Department of Education, 2005b; Department of Education, 2005c; Department of Education, 1999; Department of Education, 2001; Department of Education, 1997; RSA, 1996a; South African Schools Act (84/1996b); Department of Education, 1995;

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| Factors impacting the ILST |
| Donohue and Bornman, 2014; Mosia, 2014; Engelbrecht, 2013; Nel, Nel and Hugo, 2012a; Nel <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Department of Education, 2012; Deng and Poon-McBrayer, 2012; Nana, 2012; Wood and Goba, 2011; Mahlo, 2011; Nel, Müller and Rheeders, 2011; Tebid, 2010; Donald, <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Williams, 2010; Ogina, 2010; Perumal, 2010; Ladbrook, 2009; Naidoo, 2008; Mayaba, 2008; Kamper, 2008; Taggart, 2007; Mphahlele, 2005; Leatham, 2005; Swart and Pettipher, 2005; Hay, 2003; Prinsloo, 2001; Swart and Pettipher, 2001; Department of Education, 2000 |
| Programmes initiated nationally to support learners from CHH |
| National Youth Development Agency, 2015; Department of Education, 2015; Dei, 2014; South African Police Service, 2014; Department of Education, 2013; UNICEF, 2012; Boschloo, <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Integrated School Health Policy, 2012; Department of Social Development, South African Social Security Agency and UNICEF, 2012; Setoaba, 2011; Davidson, 2011; KwaZulu Natal Department of Education, 2011; Department of Social Development, 2010; Overy, 2010; Department of Education, 2009; South African Police Service, 2009; Department of Education, 2008; South African Human Rights Commission, 2008; Proudlock and Mahery, 2006; South Africa, 2006a; South Africa, 2006b; Hall and Monson, 2006. |

In phase two an empirical study was conducted. This study was guided by a paradigm and a method that was selected specifically to respond to the research questions. The research paradigm chosen is discussed below.

1.5.2 Research Paradigm

Nieuwenhuis (2010a:47-48) defines a paradigm as a collection of assumptions or scientific beliefs about important aspects of reality. It serves as a set of organising principles by which reality is interpreted when conducting research. Paradigms generate a brief guideline of how research is conducted, what strategy to select as

well as selecting the appropriate data collection techniques and data analysis methods (Taber, 2013:288).

This study is based on an interpretivist paradigm. Creswell (2009:8) highlights that the goal of interpretivist research is to depend on the views of the participants on the phenomenon being studied because certain aspects and events are understood differently by different people. Therefore, interpretivists emphasize the importance of exploring how different participants in a social setting construct their beliefs (Check & Schutt, 2012:15).

Thus, for the purpose of this study, I gathered data by using interaction to construct meaning of the perceptions of ILST members in supporting learners from CHH. I sought to understand the context of the participants and how they made meaning through interacting with them and personally gathering information from them.

1.5.3 Research Design

In line with the interpretivist world view, I followed a qualitative research design to conduct this study (Nieuwenhuis, 2010a:56). Qualitative research is observational and introspective (Evans, 2013:145) which means it involves investigating the richness, depth and complexity of a phenomenon to gain insight and understanding through emerging questions and procedures (Creswell, 2009:4). Data is collected from selected participants within their natural setting and it is mainly narrative or visual in nature (Mertler & Charles, 2011:191).

A qualitative research design was considered to be suitable for this study because this type of research design attempts to collect descriptive data that is rich. It focuses on how people view and construct meaning out of experiences (Nieuwenhuis, 2010a:50). This allowed me to gain an understanding from the participants, of the meaning which they assigned to their actions in terms of this particular phenomenon.

The data collected included the participants' feelings, beliefs, ideas, actions and thoughts on the topic that was explored (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:316).

Possible weaknesses of this research design could be subjectivity and the fact that there was a possibility of researcher bias (Mertler & Charles, 2011:190). Creswell (2009:197) mentions that the researcher needs to take every effort to ensure objectivity. However, he goes on to say that in a qualitative study, the researcher needs to clarify the bias brought to the study (Creswell, 2009:192). Good qualitative research contains a researcher's comments about how their interpretation of the findings was shaped by their gender, culture, history and socio-economic background. This was also included in the research.

1.6 STRATEGY OF INQUIRY

There are five strategies of inquiry in qualitative research. These include narrative research, phenomenology, ethnographies, grounded theory studies and case studies (Creswell, 2009:12; Lodico, Spaulding & Voegtler, 2010:166). The strategy of inquiry used in this study is phenomenology.

Creswell (2009:13) defines phenomenology as a strategy in which the researcher highlights the nature of human experiences about a phenomenon which is experienced or lived by the participants. Toma (2011:266) further states that the aim of a phenomenological study is to describe the essence and meanings of lived experiences. My intention was to provide a rich description of the perceptions of ILST members regarding how they supported learners from CHH. The participants' perspectives are the focus when using this approach (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:24; Mertler & Charles, 2011:205).

1.7 PARTICIPATION SELECTION

Nieuwenhuis (2010b:79) defines sampling as a process that is used to choose a portion of the population for the research furthermore Nieuwenhuis (2010b:79) identifies three commonly used sampling strategies that are employed by beginner researchers, namely: stratified purposive sampling; criterion sampling and snowball sampling. Purposive sampling is usually used in qualitative research and participants are selected based on the research question being explored. The goal of purposive sampling is to gather smaller sample sizes in order to select participants that can provide the most detailed information in order to answer the research question (Lodico *et al.*, 2010:134). The participants of this study included members of the ILST as mentioned in DoE (2005a:35-37), namely principals, co-ordinators and teachers with the highest number of learners from CHH in their classes (n=15).

Five mainstream high schools were requested to participate in this research. In each school three members of the ILST participated. Initially I wanted to conduct my study in mainstream primary schools, but after conducting a pilot study it became evident that these learners were more prevalent in mainstream high schools. As observed, primary school teachers failed to identify learners from CHH and they classified them as orphans and vulnerable children. Therefore the focus was on mainstream high schools for this study. Although permission had already been asked from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research when I decided to focus on mainstream primary schools, a further application had to be made for an amendment to include only mainstream high schools.

Criterion sampling was used while recruiting participants for this study. With criterion sampling I identified certain characteristics that participants needed to possess to be included in the study (Nieuwenhuis, 2010b:79-80). In this study certain criteria were followed to recruit participants, which included that a participant be:

- a member of the ILST;
- a principal of a school;

- a teacher with the highest number of learners from CHH in his/her class; and
- a co-ordinator of the ILST.

Stratified purposive sampling was used when participants were recruited. Nieuwenhuis (2010b:79) defines stratified purposive sampling as a means to select participants according to a pre-selected criterion that is relevant to the research question. The idea was to select a sample of participants from all ILST members in the Sedibeng district. This sampling method illustrates the characteristics of sub-groups to assist comparisons by selecting participants based on key dimensions (Nieuwenhuis, 2010b:79). Potential participants are then divided into strata containing variants of the phenomenon. Data was collected from three strata, namely: co-ordinators of the ILST, principals and teachers with the highest number of learners from CHH in their classes, in order to compare the data from participants in these three strata.

The five schools were purposefully selected. Purposive sampling is when the researcher intentionally chooses certain sites that will be informative about the phenomenon being studied. Making use of the researcher's discretion of the sites, a decision was made about which sites should be selected in order to provide the best information to address the purpose of the research (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:138; Creswell, 2012:206).

1.8 DATA COLLECTION STRATEGIES

Denscombe (2007:173), Nieuwenhuis (2010b:87-91) and Lodico *et al.* (2010:149) state that, in line with a phenomenological study, in-depth interviews are used as a main method of data collection. Interviews can be defined as a conversation between the researcher and participants who are taking part in the study, discussing assumptions and understandings about a specific topic, in this case support rendered to learners from CHH.

Nieuwenhuis (2010b:87) classifies interviews as structured, semi-structured or open-ended. In this study semi structured-interviews and documents were used to collect data. Semi-structured interviews often require the participant to answer questions that are pre-determined (*cf.* Appendix 5) and Mertler and Charles (2011:196) add that these questions can be followed up by a given response with alternative optional questions that depend on the situation. Furthermore, semi-structured interviews were used to try to gain a detailed view of the beliefs, feelings and perceptions of the ILST members regarding the support provided to learners from CHH in mainstream high schools. Mertler and Charles (2011:205) also state that during the semi-structured interviews, the researcher must get the participants to relive the experience in their minds as accurately as possible and their associated perceptions and reactions that come with it. The participants were interviewed in their natural setting until data saturation.

As indicated by Wilson and Fox (2013:119) one-on-one interviews may intimidate some participants and due to the fact that people are complex and that there can be certain complexities in communication, miscommunication or misinterpretation can easily be created. Therefore, McMillan and Schumacher (2010:24) and Creswell (2009:13) suggest that in order to control this, I have to put aside all prejudgements and my own experiences. During the interviews, I also had to deal with miscommunication and misinterpretation by asking probing questions for clarification as suggested by Nieuwenhuis (2010c:114).

As mentioned above, the use of documents was another data collection strategy that was used in this study. Nieuwenhuis (2010b:82, 83) explains that by using documents as a data collection strategy, the researcher focuses on all types of written communication that may be valuable to the phenomenon being studied. These documents included policies, published or unpublished documents, memoranda, agendas, administrative documents, letters, reports, support intervention plans, and minutes of meetings or any document that linked to the study.

These documents were used as the primary sources of data. The documents that were focused on pertained to support and interventions. Documents that contained confidential information about learners, such as their diagnostic profiles, were avoided. Nieuwenhuis (2010b:83) states that the researcher needs to evaluate the authenticity and accuracy of the documents before making use of them. This aspect was observed in this study.

1.8.1 Data collection process

Creswell (2009:178) explains that the data collection process involves setting the border lines for the study; collecting information through observations, interviews, documents or visual materials and lastly creating the protocol for the recording of information. In this study the following data collection process, as characterised by Creswell (2009:178-183), was used:

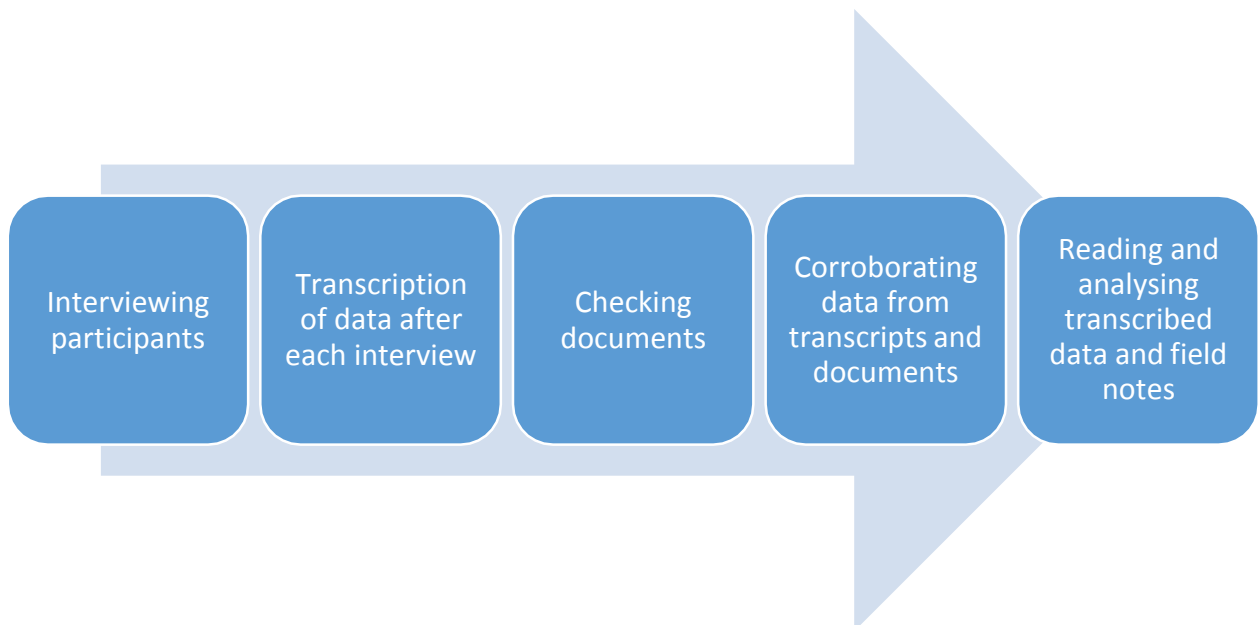
- To generate the empirical data, I had to purposefully select a site in which the research took place. Qualitative researchers aim at collecting data from participants within the environment that they experience the situation. Therefore I met with the participants in their natural setting (Creswell, 2009:175), which in this case was their own classrooms. The meeting took place after school to avoid taking up their teaching time.
- One-on-one semi-structured interviews were conducted by making use of an interview schedule (*cf.* Appendix 5). This schedule was used as a guideline when conducting the interviews. As Creswell (2009:183) postulates, the interview questions were included in the schedule and there were spaces between questions to record the responses. The interview schedule ended with a final *thank you* statement acknowledging the interviewee's time spent during the interview.
- The information from the interviews was recorded by making use of handwritten notes and by audiotaping the interview. Audiotaping the interview gave me the advantage of keeping eye contact with the interviewee so that

the interviewee's non-verbal communication could be observed (Nieuwenhuis, 2010b:88).

- Documents were also collected and examined. The ILST members of participating schools were asked for documents mentioned in the sections above.

The data collection process discussed in this section is summarised in the figure below.

Figure 1.1: Data collection process



I was aware that the qualitative research design was emergent and that when entering the research field to collect data, the phases and process in the initial plan might change (Creswell, 2009:175-176).

1.8.2 Role of the researcher

The researcher's role is very important when it comes to qualitative research (Lichtman, 2013:25) as he or she acts as a key instrument in conducting the research (Nieuwenhuis, 2010b:79). I therefore asked interview questions,

transcribed data and read through the transcripts and thus acted as a passage through which information was gathered and filtered.

Due to these roles it was vitally important that I understood the problem, issues and procedures (Lichtman, 2013:25). Acting as the key instrument in collecting data, I brought my own personal values, assumptions, experiences and knowledge about the phenomenon into the study (Creswell, 2009:196). This was more of an advantage than a disadvantage because it allowed me to recognise more readily what the participant meant (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:335). Experiences, knowledge and factors might have influenced my understanding and the way the collected data was interpreted. I tried my best to ensure objectivity (Creswell, 2009:196) by allowing another student with a similar topic to code my data. This coder developed codes and categories which were then compared to my own codes and categories (Nieuwenhuis, 2010c:114). Any biases that were brought to the study were clarified and the strategies that were used to counteract those biases were communicated and indicated (Creswell, 2009:192). This self-reflection, according to Creswell (2009:192) created an open and honest study.

Working as an educator in a combined school in a township, I was exposed to many learners from CHH. Most of an educator's time is spent with learners whose only hope is the support from the school. This is how I developed an interest in the level of support provided to learners from CHH.

1.9 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Nieuwenhuis (2010c:99-100) describes data analysis as a process which is on-going. Data collection, processing of data, data analysis and reporting of data are all very closely related and are conducted simultaneously and therefore cannot be considered as different steps. Content analysis was used (Nieuwenhuis, 2010c:101), thus making meaning of the data by going through it systematically, therefore, making meaning of the participants' responses.

The following steps indicated by Creswell (2009:185-190) and Nieuwenhuis (2010c:104-113) in content analysis were followed in this research:

- **Data organisation and preparation for analysis:** I organised my data by transcribing each interview word for word. I gave each participant a number and I labelled each transcript. Thereafter I sorted all the transcripts by filing them in number order.
- **Reading through the data:** I listened to each interview audio tape and thereafter I read the transcripts, I re-listened and re-read over and over until I got a sense of the whole. By doing this I was able to reflect on the overall meaning of the data.
- **Coding:** I started the coding process by separating the transcribed data line by line and dividing the sentences into meaningful parts. I prescribed codes (open coding) to the parts I felt are significant. I continued with this process until I separated all my data and completed the initial coding. Thereafter I reanalysed the open codes and formed axial codes. Then I identified and formed themes and ensured they were related to my study. The fact that the themes emerged from the data made it an inductive approach as I had no pre-determined themes. This process was repeated by another Masters student with a topic similar to mine in order to compare the codes we came up with and to ensure confirmability.
- **Interpretation or meaning of data:** Analysed data was brought into context with the existing policies and programmes to reveal whether the ILSTs were supporting learners from CHH and to corroborate existing knowledge from the literature. At this stage the factors hampering or enhancing the adequate provision of support to learners from CHH were brought to light and new understandings on the phenomenon or new questions arose from the findings.

1.10 TRUSTWORTHINESS

Trustworthiness refers to the way in which the researcher provides evidence to the reader that his or her descriptions and analysis of the findings represent the reality of

the phenomenon (Lodico *et al.*, 2010:169) ensuring the quality of the research. In qualitative research, trustworthiness refers to the following concepts: transferability, credibility, dependability and conformability (Lodico *et al.*, 2010:169-174).

- **Transferability**, according to Mertens (2010:259), is a concept that enables the reader of the research to make judgements, based on similarities and differences, when comparing the research situation to a situation they wish to transfer the findings to. The reader has the responsibility to determine the degree of similarity of the characteristics of the research site and the reader's own site (Lodico *et al.*, 2010:173). To allow for transferability I gave a detailed description of my findings, the research process and the setting by explaining every step of the process. I also included all the data and documents that were collected so that the reader could read the interviews and documents for themselves (*cf.* Appendix.6, 7 & 8).
- **Credibility**, according to Mertler and Charles (2011:199), refers to establishing whether the results of the research is believable from the perspective of the participants in the research. Lodico *et al.* (2010:169) states that it refers to whether the participants' perceptions of the setting or events link to the researcher's interpretation of their perceptions in the research report. Credibility can be ensured by indicating the time spent on data collection and how the researcher established and grew strong relationships with the participant's. It can also be ensured by monitoring whether the data interpretations of the researcher are in actual fact valid (Lodico *et al.*, 2010:169-172). I enhanced the credibility of my findings by going back and asking the participants whether my interpretation of the data were in line with the personal experiences that they were trying to express during the interviews (Nieuwenhuis, 2010c:114).
- **Dependability**, according to Mertler and Charles (2011:199), refers to the stability or consistency of the inquiry processes used over time. This was ensured in my study by describing the data collection process in great depth (*cf.* 4.6.3). All the data collected were included as well as the description of all the changes made during the research process.

- **Confirmability**, according to Toma (2011:274), is a concept in which the data can be reasserted by someone other than the researcher, for example another researcher. The findings need to be objective enough so that they can be confirmed. Once I had analysed my data I asked another student with a similar topic to analyse my data so that I could compare codes that I derived with the codes that she/he came up with. I also gave the participants copies of a draft report, and I asked them for written and oral comments on whether the data was misinterpreted or not.

1.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Creswell (2009:87-93) describes the following fundamental ethical principles when undergoing research:

- Ethical clearance was gained from the Ethics Committee of the North West University in order to proceed with this research. The ethics committee granted permission for this study to be conducted (OPT-2014-013) (*cf.* Appendix 3).
- Permission was also obtained from the education districts of the schools (*cf.* Appendix 2) in which the research was conducted. I had to gain permission from the school principals who acted as gate keepers.
- An informed consent form was drawn up and read to each participant (*cf.* Appendix 4). Then thereafter, those who agreed to participate were given forms to complete and sign. Informed consent forms were attained from all the members of the ILST who took part in this study. I explained that one-on-one interviews were to be conducted with the participant who was willing to take part in the study. The informed consent form was signed by participants before interviews were conducted. I asked permission from the participants to record the interviews.
- I informed the participants that all information and experiences which they shared would be kept confidential. Their right to remain anonymous was respected and no personal information was revealed without their consent. The identities of the participants and of the school were protected by using participant 1, participant 2, for participants and school A and school B for schools.

- I informed the participants that their participation in this research was not compulsory and if they wished to withdraw from the research at any stage of the research they had the right to do so and I respected their choice.
- Data obtained is kept in a locked cupboard by the supervisors for a period determined by the university.
- During the analyses and interpretation of the qualitative data I ensured anonymity. The data was only available to me and my study leaders.
- I avoided the use of bias words against the participants in terms of their gender, sexuality, race, ethnic group or disability. The findings were purely based on the data obtained through the empirical study.

1.12 PROPOSED LAYOUT OF STUDY

CHAPTER ONE: Orientation to the study – This chapter focuses on the introduction to the study, problem statement, aim of the study, the research design, trustworthiness of the study and the ethical considerations.

CHAPTER TWO: Children Headed Homes (Literature Review) - Consists of a literature study focusing on the legal framework for children in South Africa, the phenomenon of CHH, the contextual factors leading to CHH, the prevalence of CHH in South Africa and the challenges that learners from CHH face.

CHAPTER THREE: The essence of support for learners from CHH (Literature Review) - This chapter consists of a literature study explaining the paradigm shift towards inclusive education, the need for education support services, the formation of education support services, the establishment of the ILST along with its functions and role players and the factors impacting the ILST. The chapter concludes with the programmes initiated nationally to support learners from CHH in schools.

CHAPTER FOUR: Research Methodology- Focuses on the research methodology of the study. This chapter also includes details about the research design, data collection strategies, sampling and data analysis.

CHAPTER FIVE: Data analyses and interpretation- The chapter focuses on analysed information collected by means of interviews and documents. The themes that emanated from the analysed data are presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER SIX: Summary, finding and recommendations- A summary of the findings of the empirical research as well as the literature, are presented in this chapter. Recommendations are also made regarding the practical implementation of the findings.

1.13 CONCLUSION

This chapter gave an overview of the study, starting with the introduction and rationale. The statement of the problem was presented along with the research question guiding this research. The aims and objectives were explained, followed by a conceptual framework with the themes in the literature review which are chapters 2 and 3. The research methodology used in this research was introduced including the research paradigm, research methods, data collection strategies, sampling, trustworthiness of the research and the ethical considerations. The methodology is discussed in detail in chapter 4. The next chapter is a literature review on CHH.

CHAPTER 2

CHILD HEADED HOMES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter one served as an orientation to this study. The introduction to the background of this study as well as the problem statement was clarified. It also looked at the research questions guiding this research along with the aims and objectives.

This chapter discusses the legal framework regarding children in South Africa, thereafter CHH is conceptualised, this discussion leads to a section on the prevalence of the phenomenon within South Africa and sub-Saharan Africa. The factors that impact learners from CHH are then reviewed.

2.2 LEGAL FRAMEWORK REGARDING CHILDREN IN SOUTH AFRICA

Children are vulnerable members of society because they are minors who depend on their parents, or families if their parents fail to provide care and protection (Naidoo, 2008:7). Therefore, according to Rosa (2004:2) and Payne (2012:402), children from CHH can be considered at risk of vulnerability due to the fact that there is an absence of an adult caregiver.

In order to clearly understand this research topic, it is imperative to apprehend the country's legislation regarding children. The South African Constitution (RSA, 1996a) contains a clause that is dedicated to the rights of children within the country's Bill of Rights. Below are the sections in the Bill of Rights that are relevant to all children including children growing up in CHH.

The Constitution is the country's highest and most supreme law of the country and it determines the states obligation towards children (Sloth-Nielsen, 2004:10). Section 28.1 of the Constitution states: "every child has a right:

(a) to basic education;

(b) to family care or parental care, or to appropriate alternative care when removed from the family environment;

(c) to basic nutrition, shelter, basic health care services and social services; and

(d) to be protected from maltreatment, neglect, abuse or degradation.”

Children in the society should receive care in the form of basic nutrition, shelter, basic healthcare and social services. Sloth-Nielsen (2004:12) asserts that the responsibility to provide this care rests entirely on the parents and the family of the child. However, Sloth-Nielsen (2004:12) further states that the Constitutional court takes full responsibility to meet the socio-economic needs in the case of orphans or abandoned children where there is an absence of parental care.

The school has full responsibility also as vulnerable learners are in the care of teachers whilst they are still furthering their education. The South African Schools Act (SASA) (84/1996b) gives children the right to access basic quality education without being discriminated against. The important part of the SASA is that it serves the right for all learners to have access to support services at schools. Children are still allowed to attend school even if their parents cannot afford it, as they would be exempted from paying school fees (South Africa, 2006a). Furthermore, children also have a right to access child support grants. More on child support grants can be found in Chapter 3 (*cf.* 3.5.1.1).

Chapter 2 (2d) of the Children’s Act 38 of 2005 (South Africa, 2005) mentions that a child must be protected against unfair discrimination; furthermore (2e) states that a child’s need for play and recreational activities appropriate to the child’s age must be recognised, this is compromised in the lives of learners from CHH due to their role adjustment to take on adult responsibilities. A child’s special needs also need to be recognised (2f).

Section 29 (1) of the South African Constitution (RSA, 1996a) states: “Everyone has the right- (a) to a basic education.” The importance of education is also reinforced in the South African Children’s Act (South Africa, 2005)

The legislation towards the importance of education is emphasised by Leatham (2005:2) by mentioning that the education system plays a vital role in the lives of learners from CHH as it prepares them for the future by developing them overall and equipping them with the necessary knowledge and skills they require to fight issues such as HIV/AIDS and poverty (Korevaar, 2009:35). According to Campbell *et al.* (2014), many international policies are increasingly allocating schools as a key to fill the gap of parents in supporting learners in their well-being.

To support the above statement of why education plays a vital role in the lives of learners from CHH, Mkhize (2006:36) mentions that all children, including those from CHH need affection, understanding and participation as means to survive. According to Mkhize (2006:360) the child’s need for affection, understanding and participation is best met at school. For the need of affection to be met, it is imperative that there is a sense of togetherness. Qualities of caring, sharing and expression of emotions are important for this need to be met (Mkhize, 2006:36). At school learners are part of a classroom and therefore this creates a sense of togetherness. Within this classroom they explore qualities of caring and sharing. Mkhize (2006:36) explains that for the need of understanding to be met, children need to be exposed to situations in which they can analyse, study, mediate and investigate. In other words the child needs intellectual growth. This includes critical thinking, curiosity and intuition which can also be met through education in schools. Participation is a child’s need to express their opinions and co-operate. In other words, they need to interact socially in an effective way (Mkhize: 2006:36). In schools children are encouraged to be socially interactive, to co-operate and share their opinions.

Nziyane (2010:127) indicates that the school is also important for these learners because it can help them empower themselves in terms of

the circumstances they are in. It can also play a role in restoring some of the confidence they have lost and remove their feeling of despair. Korevaar (2009:32) adds that to become economically viable learners from CHH need access to education, vocational guidance and life skills. This will allow them to deal with their emotions and stress and empower them to make informed decisions.

Pillay (2011:12) highlights many positive experiences that learners from CHH experience at schools. These positive experiences promote their emotions and their psychological self and motivate them to keep going. The friends they have at school give them a feeling of acceptance instead of rejection and this enlightens their confidence.

Many learners in Pillay's (2011:13) study highlighted the positive experiences about their Life Orientation teachers. They reported that these teachers are very important to them as they teach them what is right and wrong. They also highlighted that these teachers understand them and provide them with skills to care for themselves and inform them how to make good decisions in their lives. It is very apparent from these experiences that these learners feel accepted by their Life Orientation teachers and through this relationship they attained many skills and knowledge about how to look after themselves. Leatham (2005:90) also confirms in her study that many learners from CHH experienced positive experiences when it comes to teachers because they adopt their teachers as role models in the absence of their parents.

However, it is very unfortunate that in the lives of learners from CHH, education is one of the rights that are being violated and one of the facets that is most likely to be threatened in their lives (Van Breda, 2010:272). This is very unfortunate as learners from CHH require the support from the education system in order to survive and develop, as they are a marginalised group within the system (Leatham, 2006:1).

A lack of proper education according to Mkhize (2006:50) and Korevaar (2009:35) restricts an orphan's chances of removing themselves from poverty and exploitation as well as limits their understanding of responsibilities towards the community,

society and the State. Naidoo (2008:16); Korevaar (2009:35) and Pillay (2011:4) agree that educational institutions are most likely to be affected by HIV/AIDS and the increase in number of CHH which result thereof. Taggart (2007:63) highlights a range of barriers to learning as identified by Bennell (2005:482) that learners from CHH may experience. These include lower attendance rates, behavioural problems, limited concentration ability, being untidy and undernourished, incomplete class and homework tasks, physical or sexual abuse, isolation at school or in the community.

Mogotlane *et al.* (2010:24) and Human and Van Rensburg (2011:961) point out that the rights of children from CHH are often compromised and there is a strong need for action towards ensuring that the constitutional rights of the child are protected (Mkhize, 2006:43). In a section below (*cf.* 2.5) the challenges that learners from CHH face and the rights that are infringed are discussed.

2.3 THE PHENOMENON OF CHILD-HEADED HOMES

Children end up in CHH due to orphan hood and or abandonment. Before looking at the definition of CHH it is important to first define a child. In Section 28.3 of the South African Constitution (1996a) a child is a person under the age of 18 years. Therefore, children in this age group are still continuing with their education if they have not dropped out.

Korevaar (2009:8) defines an orphan as a child who is under the age of 18 years and who has lost both parents. The term orphan is a much debatable term as Nyaradzo (2013:13) explains that it is a socially constructed term. This means that its meaning and content differ from culture to culture. Some cultures define an orphan as a child that has lost both parents while other cultures refer to an orphan as a child who has lost one parent (Nyaradzo, 2013:14). This brings us to breaking down the term orphan in order to understand it more clearly. Monasch and Boerma (2004:S56) and Payne (2012:400) use Korevaar's definition to define what is called a double orphan. According to Monasch and Boerma (2004:S56) a double orphan is a child that has no living parent. Monasch and Boerma (2004:S56) define a maternal orphan as a

child who has lost his/her mother and a paternal orphan as a child who has lost his/her father. Furthermore, Van Breda (2010:262) defines another category of the term orphan, social orphan. According to Van Breda (2010:262) a social orphan is a child that has been abandoned by their parents for some or other reason. However, this study regarded an orphan as a child under the age of 18 who had lost a parent or both parents due to death or abandonment.

A household according to the Department of Social Development (2008:5) is a dwelling place for a family. It is characterised by a building structure that offers shelter and a yard. It consists of one or more people sharing the cooking, eating and living arrangements and who sleep in a common home for four or more nights a week (Nyaradzo, 2013:14).

Having an understanding of what an orphan and a household is, the term CHH is clarified. The Draft Children's Amendment Bill (South African Government, 2005: Section 137.1) considers a household as being a CHH if: "the parent, guardian or caregiver of the household is terminally ill, has died or has abandoned the children in the household; no adult family member is available to provide care for the children in the household; a child over the age of 16 years has assumed the role of a care-giver in respect of the children in the household."

The Department of Social Development (2008:22) analyses each part of the above definition. Firstly, the definition is broadened as it does not only include orphans but it goes further to mentioning children who have been abandoned or whose parents are terminally ill. Secondly, in order for the home to be a CHH, there must be either no adult family member providing care to the children in the household, or the adult could be present in the home but unable to provide care due to reasons highlighted above.

Phillips (2011:162) further explains that not all children living in CHHs are orphans. There are cases where the primary caregiver or parent is infected with HIV/AIDS or other diseases and chronically ill to run the household effectively. Sloth-Nielsen

(2004:2) adds that there is a growing tendency to include children with some sort of adult care into the category of a CHH. This is because these children are equally vulnerable and still have to maintain a household due to their chronically ill parent or care giver (Campbell *et al.*, 2014:8). The responsibility of running the household is thus transferred to a child. In the case where the children have lost one parent and the other parent's whereabouts are not known, the household is still run by a child without parental care.

While the literature above views a CHH as a household headed by a child, Rosa (2004:3), Kuhanen *et al.* (2008:126) and Ruiz-Casares (2009:238) go further to include household heads in their early 20s also to be considered as CHH. An explanation of this is given in a research conducted by Rosa (2004:3) who came across children who were older than 18 years, heading a household, while still attending school.

In this study, a CHH is regarded as including households where the caregiver was terminally ill, died or abandoned the children in the household, and the oldest member living in the house, in the 20's assumed the role of primary caregiver in respect of the siblings in the household (South Africa, 2005; Department of Social Development, 2008:5) if he or she was still attending school. A CHH in this regard also included households that might have some sort of adult support by an extended family member, neighbour or community structure (Human & Van Rensburg, 2011:961). Also adding to this definition, a CHH includes a child remaining on his or her own, heading his or her own household in the absence of any siblings.

Phillips (2011:160) clarifies that CHH may be a temporary or permanent living arrangement. This is due to the fact that their composition may change naturally as with normal households, or due to existing members leaving or new members entering the household. CHH is a fairly recent phenomenon and the very first cases of CHH were reported to be noted in the 1980s in Uganda and Tanzania (Nziyane, 2010:6). Since then a fair amount of research has focused on the increase in

orphans due to HIV/AIDS as well as the vulnerability of children living in CHH without parental care and support (Taggart, 2007:62).

According to the National Guidelines for Statutory Services to Child-Headed Households (Department of Social Development, 2010:13), this phenomenon is complex and multifaceted, impacting the wellbeing of children living in these households, and the realisation of their rights. Furthermore, it disrupts family functioning and the rearing and development of children are affected as a result thereof.

2.3.1 Statistics on the number of children in CHH and interpret

Bonthuys (2010:46) states that prior to the HIV/AIDS pandemic CHH were relatively rare. There are currently 3.7 million orphaned children in South Africa and close to half of these orphans have been orphaned due to HIV/AIDS (UNICEF, 2014). The HIV/AIDS pandemic will progressively increase the number of children living in CHH (Donald & Clacherty, 2005:21).

Reliable statistics regarding the number of CHH in South Africa and sub-Saharan Africa are very limited (Van Dijk & Van Driel, 2009:918). The process of estimating its prevalence is very complex (Van Breda, 2010:265, Bonthuys, 2010:46). The Department of Social Development (2008:1), Korevaar (2009:19) and Bonthuys (2010: 45) all used the 2005 General Household Survey to determine the number of CHH in South Africa. However, according to Statistics South Africa (2014c), data regarding CHH could be misleading because the surveys used to draw up the statistics, comprised of sample households from a dwelling framework. Furthermore, children without a fixed abode, like children on the street, were also not covered by this classification. Van Dijk and Van Driel (2009:918) also noted that data retrieved from these surveys should be interpreted with great caution as certain communities may be reluctant to admit their existence and sometimes CHH are just a temporary arrangement. The table below shows the number of children living in CHH and the number of CHH in South Africa from 2005 to 2013.

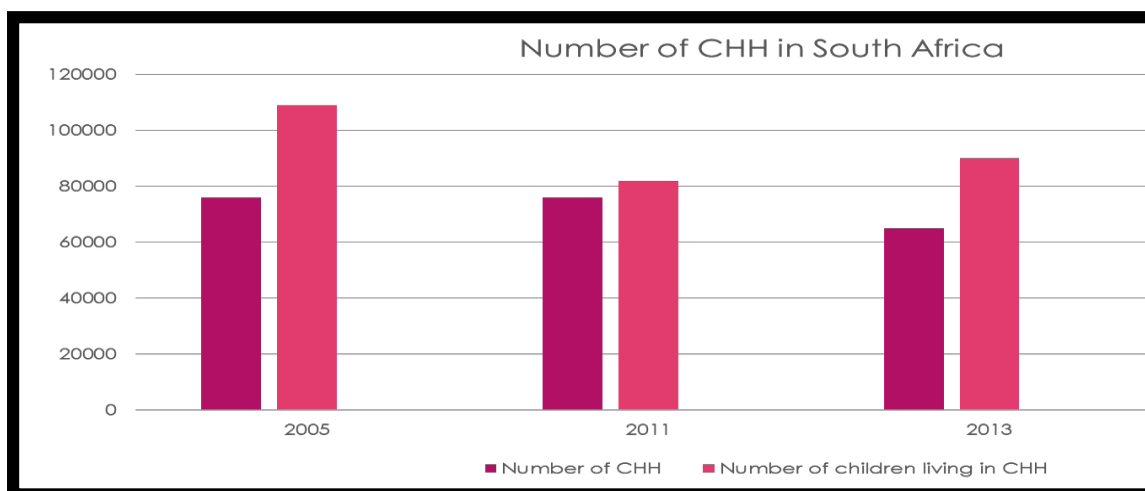
Table 2.1: Number of children living in CHH and number of CHH in South Africa

| | 2005 | 2006 | 2007 | 2008 | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 |
|---|---------|---------|---------|---------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Number of children living in CHH in South Africa | 109 000 | 116 000 | 143 000 | 107 000 | 93 000 | 85 000 | 82 000 | 92 000 | 90000 |
| Number of CHH in South Africa | 76 000 | 70 000 | 86 000 | 73 000 | 59 000 | 72 000 | 76 000 | 60 000 | 65 000 |

Source: Statistics South Africa (2014c)

The table above shows statistics regarding the number of children living in CHH as well as the number of CHH in South Africa. Accurate and recent statistics regarding the number of CHH are challenging to obtain. Statistics South Africa (2014c) indicates that in 2005 there were 76000 CHH in South Africa, 109000 children were living in CHH at that time. The number of homes remained the same for the year 2011, however, the number of children living in CHH decreased to 82 000. In 2013 there were 65 000 CHH, with a total of 90 000 children living in these homes. Figure 2.1 gives a visual representation of the number of CHH and the number of children living in CHH in South Africa. The graph below gives a visual representation of children living in CHH and the number of CHH in South Africa between 2005 and 2013.

Figure 2.1: The number of CHH in South Africa



Source: Statistics South Africa (2014c)

There are contradictory views among researchers with regard to the escalation of CHH over the years. While Mogotlane *et al.* (2010:25) and Nyaradzo (2013:iv) found that the phenomenon of CHH is increasing both in number and complexity, Naidoo (2008:1), Bonthuys (2010:45) and Meintjies, Hall, Marera and Boule (2010:40) disagree by stating that the proportion of CHH is relatively small and not growing. The graph above confirms the arguments made by Naidoo (2008:1), Bonthuys (2010:45) and Meintjies *et al.* (2010:40) that there is no significant escalation regarding the number of CHH in South Africa. However, even though findings fail to provide evidence that the phenomenon of CHH is rapidly increasing in South Africa and the number of CHH may be small, it should not be taken as insignificant. These households still face many significant challenges (Meintjies *et al.*, 2010:40, 46) that raise concerns as indicated by many researchers. It is important to highlight the contextual factors that lead to the development of CHH in South Africa.

2.4 CONTEXTUAL FACTORS LEADING TO CHH

In the year 2010 it was estimated that 1.8 million children had lost one or both parents due to HIV/AIDS related diseases (Nziyane, 2010:4). According to Kidman,

Petrow and Heymann (2007:326), Naidoo (2008:1), Meintjies *et al.* (2010:40), Phillips (2011:140-141), Pillay (2011:4) and Daniel and Mathias (2012:191) poverty and HIV/AIDS are the major concerns when it comes to the escalating number of orphans within South Africa and sub-Saharan Africa. Another factor resulting in the emergence of CHH is the breakdown of appropriate alternative care, which in this case is the breakdown of the extended family (Germann, 2006:150; Kuhanen *et al.*, 2008:127; Ruiz-Casares, 2009:238; Payne, 2012:401).

2.4.1 Poverty

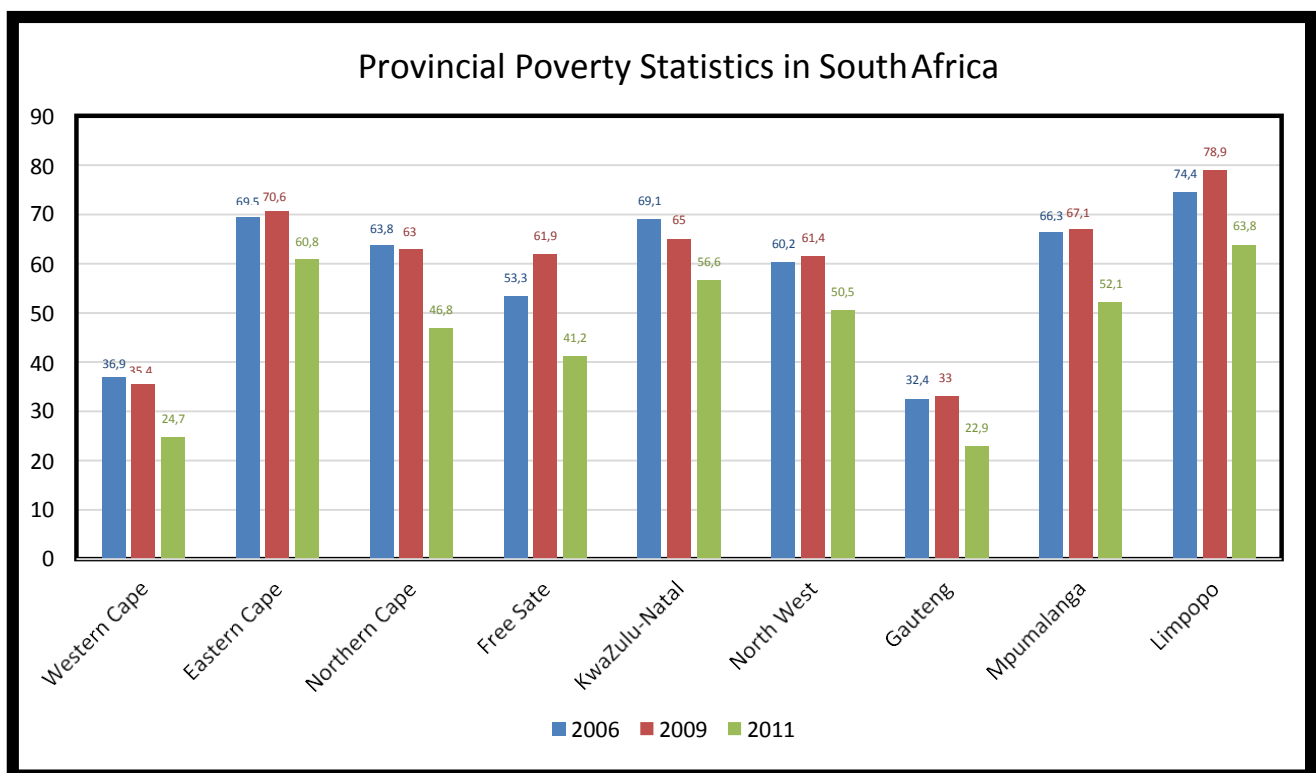
According to Leatham (2005:52) orphans are vulnerable to poverty and Nyaradzo (2013:34) states that poverty has an influence on a learner's academic performance, especially if they do not have the necessary educational material. Pillay (2011:8-9) describes the living conditions of these learners as poor, because they live in homes where there are no electricity and not enough furniture, like tables and chairs, where they can sit and do their homework. The effect of lack of study facilities at home on the education of CHH is also supported by Kamper (2008:2).

Kamper (2008:1) defines poverty as the inability of individuals in a household or community to reach and maintain a certain standard of living. The standard of living is weighed against a socially accepted minimum standard of living. This usually results from individuals having to do without resources. Resources can be financial (money), emotional (dealing with emotions), cognitive (skills to deal with life), spiritual (belief), physical or support structure related (friends and family) (Kamper, 2008:1).

When conceptualising poverty, according to the Studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute (2007:24), some of the frameworks include absolute and relative poverty approaches. Odhiambo and Manda (2003:3) put forward that absolute poverty and relative poverty are two types of poverty when looking at poverty from an income perspective. According to Statistics South Africa (2007:5) the value of an absolute poverty line is fixed in real terms. It is the minimum standard of living with the

minimum necessities required to sustain human life (Hasan & Hashim, 2001:8; Odhiambo & Manda, 2003:3). The only adjustments that need to be taken into account when considering the absolute poverty line, is that of inflation. On the contrary, the relative poverty line is the minimum economic, social, political and economic goods required in order to maintain an acceptable way of life within a particular society (Hasan & Hashim, 2001:8; Odhiambo & Manda, 2003:3). Relative poverty is not affixed in the minimum living standards or basic needs, it takes into consideration a society's characteristics and tries to identify those persons whose standard of living is unacceptably low compared to the rest of society (Statistics South Africa, 2007:5). The graph 2.2 below displays the provincial poverty statistics for the years 2006, 2009 and 2011.

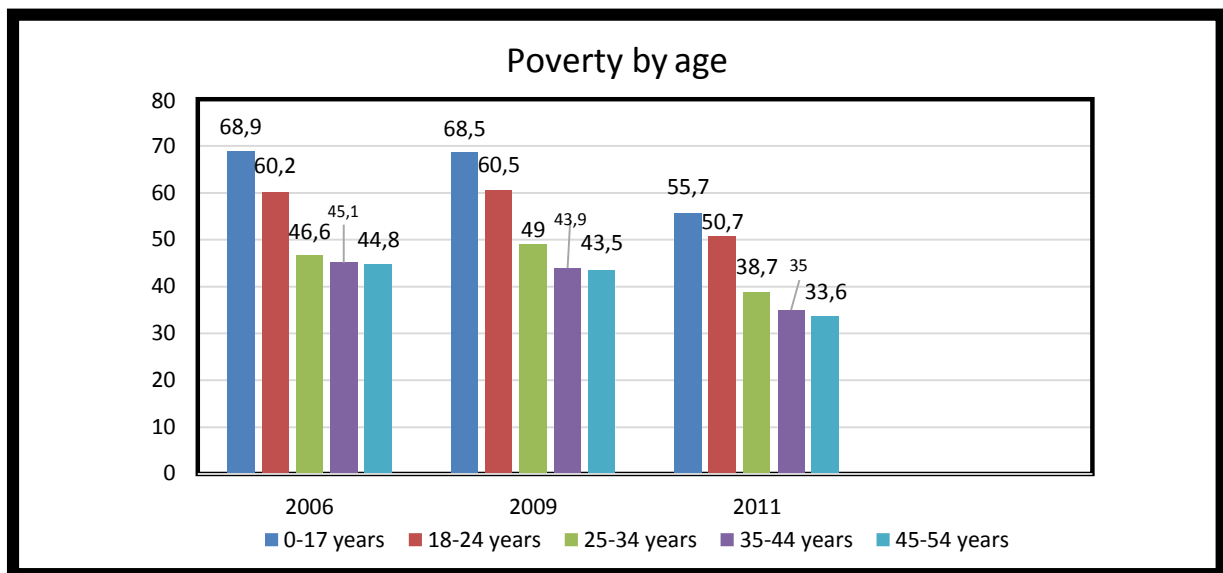
Figure 2.2: Provincial poverty statistics in South Africa



Source: Statistics South Africa (2014a:31)

Statistics South Africa (2014a:12) drew up a report analysing trends in poverty and inequality in South Africa, which states that 57,2% of the South African population was considered poor in 2006. This percentage decreased in 2009 to 56,8%. In 2011, it dropped further to 45,5 %. In the 2011 provincial statistics of poverty in South Africa, Limpopo (63,8%), Eastern Cape (60,8%) and KwaZulu Natal (56,6%) were the three provinces with the highest percentage of people living in poverty in their respective provinces. The graph below illustrates poverty by age.

Figure 2.3: Poverty by age



Source: Statistics South Africa (2014a:29)

According to Statistics South Africa (2014a:29) the highest levels of poverty occur among the younger population group within South Africa. In the year 2006, 68,8 % of children under the age of 18 years lived in poverty. However this percentage dropped to 55,7% by the year 2011, reflecting a decrease of 13,2%. The graph below displays a comparison between different age groups living in poverty within South Africa. The statistics in the graph above confirm that the younger generation is hugely affected by poverty.

Leatt (2006:19) mentions that South Africa has very high levels of child poverty. This is due to three main reasons, namely: South Africa's legacy of Apartheid, the high unemployment rate and HIV/AIDS. Child poverty is a situation where children do not have enough resources for them to grow healthy and strong, to get an education, to live in a good and safe environment and to fulfil their potential (Leatt, 2006:20). They are deprived of health, nutrition and protection from harm. They face exploitation and discrimination on a daily basis (UNICEF, 2005:4). Children are more vulnerable to the ill effects of poverty because they have more immediate needs and they experience poverty differently than adults (UNICEF, 2005:6).

Naidoo (2008:26) and Korevaar (2009:11) explain that poverty can affect all aspects of a child's functioning including their psychological and physical development. UNICEF (2005:6) explains that childhood is a very important stage in an individual's life. This is because it is the foundational stage where individuals develop their physical, mental, emotional and learning capacities that will influence them for the rest of their lives. Furthermore, the lack of access to the needed resources and services for the first 15 years of a child's life, will affect their physical, mental, emotional and learning capacities which in turn will negatively impact reaching their full potential in life and preventing them from escaping poverty (UNICEF, 2005:6).

Learners coming from poverty stricken communities usually attend schools within the same community. Such schools are mostly classified as being poor schools because according to Kamper (2008:2) the average income of the community, determines whether the school is a poor school or not. Problems relating to poverty give rise to challenges in the equal provision of education particularly since poor learners and poor schools are promised the provision of quality education and resources according to the constitution.

Schools are divided into quintiles ranging from one to five, depending on the poverty of the community surrounding the school (Dei, 2014: vii). Quintile one schools are situated in the poorest areas and quintile five schools are situated in the least poor

areas (South Africa, 2006a:28). The distribution of quintiles will determine whether schools can collect fees and it will also determine how much is allocated by the government for each learner attending that school, if it is a no fee paying school (South Africa, 2006a:29, Dei, 2014:vii). Proudlock and Mahery (2006:14) mention that learners who wish to attend good schools in wealthier areas may do so, but they have to negotiate the school fee exemption system and thus pay high transport costs to get to school in order to receive more quality education.

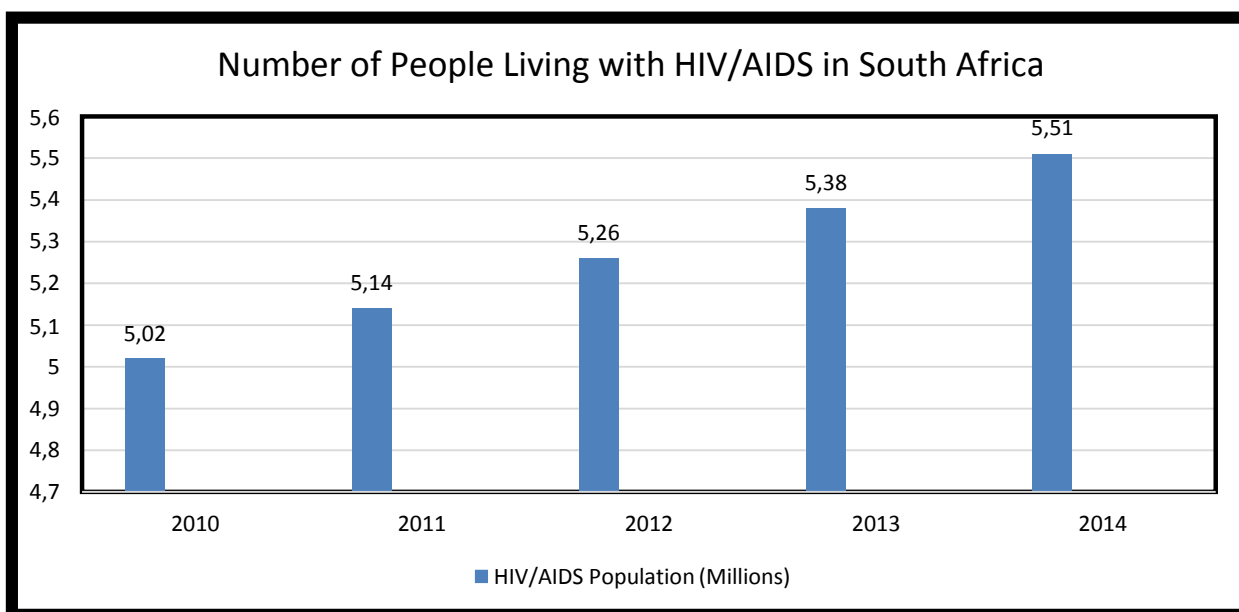
On the same light Mphahlele (2005:15) indicates that poverty-stricken communities are usually very poorly resourced in terms of limited educational facilities including large classes, lack of teaching and learning material or inadequately trained staff. This is supported by Kamper (2008:2) who mentions that teachers in poor schools are usually beginners and are often underqualified, they work in run-down classes and have to cope without proper tuition resources. Poverty therefore does not only lead to an increase in the number of CHH, but it also impacts these learners' educational opportunities in their communities.

Naidoo (2008:26) indicates that effective educational opportunities and strengthened support services at schools can minimise the effect of poverty.

2.4.2 HIV/AIDS

Phillips (2011:9) states that, by the end of 2009, there was a total of 22,5 million people within the sub-Saharan Africa who were heavily affected by HIV/AIDS. This left the sub-Saharan region of Africa with the highest numbers of AIDS-related deaths. The graph below depicts the number of people living with HIV/AIDS in South Africa for the period 2010 to 2014.

Figure 2.4: Number of people living with HIV/AIDS in South Africa



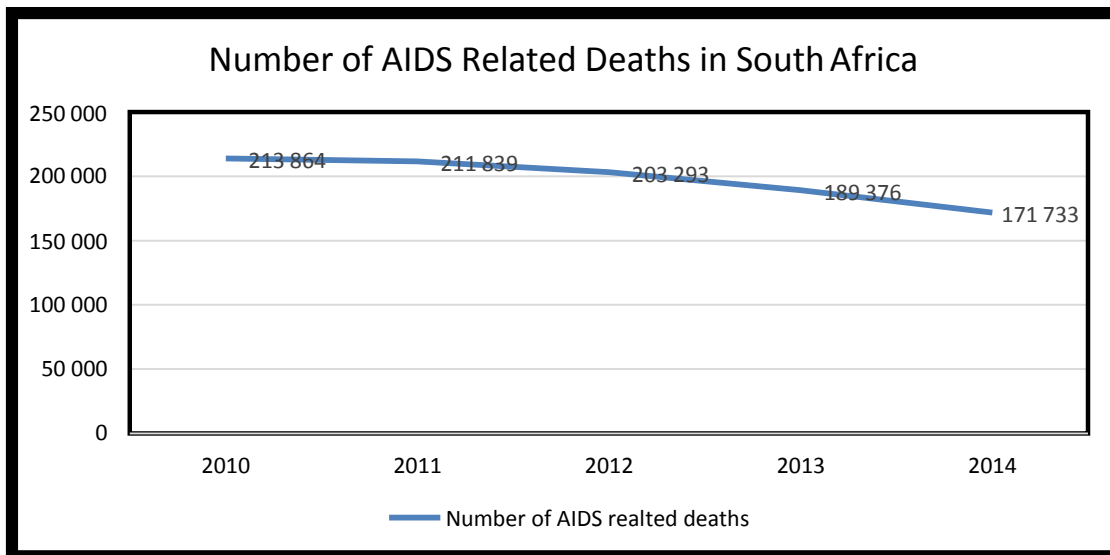
Source: Statistics South Africa (2014b:7)

The above graph displays that the HIV/AIDS epidemic has increased each year for the period 2010 to 2014: According to Statistics South Africa (2014b:7), there were 5,02 million people living with HIV/AIDS in South Africa in 2010. By the year 2012 the number of people living with the virus increased to 5,26 million. In the year 2014 there was a total of 5,51 million South Africans living with HIV/AIDS.

According to Van Breda (2010:261), HIV/AIDS has a great impact on Africa's social development and on the economy. Poverty is exacerbated as economic growth and income is hugely strained. HIV/AIDS and poverty have a reciprocal relationship. While HIV/AIDS has many negative economic implications, these economic factors result in the expansion of the pandemic (Van Breda, 2010:261). The results of a study conducted by Ramosolo (2007:57) indicate that HIV/AIDS leads to financial constraints and income impoverishment. Families become poorer as a result of HIV/AIDS and the death of members because in most cases breadwinners are the ones who die (Francis-Chizororo, 2010:711). This reflects that poverty is exacerbated by HIV/AIDS and vice versa.

Van Breda (2010:260) explains that HIV/AIDS is an infectious disease that targets people in their most productive years. This means that, instead of targeting the weak or old people, HIV/AIDS infections occur in a person's late teens and early twenties, estimating the average dying age of people infected with HIV/AIDS to be 37 years. This is the period in which most people raise children (Department of Social Development, 2008:18). The increase in parental deaths due to HIV/AIDS alters the affected children's living conditions and children remain in households with no adult caregiver, resulting in the emergence of CHH (Rosa, 2004; Germann, 2006:150). According to Bicego, Rutstein and Johnson (2003:1235), Monasch and Boerma (2004:S55), Hartell and Chabilall (2005:214), Boris, Thurman, Snider, Spencer and Brown (2006:584) and Kuhanen *et al.* (2008:127), HIV/AIDS is the main reason for the increase in orphan-hood and it has been responsible for more CHH than any other phenomenon. Graph 2.5 below illustrates the number of AIDS related deaths in South Africa.

Figure 2.5: Number of AIDS related deaths in South Africa



Source: Statistics South Africa (2014b:6)

While figure 2.4 confirms that HIV/AIDS is spreading, infecting more and more people each year, figure 2.5 shows a decrease in the number of AIDS related

deaths. Each year the deaths are decreasing by larger numbers, this could mean that there is some sort of control of the virus allowing infected people to live longer. Perhaps the decrease could be attributed to measures that the government is undertaking to ensure the availability of antiretroviral drugs to infected people.

Daniel and Mathias (2012:191) state that in the sub-Saharan Africa, after the death of their parents most orphaned children are taken in by appropriate alternative care in the form of extended family members such as grandparents, aunts or uncles. However, there are some cases where children are left without care.

2.4.3 Breakdown of appropriate alternative care

As mentioned earlier, according to the Constitution (RSA, 1996a), every child has a right to “appropriate alternative care” if there is an absence of parents. After parental death, the extended family in South Africa or kinship networks take responsibility for caring for the orphaned or vulnerable children, especially in the rural areas (Mkhize, 2006:48; Germann, 2006:150; Department of Social Development, 2008:26).

However, Mkhize (2006:48), Germann (2006:150), Kuhanen *et al.* (2008:127), Ruiz-Casares (2009:238) and Payne (2012:401) point out that this support system for orphans provided by the extended family is weakening or breaking down due to factors of social change. These factors include labour migration, the cash economy, demographic change, formal education and westernisation (Foster, 2000:56). It also becomes difficult for extended families to take care of orphans as they are stretched to their limits with the rising number of orphans in their families (Naidoo, 2008:19; Meintjies *et al.*, 2010:40; Williams, 2010:12). They are therefore not able to meet the needs of these orphans due to strained social-economic circumstances (Leatham, 2005:1; Kidman *et al.*, 2007:326,). Germann (2006:150) adds that extended families are under increased stress due to poverty and despair resulting from HIV/AIDS. Some families are already caring for additional children and are unable to take on the responsibility of caring for any more (Department of Social Development, 2008:28; Ruiz-Casares, 2009:243).

Furthermore, the results of a small qualitative study in the Northern Free State by Leatham (2005:91) concluded that children decide to stay on their own in CHH instead of moving in with extended family members due to many reasons. They prefer to remain together instead of being separated (Germann, 2006:149). Sometimes they must travel too far in order to gain support from extended families and in other instances the extended families are not willing to help (Rosa, 2004:8; Human & Van Rensburg, 2011:960). These children often want to avoid constantly being reminded of their deceased parents by the extended family as this hurts and contributes to the emotional void of being left by their parents and they are not used to living with other people (Leatham, 2005:91; Ruiz-Casares, 2009:243).

Mkhize (2006:55) goes on to mention that after the death of parents, the extended family sometimes takes all the important documents such as the parents Identity Documents, their death certificates and the children's birth certificates. This is often done to avoid the children from applying for any form of government financial aid. Another concern, as highlighted by Adato, Kadiyala, Roopnaraine, Biermayr-Jenzano and Norman (2005:iii) and Campbell *et al.* (2014), is that there have been cases where extended family members have discriminated against and exploited the orphans they took under their care. It is confirmed by Van Dijk (2008:128) and Ruiz-Casares (2009:243) that children prefer to remain with siblings in a CHH instead of being ill-treated, or treated like slaves by extended family members or relatives.

Migrant labour and rapid urbanisation have also become factors that make it problematic for extended families to take care of orphaned children (Department of Social Development, 2008:28; Human & Van Rensburg, 2011:960). Van Dijk and Van Driel (2009:916) further explain that, with South Africa's history of apartheid and migrant labour, the restriction of Africans regarding where they could live, has resulted in families separating. This created communities that are very poor and thus lack the skills necessary for dealing with HIV/AIDS effectively within their households.

Korevaar (2009:24) explains that moving children from their home environment after the death of their parents could exacerbate matters. When one faces trauma, in this case death, the only aspect that holds them together is their familiar form of routines. This includes staying in their usual environment, attending the same school and playing with the same, usual friends. By maintaining these relationships and familiar forms of routine, their sense of instability will be limited which in turn will limit any negative impacts on their development that would arise if they were mobilised to other households.

All these challenges of appropriate alternative care have resulted in the creation and recognition of CHH in South Africa. The eldest sibling becomes the caregiver and starts taking care of the younger ones in the household, forming a CHH while remaining in their own environment (Leatham, 2005:1; Naidoo, 2008:6; Daniel & Mathias, 2012:191). Phillips (2011:165) mentions that the formation of CHH is inevitable and these households should be accepted as a care option with appropriate support. According to Maqoko and Dreyer (2007:725) the Children's Bill of Rights also makes provision for the legal recognition of CHH as a type of family unit within society. This recognition was granted for the benefit of the children so that the orphans have a right to remain together rather than being distributed amongst families with the possibility of sibling separation. However, according to Mkhize (2006:48), this arrangement is a huge violation of children's rights.

Children normally bring all their challenges from home to school. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, it is important to look at these challenges and to identify and understand all the problems that these children are faced with.

2.5 CHALLENGES THAT LEARNERS FROM CHH FACE

It should be noted that for the teachers to provide support to learners from CHH it is imperative that they (the teachers) become aware of the barriers that these learners from CHH experience. Ogina (2010:4) provides a perfect example: if teachers are not aware of the barriers experienced by learners from CHH, they might not be able

to make a distinction that a learner's violent behaviour or withdrawals in class are in fact signs of mourning, due to loss or trauma, thereby deterring them to support these learners.

According to Leatham (2005:97) not all learners in township schools report the death of their parents to principals or teachers and this is what leads to teachers not understanding the learner's classroom behaviour, resulting in a negative impact on the teacher's relationship with the learner. These learners are often reluctant to expose their experiences and problems because of the fear of being stigmatised and discriminated against (Ogina, 2010:3).

The effect of the escalating number of orphans in South Africa will inevitably fall on family life and educational institutions in our country (Pillay, 2011:4) as these children become vulnerable to lasting consequences, stressors (Kidman *et al.*, 2007:326) and the struggle to meet their basic needs for food, clothing and shelter (Kamper, 2008:9; Pillay, 2011:4).

According to Naidoo (2008:7) and Hlengwa (2010:6), orphans living in CHH in underprivileged communities are amongst the most vulnerable children. Van Breda (2010:259) and Campbell *et al.* (2014) add that there is a high concern about the vulnerability of these children caring for themselves. Such concerns include their safety, education, health and social development. Maqoko and Dreyer (2007:718) and Campbell *et al.* (2014) further state that HIV/AIDS orphans are more likely to suffer damage to their cognitive, emotional, social and physical development, they also have less access to education and they are used in the worst forms of child labour. Another concern is that these orphans have the possibility of being infected by HIV/AIDS (Sloth-Nielsen, 2004:2).

Ogina (2010:6) reiterates that it is the material, social and emotional factors that require immediate attention when it comes to supporting orphaned learners from CHH. Below are the discussions relating to the experiences of learners from CHH:

2.5.1 Role Adjustment

The child's right to parental care is automatically taken away when his or her parents die. According to Mkhize (2006:40) biological parents disperse unconditional love amongst their children without expecting any gratitude in return. This form of parental care is significant in the development of all children. Mkhize (2006:42) explains that children need direction and delimitation and parents are the agents in providing that to them. They do this by guiding the children through the different stages of their development. Leatham (2005:90) elaborates by stating that parents take care of all the financial needs regarding food, shelter, clothing and they see to the cooking and cleaning while taking care of any medical attention that the child may need.

Children who become the head of the household when their parents die, carry an unreasonable burden of adult responsibilities (Naidoo, 2008:1; Campbell *et al.*, 2014). Van Breda (2010:274) mentions that their childhood is automatically taken away from them. Phillips (2011:138) deems childhood as a term in which children learn, build their character, acquire social and technical skills and eventually mature into adulthood. However, these children are now urged to adjust to their new circumstances (Leatham, 2005:90) without having a normal childhood.

Following loss or abandonment, children must make the adjustment from being a child to being the head of the household and taking on the role of the parent or caregiver. This adjustment comes with a range of attached challenges (Department of Social Development, 2008:29). Human and Van Rensburg (2011:960) state that these children have to assist with their siblings' homework, provide emotional and spiritual support to other members in the household and take care of ill parents.

Hlengwa (2010:9) mentions that girls as little as 9 years take on heavy duties of gardening and the making and serving of meals to all members in the household. The most common economic chores according to Van Breda (2010:264), Adato *et al.* (2005:15), Ruiz-Casares (2009:238) and Campbell *et al.* (2014) that these children take on, are carrying pails of water, collecting wood and ploughing fields. Sweeping

and other domestic chores add up to about seven or more hours a week (Adato *et al.*, 2005:15).

The child heading a household needs to start making decisions for the household on a daily basis. These decisions may range from trivial matters such as doing household chores as discussed above to much more serious predicaments such as dropping out of school to be able to run the household (Mkhize, 2006:74). They need to start taking on the role of being the leader by assigning roles to their younger siblings in order to run the home effectively (Mkhize, 2006:77). They also need to take on the role of an economic provider by seeking means to get money to run the household (Mkhize, 2006:78). Being the household caregiver, they often have to deal with conflict situations of their siblings as conflict is an inevitable matter in any relationship (Mkhize, 2006:83).

When the eldest child becomes the caregiver of the home, they develop an obligated feeling of responsibility towards their siblings because they are now forced to take their parent's role. They often grapple with the completion of multiple responsibilities and all these challenges lead to the following concerns: socio economic deprivation, substance needs, emotional barriers, access to health care services, security needs, psychological barriers and cognitive barriers which are discussed in paragraphs below (*cf.* 2.5.2 to 2.5.4). Van der Walt (2013:61) includes that the adoption of these adult roles, by child heads in CHH, increases their risk of poor scholastic performance or failure in schools. Ruiz-Casares (2009:244) adds by stating that the domestic responsibilities that these children have interfere with performance in school as it results in their late coming and reduces their study time.

2.5.2 Stress and Grief

Pillay (2011:4) states that children are dependent on their parents for the provision of affection, socialization and self-actualisation. When parents fall ill, children are often obliged to take on the burden of nursing their ailing parents as family members are not willing to assist (Maqoko & Dreyer, 2007:718; Campbell *et al.*, 2014). Bonthuys

(2010:47) and Nziyane (2010:126) confirm that the emotional barriers of children who are orphaned start when the parents are alive but extremely ill and the child is cast in the caregiving role to nurse his or her parent.

Nziyane (2010:126) explains that when children are exposed to the decline in the mental health of their chronically ill parents, this is the start of their extreme stress that they are said to experience. This is also confirmed by Korevaar's (2010:25) quote of Foster (2006) that the stress is not only a result of their parents deteriorating health but also due to the increased responsibilities and chores that they are now faced with. This results in these children becoming unsure of what life has in store for them as they watch their parents die. For adolescents this can be more intense and severe as they are aware that their parents are going to die and thus may start grieving and become vulnerable long before they become orphans (Korevaar, 2009:20).

These children now become familiar with death and dead bodies because it often happens that the parents die at home in their presence (Nziyane, 2010:128, Campbell *et al.*, 2014). This could be an extremely traumatic experience as children lack the knowledge to determine whether the parent is asleep or in fact has passed on (Nziyane, 2010:128). Van Breda (2010:267) and Korevaar (2009:26) confirm that these orphaned children often have experienced multiple losses in their lives and just like any other person a child needs to grieve, even though some people may think they are too young to understand or experience grief (Korevaar, 2009:23). In order for them to consolidate the death of their parents, a child needs to recognise their grief and be able to express it directly (Korevaar, 2009:22). However, due to the fact that children have an emotional dependency on an adult caregiver and they lack intellectual maturity, they are usually at a greater risk of accumulating unresolved grief (Korevaar, 2009:23) which will hinder the child's opportunity to heal and build his or her own identity (Korevaar, 2009:24) and reach their full potential.

Nziyane (2010:129) and Korevaar (2009:24) explain that children then start experiencing anxiety. This could be due to the death of their parent or perhaps anxieties resulting from uncertainties about food, shelter or caregiving arrangements. All these stressors would be avoided if there was a parent present because children learn ways of coping with stress and anxiety from their parents (Phillips, 2011:156).

Watching their parents die may also lead to depression within the child (Nziyane, 2010:129). Van Breda (2010:267) states that depression is common among children who head CHH.

Campbell *et al.* (2014) state that children from CHH go through distress due to irregularities in financial affairs. They are often caught crying at school over all the worries about their home situations. The constant strain may weaken the individual's ability to cope and adapt to the environment and they may suffer a deteriorating social network (Leatham, 2005:78). Korevaar (2009:32) points out that, while children from CHH get some sort of material help from the community for their basic needs, very little provision is made for their psychological needs, especially in dealing with the co-existing issues of loss and grief.

The high levels of stress experienced by learners from CHH, through loss, grief, trauma or the added responsibilities at home, can impact these learners' cognitions (Pynoos, Steinberg & Piacentini, 1999:1543; Hartell & Chabilall, 2005:219). This means that their concentration levels, attention span and alertness within the classroom can be impaired (Pynoos *et al.*, 1999:1543; Hartell & Chabilall, 2005:219; Hosford, 2009:2). This is also supported by Sanders and Lushington (2002:75) who indicates the adverse effects that stress, grief and trauma can have on the academic performance of learners from CHH.

2.5.3 School Drop Outs

Nyaradzo (2013:28) and Campbell *et al.* (2014) explain that learners who come from CHH are likely to be affected by high levels of absenteeism. This is a result of having

no form of authority at home to persuade the learners to attend school daily. Nyaradzo (2013:28) adds that their absenteeism could also be due to them being over tired due to their household responsibilities or frequently sick due to lack of access to health services (Kamper, 2008:2). The more a learner is absent, the further they fall behind in their school work (Nyaradzo, 2013:29). Eventually this leads to learners dropping out of school. Maqoko and Yolanda (2007:719), Naidoo (2008:7), Hlengwa (2010:10), Pillay (2011:4) and Campbell *et al.* (2014) and all confirm that there is a large number of school drop outs by learners from CHH.

The head of the home usually sacrifices his or her education to take care of their younger siblings as this alone can be very difficult (Hlengwa, 2010:11; Mogotlane *et al.*, 2010:29; Naidoo, 2008:7). Mkhize (2006:50) states the reality that these learners face is that they are exposed to extremely difficult circumstances which force them to leave school. These hardships include a lack of financial resources and having to seek employment, irregularity due to chores and heavy domestic responsibilities (Hlengwa, 2010:10; Maqoko & Dreyer, 2007:719). Also the embarrassment and stigma of being orphaned due to AIDS is also what causes these learners to drop out, because the stigma attached to the disease is usually transferred from the parent to their children (Phillips, 2011:141; Campbell *et al.*, 2014). HIV/AIDS is a taboo subject in many communities due to the diseases association with sex and sexuality (Korevaar, 2009:23).

Masondo (2006:45), Pillay (2011:4) Nyaradzo (2013:29) and state that learners drop out of school because during school times they begging for money in order to support their siblings and run the household. These learners also start seeking employment at a very early age. However, according to Human and Van Rensburg (2011:963), some do not find employment due to their lack of education and skills. The difficulty in finding employment puts a heavy strain on these learners (Leatham, 2005:84).

In their efforts to make ends meet and to generate an income, those who do find employment are often exploited once entering employment as they are entering the economy too early (Hlengwa, 2010:11). Maqoko and Dreyer (2007:718) add by saying that with less access to education these learners are subjected to the worst forms of child labour. Some resort to crime, while girls are likely to be enticed into commercial sex or prostitution (Leatham, 2005:4; Korevaar, 2009:32; Pillay, 2011:4), leading to sexual abuse. Research has shown that learners from CHH who are sexually abused are often abused by relatives or neighbours (Sloth-Nielsen, 2004:2). This also puts them at a high risk of getting infected with HIV/AIDS (Korevaar, 2009:33). Sexual abuse can also increase the burden for girls living in CHH as there is a possibility of them looking after their own children if they fall pregnant (Hlangwa, 2010:11). Some learners from CHH often find piece jobs such as washing cars, polishing shoes or selling vegetables to earn money in order to sustain their households. Others make themselves available to run errands for sympathetic neighbours for payment, which is sometimes in the form of food (Masondo, 2006:45).

Daniel and Mathias (2012:192) mention cases in Tanzania where children are employed as child domestic workers. The employers of these child domestic workers exploit them by making false promises to them about working conditions, opportunities for education and the child's life condition. The employers justify themselves by believing that they are helping these children and their families.

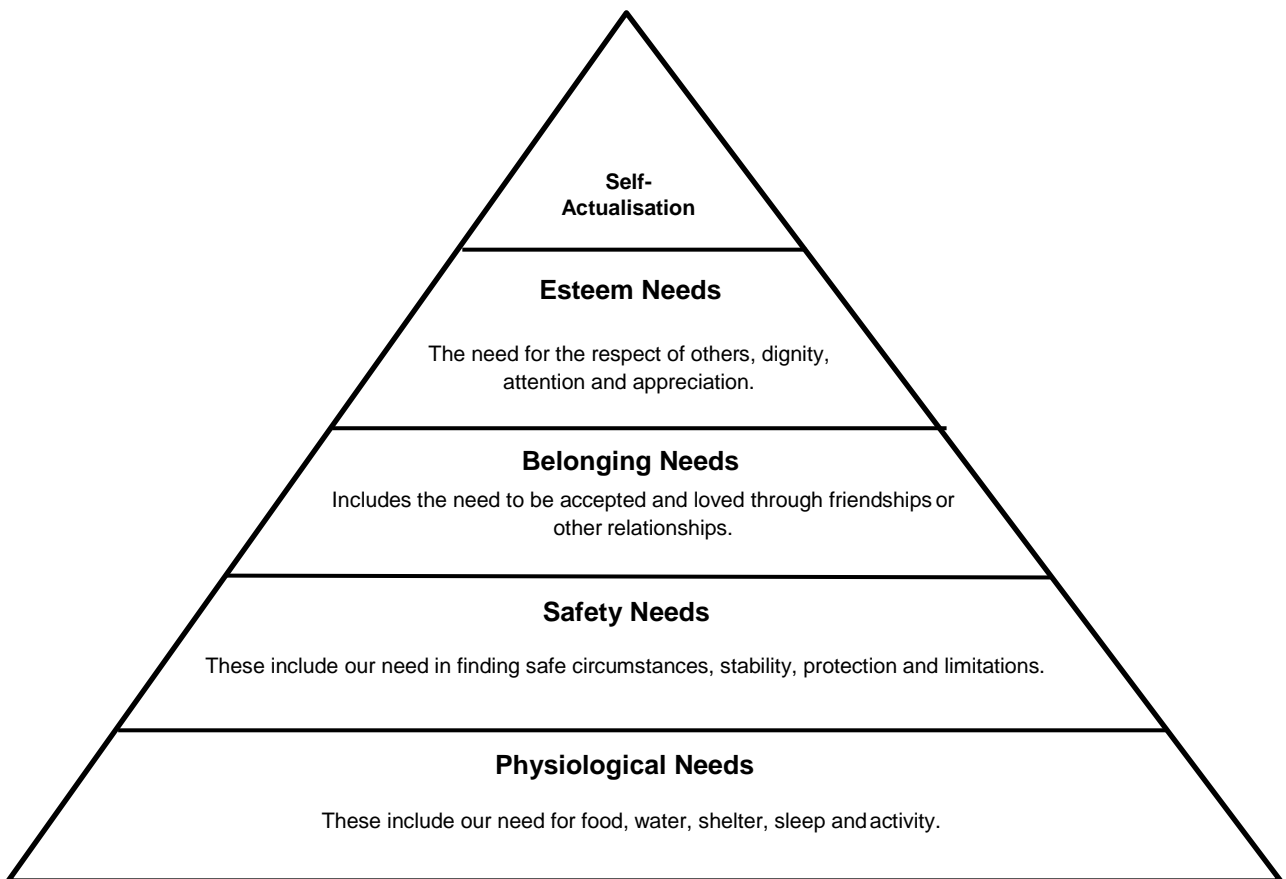
2.6 REQUIREMENTS OF LEARNERS FROM CHH IN ACCORDANCE WITH MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS

2.6.1 Maslow's theory of needs

Abraham Maslow (1970) developed a theory based on the fact that some needs are more of a priority than others. This theory can be utilised to illustrate the needs of learners from CHH (Department of Social Development, 2010:17). Below the needs of assistance and protection of children's rights as addressed by Maslow's

theoretical framework known as Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. His hierarchy of needs is displayed in the figure below:

Figure 2.6: Maslow's hierarchy of needs



Source: Department of Social Development (2010:17)

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is categorised into 5 broad layers. The individual starts at the base of the triangle which is associated with physiological and belonging needs including the need for food, water, shelter, sleep and activity. These needs are deemed as the most important of needs because they come first in a person's search for fulfilment. Once these needs are met, there is no longer a deficiency of these needs and this is when the next higher level of needs become important and active. When the physiological and safety needs are met then people want to

overcome feelings of loneliness and isolation, they develop a need to feel accepted and loved. The next level in the hierarchy is esteem needs, the need to feel respected by others and a sense of appreciation. If these needs are not met then the person develops a feeling of helplessness, worthlessness and inferiority. The top levels of the hierarchy are associated with psychological needs. Each of the lower level needs in the hierarchy need to be met first before reaching the next higher level in the hierarchy. Once this occurs, the need for self-actualisation is activated. When this need is met then the individual has reached a stage of fulfilling his/her utmost potential (Boeree, 2006; Department of Social Development, 2010:18).

Boeree (2006) in explaining Maslow's theory, states that when the lower level needs are not fully met, one cannot devote oneself to fulfilling one's potential. This is a serious concern in terms of learners from CHH because according to Kamper (2008:9) these learners suffer physically due to a deficiency in food, shelter, clothing, love, acceptance, a sense of belonging and security. Furthermore, they suffer emotionally due to lack of self-esteem and motivation. This is why many of these learners display behavioural, emotional and social problems (Nel *et al.*, 2011:40) due to the deficiency in lower level needs, preventing these learners from reaching their full potential and being fully motivated.

Norwood (1999), as mentioned in Huitt (2007), has analysed Maslow's hierarchy of needs and he proposed that it can be used to describe the information that individuals seek at their different levels of development. For the lowest level, individuals need coping information in order to meet their basic needs. This is information that is not closely linked to assisting a person meet his/her needs in a short space of time. For the next level the individual needs helping information by seeking assistance on how to be safe and secure. For the next levels the individual needs enlightening information, empowering information and edifying information. Enlightening information can be found in literary material such as books on relationships because this type of information is sought by individuals who are searching to meet their belongingness needs. Empowering information is information

on how an individual's ego can be developed and is sought by people at the esteem level. Finally, edifying information is for people in the growth levels of cognitive, aesthetic and self-actualisation.

Individuals normally gain the information needed to meet the needs in the lower levels from their parents. Parents normally provide children with coping strategies in order to fulfil or meet their basic needs. They provide their children with shelter, food and clothing and with information on how to attain a sense of safety and security by introducing them to limitation, stability and by always reminding them from early on about precautions that they need to take in order to ensure their safety (Leatham, 2005:90; Mkhize, 2006:41). The relationship parents have with their child is usually the first relationship of unconditional love, acceptance and belonging that the child attains (Mkhize, 2006:40). Kamper (2008:13) has realised the effect of all these needs not being met by learners from CHH and thus has appealed for education authorities to make more effort in assisting teachers to support these learners as well as ensuring that these learners basic needs are met. In doing so there is a possibility of allowing these learners to reach their full potential. Rossi and Stuart (2007:151) have also proven that an early intervention programme at school can assist in fulfilling some of the physical, emotional, safety, psychological and spiritual needs of these learners.

2.6.1.1 Physiological needs

Makhalemele (2011:39) mentions the impact of socio- economic conditions on education provision. If a learner lacks human and physical resources, learning could be hindered considering that learning is determined by resources (Makhalemele, 2011:39). Below is a discussion on how learners from CHH lack access to basic subsistence needs, lack access to health services and also lack safety and security.

Subsistence needs refer to the needs relating to physiological needs of the child. These include food, water, shelter and clothing (Mkhize, 2006:36). Child-headed families struggle to obtain these basic needs for their daily living necessities

(Leatham, 2005:85; Naidoo, 2008:1; Campbell *et al.*, 2014) as recommended in Sections 26 and 27 in the South African Constitution. Maqoko and Dreyer (2007:724), Pillay (2011:4), Daniel and Mathias (2012:195), and Kendrick and Kakuru (2012: 405) confirm that food security, clothing and shelter remain a continuous struggle for these children.

Maqoko and Dreyer (2007:719), Naidoo (2008:1) and Nel *et al.* (2011:46) state that orphans are more likely to suffer from malnutrition and are at risk to falling ill. According to Nziyane (2010:5), those orphans who are HIV positive require a proper diet, however due to the fact that the household cannot comply with the required diet needs because of their economically disadvantaged circumstances, their nutritional needs are left unmet. Children living in CHH live in contexts of food deprivation and often go to sleep hungry (Rosa, 2004:4; Ruiz-Casares, 2009:244; Nel *et al.*, 2011:46). In a study done by Ruiz-Casares (2009:244) food was considered the most important need amongst the children from CHH. Nel *et al.* (2011:46) mention that for some of these children, food from the national nutrition programme at school is the only meal that these children have for the day.

Van Breda (2010:271) mentions that in a particular study, children from CHH had a good understanding of the range of food groups that they required for their bodies, however, they could not afford the different healthy food that was essential for them. Furthermore, a study in Zimbabwe by Francis-Chizororo (2010:724) concluded that many of the CHH did not have regular balanced meals. While only some of the houses within the rural area of study grew their own food, many children were experiencing difficulty in coping with their responsibilities and thus did not have extra energy to maintain a food garden. In another study in Tanzania, food and shelter insecurity was a major stress for the participants (Daniel & Mathias, 2012:195).

The Department of Social Development offers food parcels to vulnerable children, however, in a study by Van Breda (2010:271) many children were not aware of this

privilege and many of the children relied on food from neighbours, friends or feeding schemes.

Pillay (2011:13) mentions that children from CHH live in very challenging physical environments without water and electricity and very poor hygiene and sanitation. Those without clean water access often have to walk long distances to fetch water (Mkhize, 2006:45) putting their bodies under a lot of strain as they walk in extreme cold or hot conditions. This also impacts on their education as the long distances to fetch water sometimes resulted in them missing school (Mkhize, 2006:46).

Hlengwa (2010:12) states that parental death can at times lead to children ending up on the streets. They lose their shelter due to dilapidation as kids are unable to attain basic needs such as food, clothing, toiletries, blankets and furniture (Kuhanen *et al.*, 2008:129; Ruiz-Casares, 2009:245). Shortly after their parents' death, repossession of furniture takes place as payments cannot be met by the children running the household.

Nyaradzo (2013:30) states that school attendance influences academic performance. This means that learners with poor school attendance, as in the case with learners from CHH, will underachieve academically. Many learners living in CHH who attend school struggle with their academic performance due to lack of study time, low attendance rate or low concentration as they are thinking of their responsibility of bearing a household while at school (Phillips, 2011:153; Nyaradzo, 2013:33) or they are hungry and cannot concentrate as a result thereof (Kamper: 2008:2).

2.6.1.2 Safety and security needs

Leatham (2005:105) mentions that it can be very intimidating for children to be living alone without any parental or adult protection. In her study, Leatham (2005:105) confirms that there have been cases where orphaned children have been threatened

by external sources and have also been exposed to negative influences that have jeopardised their safety.

Van Breda (2010:268) affirms that some children from CHH often lack the feeling of security, causing them to feel vulnerable to the dangers of living alone (Taggart, 2007:68). Children from CHH become easy targets to various forms of abuse and it is reported that they often have no voice in expressing their plight for safety and security as they are ignorant of their rights as a child (Naidoo, 2008:6; Human & Van Rensburg, 2011:963; Campbell *et al.*, 2014). Van Breda (2010:265) states that they experience feelings of helplessness and uncertainty about personal safety. In a study done by Mogotlane *et al.* (2010:29) children reported that they felt unsafe in their own homes and Phillips (2011:156) elaborates that these children live in constant fear, knowing that they are at risk of violence, sexual assault and other abuses that they are frequently exposed to.

With the increase in crime, everyone secures their homes by installing alarm systems or by burglar proofing their houses, however in a study done by Pillay (2011:8) a learner confessed to having broken doors and no windows in their homes, while others stated that they were very afraid because their roof was falling down and especially in the rainy season they were scared of drowning in their homes. Human and Van Rensburg (2011:960) and Campbell *et al.* (2014) explain that the vulnerability of learners from CHH is acknowledged in terms of all forms of abuse due to the fact that their safety net which is supposed to be served by the family environment, is destroyed.

Pillay's (2011:12) research of learners from CHH confirms that these learners feel safe at school regardless of all the barriers they may experience, "At school no one hurts me, I know I am safe." This quote may imply that at home these learners are often abused and exploited and the school environment is a safe haven for them. A girl from the same study said, "I know that no one will touch me or rape me at school," thus, according to her in school there is no possibility of sexual abuse.

Another learner from the same study also mentioned the safety feeling experienced at schools as the school is the only place they could use toilets without the fear of being watched or attacked. All these experiences from learners themselves indicate how important their school is to them and in a way it is the only aspect in their lives that is keeping them going, providing them with hope and offering them a place of safety even though it is just for a period of time.

According to Leatham (2005:4), learners who are abused, neglected or abandoned by their families or are traumatised by circumstances which they find themselves in, are at a greater risk of underachieving academically at school. This means they will experience barriers to learning within the classroom. So from those learners who remain in school, many experience poor academic performance which is worsened by their irregular class attendance (Hlengwa, 2010:11). Maqoko and Dreyer (2007:718) mention that orphans, especially those orphaned through HIV/AIDS, are likely to suffer damage to their cognitive development.

In terms of financial barriers Van Breda (2010:273) mentions that even though legal provisions have exempted orphans and vulnerable children from paying school fees, they often struggle in attaining stationery and uniforms due to their financial difficulties (Rosa, 2004:2). There were cases where learners got humiliated in schools because of their financial difficulties (Van Breda, 2010:273). Examples of these cases include learners being made to stand outside of classrooms or they were refused being promoted to the next grade due to financial issues. Mkhize (2006:87) adds to this by stating that learners often do not have money for transport to school and back (Mkhize, 2006:87) causing the learner to have poor school attendance, which will inevitably affect their performance at school.

Mkhize (2006:36) mentions that every child needs to have adequate and appropriate health care systems. This is emphasized in Section 27 (1) (a) of the Constitution which reserves the right for everyone to have access to health care services, including children. However, according to Masondo (2006:46), children only have the

right to be treated with informed consent from a parent or guardian. This becomes difficult in the case of learners from CHH as there is no parent or guardian.

Naidoo (2008:6) and Phillips (2011:155) mention that in South Africa healthcare services are inaccessible and unavailable for children from CHH, Maqoko and Dreyer (2007:728) elaborate by indicating particularly in the case of children from CHH who live in remote or rural areas, healthcare services become less accessible and they are left vulnerable to all sorts of illness.

Phillips (2011:155) mentions that in the Rakai District in Uganda where mosquito nets are considered imperative, children living in CHH do not have access to them. They also have no money for transport to the necessary health care facilities that they need. Thus child heads are left in high levels of anxiety when it comes to their own circumstances as well as that of their siblings.

2.6.1.3 Love and belonging

Thurman, Snider, Boris, Kalisa, Mugarira, Ntaganira and Brown (2006:227) mention that children and youth require a sense of love and belonging in order for them to build their identities and it is necessary for their social functioning at all levels (Mkhize, 2006:41). The need for love and belonging never cease in the lives of children (Kuhanen *et al.*, 2008:125). According to Mkhize (2006:41) if the need for love and belonging is met, children grow up learning to control their anger and they make use of it constructively later during their adolescent and adult years. If the need for love and belonging is not met, a child's social and emotional functioning could be disrupted (Mkhize, 2006:41).

Korevaar (2009:9) explains the term psychosocial as having an emotional and social component. Psycho is the abbreviation for psychological and relates to feelings, thoughts and how children behave as a result of those feelings and thoughts. The social part of the word refers to the child's relationship with the people around him or her. According to Rosa (2004:4) children from CHH experience the same general

psychosocial problems as children affected or infected by HIV/AIDS and children living in poverty, however due to the absence of a resident adult they also experience some unique problems of their own.

Parents instil disciplinary measures at home, so learners coming from CHH are sometimes prone to display bad behaviour as they do not benefit from any disciplinary measures at home (Pillay, 2011:4). Along with disciplining their children, parents are usually responsible for teaching children how to exercise their social skills so that they can interact effectively with others and they act as models for behaviour that stimulate children to interact with the world (Leatham, 2005:90). However, the unmet need for love and security within orphans leads to impaired social development within these learners (Mkhize, 2006:47) causing them to display behavioural problems due to the lack of skills in interacting with people.

It is stated that the on-going psychological stress that learners from CHH experience often lead to behavioural problems in schools (Nziyane, 2010:5). This includes behaviours such as disrupting the class, fighting with peers, ignoring school work, risky sexual activity, dishonesty and stubbornness. These destructive ways of dealing with anger and frustration are caused by the learner's lack of love, increased exposure to rejection and lack of security as these learners grow up without the love, care and protection provided to learners with parents (Mkhize, 2006:48). Emotional behaviour such as mood swings, angry outbursts followed by feelings such as anxiety, guilt, shame and embarrassment, particularly within schools (Hartell & Chabilall, 2005:223) is often the behaviours that learners from CHH display at schools. Learners often take on negative defence mechanisms which could lead to drug problems resulting in aggressiveness, disruptive behaviour, restlessness or withdrawn symptoms (Korevaar, 2009:29).

Williams (2010:11) states that learners, particularly learners from CHH, cannot perform well academically if they are experiencing social issues such as abandonment or neglect which are more heavily pressed onto them.

According to Hlengwa (2010:2) following the death of their parents, in certain cases, extended family members come and help with the funeral arrangements. However, after the funeral they all carry on with their normal lives without being aware of the needs of these children from CHH. Hlengwa (2010:4) goes further to mention that having lost their parents, children from CHH have a large gap to meet their emotional needs and orphans may require more support than other children because they come from a recently deprived economic background, having experienced multiple trauma and have the possibility of being HIV positive (Kidman *et al.*, 2007: 326; Mogotlane *et al.*, 2010:24). In her study of the teacher's pastoral response in the needs of orphaned learners, Ogina (2010:6) confirmed that teachers perceive the emotional needs of orphaned learners from CHH as more difficult to identify and even more challenging to fulfil.

Van Breda (2010:266) mentions that orphan-hood often results in psychological and emotional trauma as well as social distress which are experienced through high levels of stress, anxiety, depression, fear, anger, confusion and a decline in their self-esteem. Phillips (2011:154) states that compared to other children living in the household, the child head has been found to experience heightened levels of psychological and emotional strain. These stressors often lead to isolation of the child heads which lead to extreme distress and emotional instability within their siblings as well (Korevaar, 2009:25; Hlengwa, 2010:9; Campbell *et al.*, 2014).

At school, learners from CHH can be affected due to the results of psychosocial barriers. Psychosocial barriers can lead to learning difficulties and social behavioural problems in learners from CHH (Saungweme, 2011:22) which in turn will negatively impact these learners' academic achievement. Furthermore, the results of a study conducted by Chitiyo, Changara and Chitiyo (2008:384) conclude that ongoing psychosocial support can in fact improve a learner's academic performance. Therefore, before academic support can be provided, there is an urgent need for social and emotional support of learners from CHH (Naidoo, 2008:4; Williams, 2010:25; Campbell *et al.*, 2014).

2.6.1.4 Esteem needs

Esteem needs are very important as it affects individuals throughout their lives. A child's level of self-esteem is apparent in their attitude and behaviour (Zolten & Long, 2006:1). According to Zolten and Long (2006:1), if children feel good about themselves, it will reflect in their relationships with their friends, teachers, siblings and parents. Furthermore, a child's self-esteem is determined by how they weigh their capabilities and it reflects their feelings of being accepted and valued by others (Tracey, 2006:1).

According to Yahaya, Hashim and Rahman (2003:4), the foundations of self-esteem are laid very early in life when the child is an infant. According to Zolten and Long (2006:1) children turn to parents or other important adults for evidence that they are loved, capable or intelligent. This evidence will determine whether the need for esteem is met, if the need is not met then the child develops a low self-esteem. Thus parents play an important role in enhancing a child's self-esteem.

Nyaradzo (2013:1) asserts that parents play an important role in their child's education. This leads to better performance at school. Ogina (2010:1) reiterates by stating that a parent's supportive role is essential in the learning experiences of a child. However, in the case of learners from CHH where there is absence of parents, the learners learning experiences may suffer, causing them to have poor study motivation and a low self-esteem (Kamper, 2008:2).

According to Nziyane (2010:5), learners from CHH, and particularly those infected with HIV/AIDS, experience major school related problems. Learners cannot cope with chronic problems and school work (Williams, 2010:11). Furthermore, Taggart (2007:66) adds that the experiences and problems that learners from CHH are faced with at home also has an impact on their school performance and self-esteem.

A low self-esteem, according to Tracey (2006:1) and Bauman (2012:1), can affect a child's academic performance by decreasing their motivation and their ability to

focus. In order to help a child who is struggling to learn, it is important that their self-esteem is heightened (Tracey, 2006:1) because self-esteem plays an important role in a child's ability to learn (Bauman, 2012:ii). Yahaya *et al.* (2003:1) and Zolten and Long (2006:1) also are of the opinion that a negative self-esteem can result in school failure. Children with a low self-esteem often say things like "I can't do anything well, I know I can't do it." These children often feel as though they can never do things right and this results in them performing poorly at school (Zolten & Long, 2006:1).

A high self-esteem is a crucial element in terms of the confidence and motivation in children in order for them to engage in educational pursuits (Ferkany, 2008:119). According to Ferkany (2008:120) a high self-esteem is related to many behaviours which are educationally desirable. These include handling frustration, taking risks, working independently, taking responsibility, resisting peer pressure, attempting new tasks and challenges, the ability to handle positive and negative emotions and the willingness to help others. Therefore, ensuring that esteem needs are met, increases a child's chances of performing well academically.

2.6.1.5 Self-Actualisation

Self-actualisation is at the top of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. According to Maslow (1943) self-actualisation is when a person realises their full potential and determining that full potential. It is the desire of becoming more and more what a person is and also to become everything that one is capable of becoming. According to Reitan (2013), a person who has reached self-actualisation is someone who feels fulfilled as if they have achieved all the things they are capable of achieving in their life. Furthermore, a person who is self-actualised is one who displays positive characteristics of their desires in life. As mentioned above (*cf.* 2.6.1) if the lower needs of Maslow's hierarchy is not met then one cannot reach the highest level of self-actualisation. Learners from CHH lack some of the lower needs which is why they cannot reach the highest level of self-actualisation.

2.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter gives an understanding of the phenomenon of CHH. A consideration of the contextual factors leading to the development of CHH indicates the severity of the phenomenon in South Africa. The physiological, safety, belonging and esteem needs of children living in these homes, are usually not met avoiding them from reaching their full potential in life. Having knowledge on how lacking these fundamental needs affect these children's academic achievement at school provides insight on the challenges we are facing in educational institutions.

The next chapter is a literature review on the essence of the ILST. It discusses the roles of team members, their functions and their responsibilities in terms of supporting learners from CHH. Support programmes available at school for learners from CHH are also investigated.

CHAPTER 3

THE ESSENCE OF SUPPORT FOR LEARNERS FROM CHH

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 focused on the plight of learners from CHH. The chapter provided a rationale to this study. Chapter 3 dwells on the essence of support for learners from CHH and others that are vulnerable. The policies that guide the provision of support, the roles of the national government and communities and that of schools are discussed in this chapter. The functions of the ILST as the driving force behind the implementation of initiatives and programmes for support of learners in need and challenges thereof, are also elaborated on.

3.2 SUPPORT CONCEPTUALISED

Mahlo (2011:54, 55) mentions that the perception of learning support recognises the potential of each learner to develop at their own pace so that they can attain a maximum level of independence in learning.

Support can be perceived as all actions that heighten the capacity of a school to respond to diversity. A supportive environment is one in which there is collaboration amongst teachers, district officials, principals and parents with a mutual goal of supporting learners experiencing barriers to learning. These parties should also have a mutual interest in being involved in all support activities (Terhoeven, 2009:43; Mahlo, 2011:54).

Terhoeven (2009:42) indicates that providing support to learners is one way of ensuring that all learners have access to education and that all learners' right to education is fulfilled. Perumal (2010:13) also states that the provision of support to learners maximises their participation in schooling activities.

Furthermore, in the lives of learners from CHH, accommodation in the classroom is not the only kind of support they require. According to Tshenko, Bainame, Odirile and

Segwabe (2007:25), children from CHH are not provided with enough support when their parents are deceased. These children have a greater need for psychosocial and material support (Bicego *et al.*, 2003:1239; Tsheko *et al.*, 2007:25)

3.3 INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

The South African education system has been through many changes through the years. One of the major changes include support of learners experiencing barriers to learning. Inclusive education has therefore become very prominent in education today. Inclusive education is a system that responds to the diverse needs of all learners (DoE, 2001:16; Swart & Pettipher, 2005:8) and it provides equal opportunities and equal participation of all learners so that they can develop to their full potential (Mahlo & Hugo, 2013:301). Inclusive education applauds the provision of support to learners with barriers they are experiencing at school with a view of promoting the participation of learners who are vulnerable to exclusion and marginalisation (Mahlo, 2011:32). According to Joorst (2010:22), inclusive education is based on a value system that recognises and celebrates diversity that arises from gender, nationality, race, language of origin, social background and level of education achievement.

Below is a brief discussion on the background that eventually led to inclusive education. It focuses on how special needs education evolved over the years.

The medical model also known as the within-child model was common in the early 1900s during the time of special needs education. According to Swart and Pettipher (2005:5), when applying this model to the education system, learners with any kind of difference or more specific disability were singled out and the source of the difference was searched for within the child. This means that learners were labelled as having special educational needs and they were put into schools separate from mainstream education (Nana, 2012:17). Learners were put into special schools or classes so that these differences within them could be fixed or improved (Swart & Pettipher, 2005:5). The education system did not change to accommodate these learners into mainstream classes.

It is clear that within the above model, the education system faced many challenges in terms of discrimination towards learners experiencing barriers to learning as well as challenges resulting from inequalities and inconsistencies in the education system (Nel *et al.*, 2011:38). These challenges have brought about a paradigm shift in the education system and modifications on the perceptions of special needs education within the education system (Perumal, 2010:11). Thus, there was a need for a drastic change in strategies to address these issues. The policies that were developed advocated for a more inclusive type of an education system. All the children in this country now have a fundamental right to basic education (RSA, 1996a) and to ensure that the right to education is met for all learners including learners with special educational needs. Makhalemele (2011:18) states that it is particularly important that learners have access to proper education support services in order to gain quality education and to alleviate discrimination towards learners experiencing barriers to learning.

International influence and trends also played a major role in the development of inclusive policies. In the Salamanca world conference in Salamanca in 1994, held in Spain, South Africa was one of the 92 countries who signed the Salamanca Statement. By signing this statement, South Africa adopted inclusive education as an education approach (Nel, 2013:5, 20). As mentioned by Jama (2014:18), the Salamanca Statement focused on 4 core principles. Firstly, each and every child has a fundamental right to education and they must be given an equal opportunity to achieve and maintain an acceptable level of learning. Secondly, education systems should be developed and educational programmes should be implemented in order to accommodate the vast diversity of learner characteristics and needs. Thirdly, learners with special educational needs should be accommodated into regular schools. Lastly, regular schools that adopt this inclusive approach will be combatting discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities and building an inclusive society while at the same time ensuring education for all.

The factors that contribute to the success of inclusive education include effective and visionary leadership, good collaboration, curriculum and assessment, policy, staff development, instruction and funding (Nana, 2012:22).

3.3.1 Policy framework and reports guiding support of learners in schools

According to Swart and Pettipher (2005:5) a change in practices cannot be done overnight. The following policies, documents and acts have served as guidelines for the implementation of inclusive education and the formation of education support services:

3.3.1.1 White Paper on Education and Training and the Constitution

In 1995 the White Paper on Education and Training was published (DoE, 1995). This was the first document that stipulated the areas within the education system that needed transformation. The paper highlighted the reconstruction and development of the education and training programme. This document focused on transforming the legacy of the past by paying attention to values and principles of education and training and foreseeing developmental initiatives for the future. Swart and Pettipher (2005:19) believe that the initiative in this policy document includes the Culture of Teaching, Learning and Services (COLTS); the National Qualifications Framework (NQF); Curriculum 2005 based on an Outcome-Based Education (OBE); and the language policy.

The South African Constitution was also a key influence leading to transformation (Nel, 2013:5, 20). Section 9 (2-5) of the South African Constitution (RSA, 1996a) pays particular attention to equality and Section 29 (1a) asserts that everyone has a right to basic education. The above sections in the South African Constitution required the education system to be transformed in accordance with the values of human dignity: equality; human rights; freedom; non-racism; and non-sexism in safeguarding the rights to basic education for all.

3.3.1.2 South African Schools Act

Another influential factor was the SASA (84/1996b). Section 5(1) of the act states “a public school must admit learners and serve their educational requirements without unfairly discriminating in any way.” This act gives approval to the access to basic quality education for all learners. Learners should not be discriminated against and all learners should be allowed the right to support services.

3.3.1.3 The National Committee on Special Needs in Education and Training (NSNET) and the National Committee on Education Support Services (NCESS) reports

In October 1996, the then Minister of Education appointed the NCSNET and the NCESS to do investigations and make recommendations on all aspects of special needs and support services in education and training in South Africa. The central focus of this investigation was on the development of the education system to cater for the diverse learning needs of all learners (DoE, 1997:2). Nel (2013:21) explains that based on the findings of these two committees, recommendations made were of a supportive education system that promoted education for all learners regardless of the learning barriers they may encounter. The NCSNET and NCESS reports highlight the barriers to learning and development in South Africa and it also explains the causes of these barriers (DoE, 1997:10-17). All these findings initiated the development of WP6 in 2001.

3.3.1.4 Education White Paper 6 (WP6): Special needs education; building an inclusive education and training system

The WP6 document provides framework for the establishment of inclusive education. It acknowledges and accommodates all learners into supportive mainstream schools. The WP6 highlighted two major approaches to address learning barriers namely, prevention and support (Donald *et al.*, 2010:23). Donald *et al.* (2010:23) define prevention as an approach that aims at transforming educational institutions and the

curriculum so that all learners have an equal opportunity to appropriate education. Prevention also focuses on elements that can assist in reducing barriers to learning. The support approach emphasises rendering education support services to schools, staff, parents and learners. These two approaches have led to availability of Education Support Services (ESS) in schools that are designated to provide support to learners, educators as well as the school itself. The aim is to accommodate diversity and provide a supportive teaching and learning environment (Donald, *et al.*, 2010:23). The primary role of ESS is highlighted clearly by Donald *et al.* (2010:24), as to identify and address learning barriers in their immediate context.

There are three levels of ESS that were introduced in WP6 (DoE, 2001) that are expected to work together to reduce barriers to learning. These are: National and provincial departments, the DBST and the ILST. The DBST was guided by a few policy documents, the first of which was published in the year 2005. The Conceptual And Operational Guidelines For The Implementation Of Inclusive Education: District-Based Support Teams (DoE, 2005a:7) provided guidelines that were relevant to anyone involved in providing support to educational institutions (schools, colleges, early childhood and adult learning centres). Specialists and professional education officials working in district structures were provided with a practical framework and strategies to assist in the establishment and strengthening of the DBST. The document encouraged a framework of collaboration in which the different support providers planned and worked together to address local needs and challenges in a comprehensive way (DoE, 2005a:10). This document also paid attention to the development of an ILST at school level. It focused on defining what an ILST is. It also mentions how the DBSTs can offer support to ILSTs at educational institutions (DoE, 2005a:34-37).

Another policy document providing guidelines to the DBST is The Conceptual and Operational Guidelines for the Implementation of Inclusive Education: Special Schools as Resource Centres (DoE, 2005c). This policy document focused on guiding DBSTs so that they could become solid support bases for full service and

ordinary schools (DoE, 2005c:5). The DBST should work together with staff from resource centres in co-ordinated and collaborative ways (2005a:15), in fact support services provided by resource centres should be combined with and part of the DBSTs (Landsberg, 2005:65; DoE, 2010:43). DBSTs and staff from resource centres should work together to provide support to schools (2005a:17). Staff from resource centres and the DBSTs should exchange knowledge, information and technological skills so that development can take place (DoE, 2010:43).

3.3.1.5 Guidelines for Inclusive Learning Programmes

The Guidelines for Inclusive Learning Programmes (DoE, 2005b) was another policy document that provided teachers, administrators and other personnel with guidance on how to deal with diversity in the classroom. The document focused on how to address and overcome the most frequent causes of barriers to learning in South Africa, namely: disability as a barrier, language and communication, lack of parental recognition and involvement, socio-economic barriers and attitudes (DoE, 2005b:10).

3.3.1.6 Guidelines for Full Service/Inclusive Schools

Further along the line, in 2010, Guidelines for Full Service/Inclusive Schools was published (DoE, 2010). This document provided schools with the criteria they needed to comply with in order for them to be considered as inclusive institutions. The policy document also included the steps they should take in recognising and addressing the diverse learning needs of all learners (DoE, 2010:2). This document also mentioned that support was an essential feature within schools and that site based support in the form of the ILST was crucial for an inclusive education system. Furthermore it explained organised support provision through the ILST (DoE, 2010:22).

3.3.1.7 The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement

The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (DoE, 2011) that South African schools are currently following pays great emphasis on the acknowledgment

and accommodation of diversity within schools. This document was developed for each subject to replace Subject Statements Learning Programme Guidelines and Subject Assessment Guidelines in Grades R-12 (DoE, 2011:3). This CAPS document emphasizes that all learners need to be equipped within the education system with the knowledge, skills and values necessary for self-fulfilment, and meaningful participation in society as citizens of a free country (DoE, 2011:4).

3.3.1.8 The National Strategy on Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support

In 2008 a document was published that served as a strategy for Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support (SIAS) (DoE, 2008a:6). The document provided a strategic policy framework for the screening, identification, assessment and support of all learners who experience barriers to learning and development within the education system. The process is intended to assess the level and extent of support required by learners in schools and in classrooms in order to maximise the participation of all learners in the learning process (DoE, 2008a:6).

3.4 ESTABLISHMENT OF THE ILST

The above mentioned policies guided the DBSTs and ILSTs to ensure effective implementation of education support services. At school level it is the responsibility of the ILST to provide education support services to teachers and learners. According to Makhalemele (2011:13) the ILST is a team developed at schools as proposed by the Education White Paper 6 to address challenges that are affecting both teachers and learners. The focus of the ILST is on empowering teachers to develop preventative and promotional strategies in the health-promoting school framework (Makhalemele 2011:13). The ILST must address all the difficulties that emanate as a problem to the learner and also the learners who might be labelled according to a classification system for behavioural and learning problems in the school (DoE, 2014:25)..

The ILST serves as the delivery arm of the support service within the context of the school (DoE, 2014:25) through supporting teachers and caregivers to provide opportunities for regular, collaborative problem solving of areas of concern and at the same time facilitating the provision of support wherever necessary (DoE, 2014:32). If there is no ILST at an institution, the DBST must help to set it up (DoE, 2014:32). The expected time for the development of ILSTs within all education institutions was between the years 2000 and 2005 (DoE, 1999:13), for the sole purpose of ensuring the effective functioning of support within inclusive education (Nel *et al.*, 2011:41).

The core priority of these teams will be to implement properly co-ordinated learner and teacher support services. The services will focus on supporting the teaching and learning process by identifying and addressing learner, teacher and institutional needs (DoE, 2001:29). The ILSTs, according to WP6 (DoE, 2001:33) should be involved centrally in identifying 'at risk' learners and addressing barriers to learning.

The DoE (2005a:34) explains an ILST as an internal supportive team within education institutions (early childhood centres, schools, colleges, adult learning centres and higher education institutions). The ILST should be made up of teachers and staff from each individual institution and their ultimate responsibility would be to liaise with the DBST and other relevant support providers about identifying and meeting the needs of their own institutions.

3.4.1 The function of ILSTs

According to the DoE (2005a:35) the primary purpose of these ILSTs is to support the teaching and learning process. The key functions of these teams are to:

- Co-ordinate all learner, educator, curriculum and institution development support in the institution. This includes linking the support team to other school- based management structures (for example the School Management Team or the School Assessment Team) and processes, or even integrating them for better co-ordination of activities and to avoid duplication;

- Collectively identify institutional needs, and in particular, barriers to learning at learner, educator, curriculum and institutional levels. In terms of the identification of learners experiencing barriers to learning, it is the responsibility of the ILST to identify learners who are orphans, learners who are taken care of by single parents, learners from different socio-economic backgrounds or learners from CHH. At the beginning of each year the district requests a list of learners that are at risk or vulnerable;
- Collectively develop strategies to address these needs and barriers to learning. This should include major focuses on educator development, parent consultation and support;
- Draw in the resources needed, from within and outside of the institution, to address these challenges;
- Monitor and evaluating the work of the team within an 'action-reflection' framework. This framework emphasizes the importance of problem solving and the reconstruction of meaning as well as succeeding reflective judgements while engaging in significant new activity (Reiman, 1999:598); and
- According to Perumal (2010:2) the ILST also has to fulfil the function of lay counsellors. Not taking on the roles and responsibilities of registered counsellors or psychologists but taking the initiative to address some of the minor barriers to learning that learners' experience.

Besides these core functions, the DoE (2014:32, 33) identifies other functioning roles that the ILST needs to undertake. These include:

- Studying the report provided by the teacher on barriers that were identified and support that was provided up to that point;
- Assessing support that is required and then developing a programme for teachers and parents to implement with the learner;
- Providing training or support to teachers, that needs to be implemented within the classroom if necessary;
- Thereafter the ILST needs to monitor the progress/lack of progress once the programme has been implemented for a time period that was agreed upon by the teacher, parents and ILST;

- Compiling a formal report specifying the kind of support that was provided and whether or not there was any progress; and
- Encouraging peer support.

The DoE (2010:22) mentions that the ILST should meet on a regular basis to discuss and find solutions to various problems which learners may be experiencing. Minutes of meetings held must be kept safely for future reference (Landsberg, 2005:67). The School Management Team (SMT), teachers and parents should be working collaboratively as a team to address and reduce barriers to teaching and learning (Tebid, 2010:13). All teachers in the school should be receiving ongoing training and classroom support in order to identify barriers to learning and address them. The teachers should understand the whole process of support including harnessing different forms of support from inside and outside the school. This means that all teachers play a role in the process of learner support, not only those teachers who are members of the team. Members of the ILST should be well trained in order to provide effective support services at school and be able to capacitate other teachers in addressing barriers to learning.

The functions identified above cannot be finalised overnight by the ILSTs, however the team should have a mutual concern in improving the provision of support in accommodating diverse needs of learners within the school (Makhalemele, 2011:71).

3.4.1.1 Collaboration

To ensure the success of inclusive education and to guarantee the effectiveness and efficiency in managing the provision of ESS, there must be collaboration between all role players (Nana, 2012:26), in order to develop intervention strategies for learners experiencing barriers to learning (Tebid, 2010:22). The role players of the ILST are discussed below in (*cf.* 3.3.2). Furthermore, within the inclusive education system there is a need for an effective team approach towards learning support as it needs to be effectively co-ordinated throughout the school (DoE, 2010:17). The DoE

(2005a:38), Swart and Phasha (2005:226) and Nel (2013:28) explain collaboration as the challenge of working together as a team. It is characterised as a sharing community that involves all role players (principals, teachers, learners, administrative staff, parents, district officials and members of the community) connected to the school. Collaboration asks for open communication acknowledging: one another's perspective; collective decision making; and problem solving. This helps to develop a mutual understanding and support plan focusing on: mutual interests; shared responsibility for decisions taken to support parents, teachers and learners; an environment that is supportive; accountability for outcomes; shared resources and accepting, valuing and respecting each role player as an equal in the team (DoE, 2005a:38; Swart & Phasha, 2005:226; Nel, 2013:28).

The ILST is responsible for the development of collaborative support services within education institutions. This is done by establishing networks between all role players and identifying institutional as well as learner needs regarding barriers to learning. The ILST must collaborate with the DBST and other support professionals (health professionals, community-based support organisations, government departments) (Nel, Engelbrecht, Nel & Tlale, 2013:1). The National Strategy on Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support (NSSIAS) document also encourages a collaborative working relationship with parents and learners (Pillay & Di Terlizzi, 2009:492).

In reality collaboration seems to be a continuous challenge when it comes to ESS in South Africa (Mphahlele, 2005:45; Wood & Goba, 2010:284; Tebid, 2010:7; Nel *et al.*, 2013:2). Maintaining collaborative relationships between all role players within the ILST is something that needs to be pursued by all the role players (Mphahlele, 2005:13). The WP6 (DoE, 2001) and subsequent policy documents such as DoE (2005a), DoE (2005b), DoE (2005c), and DoE (2010) appeal for collaboration at various levels (school level, district level and provincial level) (Nel *et al.*, 2013:1).

According to Nel *et al.* (2013:9) teachers do not have a clear understanding of what collaboration entails and thus most ILSTs do not function successfully as a result thereof. This in turn affects the educational environment negatively which automatically has an impact on the learners attending the education institution (Nel *et al.*, 2013:2). It could also be a reason why the learning support process seems to be unsuccessful and a continuous struggle for all teachers (Nel, 2013:28).

More than a decade after the implementation of inclusive education, collaboration remains a problematic concern for support systems within education institutions. Nel *et al.* (2013:2) argues that the increased number of learners within the classrooms and lack of resources leaves teachers feeling very despondent and demotivated in terms of providing additional support to learners experiencing barriers to learning within the current education system. Reviews have also reported that there is inadequate professional training to empower teachers to support learners with barriers to learning (Nel *et al.*, 2013:2). All these factors may negatively impact the collaborative relationships between all role players within the ILST, hampering the effective provision of support.

3.4.1.2 Referrals

Many teachers according to Nel *et al.* (2013:9), still think that learners experiencing barriers to learning need to be supported by other expert professionals such as psychologists or psychiatrists. Teachers feel that they do not have the necessary skills and training to support learners experiencing barriers to learning (Nel *et al.*, 2013:9), and therefore they refer learners to the ILST and DBST. This results in high numbers of referrals to special schools (Makhalemele, 2011:87; Nel *et al.*, 2013:4).

The process of referring starts once all support interventions (provided by the teacher and the ILST) are exhausted and the learner has made no progress in terms of their performance and having already been retained in the phase. Makhalemele (2011:87) mentions that once a learner has been referred to the DBST, he or she will be subjected to tests that are usually not good enough and that leads to large

numbers of learners being placed in special education. Makhalemele (2011:87) states that these psychological tests that learners do are either not reliable, valid nor instructionally relevant to learners' culture, language or context.

3.4.2 Role players of the ILST

The functions of the ILST should provide a guideline on who should be part of the ILST (DoE, 2005a:36). The functions were discussed above (*cf.* 3.4.1). In identifying the functions of the ILST, it is imperative that there is also a clarification of role players in the establishment of the ILST at school level. This is due to the fact that the success and effective functioning of the ILSTs depend on clear and detailed initial communication and negotiation between all role players (Makhalemele, 2011:69).

Tebid (2010:28) mentions that there should be 5-10 core role players on the ILST and additional role players should be determined by each institution's individual needs. Tebid (2010:27) indicates that role players in the ILST must understand their roles, responsibilities and duties in order for the team to function successfully. The following members should make up the core role players as suggested by the DoE (2005a:36):

Teachers who are involved directly in the management of the school such as the principal, deputy principal or Head of Department (HOD), co-ordinator who is either nominated by the staff or elected by the principal (Mphahlele, 2005:21), teachers with specialised skills and knowledge in learner support, remedial education, life skills/guidance or counselling, teachers from the institution who volunteer out of interest, or who represent various levels (foundation phase, intermediate phase etc.) or who represent subjects (language, communication etc.), teachers who have a specific expertise to offer regarding a specific need or challenge and non-teaching staff from the school such as administrative personnel or care-taking staff and the referring teacher.

3.4.2.1 Core-members of the ILST

Principal - As stated by Makhalemele (2011:62), the principal serves as the cornerstone of the ILST at school level. Section 16A (2) in the SASSA (1996b) clearly outlines all the general responsibilities that the principal needs to undertake as the manager of the school. One of the responsibilities of the principal is to ensure that an ILST has been established at his/her school and function well (DoE, 2010:22). The DoE (2010:13-14) identifies the following specific roles of the principal in the ILST:

- ensuring that all inclusive education policies are correctly implemented within his/her school and if the policies are not correctly implemented then improvement plans need to be drawn up and programmes need to be developed in such a way that reflects inclusive practices and to improve the support services provided by his/her school;
- promoting the view within his/her school that special needs education is a service and not a place. The principal needs to take the lead and ensure that there are additional support programmes for teaching and learning with special focus on reaching out to learners experiencing barriers to learning;
- finding various strategies to acknowledge the accomplishments of learners;
- ensuring that the school maintains a register of additional support needs for learners. This record must be analysed to identify trends, intensity of incidents, impact of support programmes and inform future planning for support;
- uses a collaborative approach in creating school schedules that support inclusive practices such as time allocation for ILST activities and for teachers to engage in care and support programmes as well as provision of learner support and services;
- ensures that the staff working with learners experiencing barriers to learning are respectfully invited to offer input on successes, dilemmas and suggestions for changes;

- ensures via the ILST that learners' Individual Support Plans provide the information necessary for designing services and support;
- honours as much possible to support learners at the school before referring for assistance or individual assessment outside the school;
- is proactive and constructive in facilitating relationships and support networks between the school and other role players with a view of addressing barriers to teaching and learning; and
- is aware of and accesses resources to support teachers and other staff members in creating and sustaining inclusive practices.

Above all of these roles, the principal is also responsible for appointing a co-ordinator for the ILST and on a regular basis assisting this co-ordinator to ensure he/she is functional (Makhalemele, 2011:63).

Co-ordinator - The DoE (2010:22, 23) mentions that the ILST co-ordinator must administer the ILST while at the same time identify the training needs of teachers who may experience difficulties to implement their roles in the ILST. The co-ordinator must also organise for staff development and joint planning of support (DoE, 2010:23). The co-ordinator must facilitate meetings of the team and ensure that discussions are clear and focused and that the goals set are reached (Landsberg, 2005:67) as well as time frames are adhered to (Mphahlele, 2005:21). Furthermore, the teacher in this role must make sure that all members on the team understand their responsibility towards their roles (Mphahlele, 2005:21). Consulting with referring teachers and keeping track of the recommendations and action taken on each case, while ensuring that follow ups are made, are also the responsibility of the co-ordinator.

Teachers with skills in learner support - Makhalemele (2011:65) specifies that teachers in the ILST must have a number of learning support skills. These skills include remedial skills which comprise of the ability to plan interventions focusing on skills, instead of content, to address a learner's individual needs; special education skills which allows a teacher to work with learners experiencing various barriers to learning; life skills, which are skills needed to live and manage a better quality of life and lastly guidance and counselling skills which include listening and paying

attention to a learner without judging and the ability to provide direction which the learner can follow to improve their situation. The DoE (2014:37) states that teachers should be able to apply the process of screening, identifying and assessing learners and therefore they must exercise sufficient knowledge in addressing the needs of the school as well as those learners (DoE, 2014:37).

The DoE (2014:37) acknowledges that teachers need to play specific roles when it comes to supporting learners with barriers to learning. They need to be able to identify barriers to learning that learners experience through observations, interviews, consultations, reflections, formative actions and previous records. Furthermore, teachers need to plan intervention programmes to support the learners daily as part of the teaching and learning process. These support strategies will demand that the teacher has the necessary skills to implement differentiation of content, adjust methodologies in the classroom and create classroom environment to accommodate the needs of the learners (DoE, 2014:37).

Once the teacher has exhausted all strategies in attempt to support the learner, he/she needs to approach and consult with other members of the ILST. The teacher must facilitate the support process for the learner/s. It is the role of the teacher to ensure that the parents/caregivers' wishes carry the ultimate weight in any decision concerning the learner (DoE, 2014:37, 38). Based on the above roles, one can notice that learner support skills are required from every teacher teaching in the mainstream school, as it is not only the duty of ILST members to identify learners experiencing barriers to learning. It is in fact the role of every classroom teacher.

Referring Teacher - Makhalemele (2011:64) clarifies the role of the referring teacher as the one who identifies the support needed and then seeks the assistance of the ILST in addressing particular support required. Once the identification has been made, the DoE (2014:37) and Tebid (2010:22) recommend that the teacher directly supports the learner by making use of various teaching strategies (differentiation of content or adjusting teaching styles) and only once all his/her strategies have been exhausted does he/she consult with the ILST for alternative support strategies (Mphahlele, 2005:21). According to Makhalemele (2011:64) this teacher must remain a member of the team until the barriers experienced by the

learner are addressed. This teacher must provide the ILST with information regarding the specific barriers and assist with recommendations on possible interventions. The teacher must ensure that a record is kept of all the observations and intervention strategies attempted with the learner and she must ensure that information is updated in the learner's profile.

3.4.2.2 Additional Role Players

Additional role players can be invited to some meetings to assist with the process of certain challenges if the need arises (DoE, 2005a:36). Additional role players may include: skilled parents or caregivers who could strengthen the team (DoE, 2005a:36); specific role players of the DBST (DoE, 2005a:36); role players from the local community (health care professionals, social workers, businessmen, retired people, etc.) who could contribute to specific challenges (DoE, 2005a:36); knowledgeable teachers from other institutions (DoE, 2005a: 37) that would make the necessary arrangements to meet the special learning needs of all learners (Makhalemele, 2011:27); and learners from the institution (Makhalemele, 2011:61). Only the roles of parents or caregivers and learners as peers are discussed.

Parents/ caregivers- The DoE (2014:39) states that parents and caregivers are the primary sources of information. Their experiences with their children can provide useful information to the ILST with regards to the child's physical and emotional well-being and learning style (Makhalemele, 2011:66). The ILST has to make use of parents in order to attain knowledge about the learner's abilities. The DoE (2014:39) mentions that acknowledging the parent's pivotal role in the education of their child is the essence in the early identification of barriers.

Parents in the ILST should encourage others to feel free to initiate contact with teachers regarding their children's progress. If a learner needs to be enrolled into an institution where additional support is provided, the parents need to have all the information about the available options (DoE, 2014:39, 40). Parents need to ensure that they are empowered to understand how their children can be optimally

developed. Parents must play a meaningful role in forming a collaborative relationship with the teacher to ensure that the support outlined in the Individual Support Plan (ISP) is implemented successfully (DoE, 2014:39, 40).

Learners - Makhalemele (2011:68) states that the role of learners in the ILST is to support their peers who experience barriers to learning and thus initiate support to other learners. These learners should identify and communicate the needs of other learners experiencing barriers to learning to the ILST. Naidoo (2008:41-42) elaborates that learners are recognised as a source of support to one another. The positive attitude apparent among peers can serve as a support structure for learners from CHH during challenging periods of bereavement. Furthermore, according to Naidoo (2008:42), peer support increases self-confidence, a sense of responsibility and the peer helpers can have a positive impact on the wellbeing of learners from CHH.

Members from the community – Members from the community can also serve as additional members on the ILST. Landsberg (2005:63) asserts that community members may include NGOs, disabled people’s organisations, universities, healthcare professionals or any other professionals in the local community who is willing to offer their expertise to address certain challenges (DoE, 2010:36).

Core members of the ILST (principal, co-ordinator, teachers with skills in learner support and the referring teacher) as well as additional members (parents/caregivers, learners and members from the community) have their own functioning roles to play within the team. Collaboration between all the above mentioned members will ensure the effective functioning of the ILST.

3.5 UNIVERSAL AND SELECTIVE SUPPORT PROGRAMMES BY GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS

Over the past years the South African government has made many positive amendments in terms of the improvement of children’s access to socio economic

goods and services (Proudlock & Mahery, 2006:16). Below is a discussion of the government's initiatives that have benefited learners from CHH.

3.5.1 Selective support programmes by the Department of Social Development

The department of social development also takes the initiative in ensuring there are programmes in place to support learners. Learners from CHH benefit from these initiatives. The child support grant helps learners by providing financial assistance and the sanitary pads project provides girls with sanitary pads so that they can continue attending school during their menstruation without feeling embarrassed.

3.5.1.1 Child Support Grant

The National guidelines for statutory services to CHH highlights the child support grant as a means of financial assistance provided by the Department of Social Development that are accessible for children living in CHH (Department of Social Development, 2010:36, 37). However, in order to apply for any form of financial support in South Africa there are three requirements that need to be met first, namely: the applicant must be a South African citizen residing in South Africa at the time of the application; not been kept in an institution financed by the state and not receiving any other form of social grant in respect of himself/herself.

The Department of Social Development, South African Social Security Agency and UNICEF (2012:ii) mention that the child support grant is an important mechanism of social protection for children in South Africa. It reaches over 10 million South African children every month. According to Hall and Monson (2006:39), when the grant was introduced in 1998, the value of the grant was R100 per child monthly which was paid to the primary caregiver. This value has kept pace with inflation over the years and is currently sitting at R330 per child.

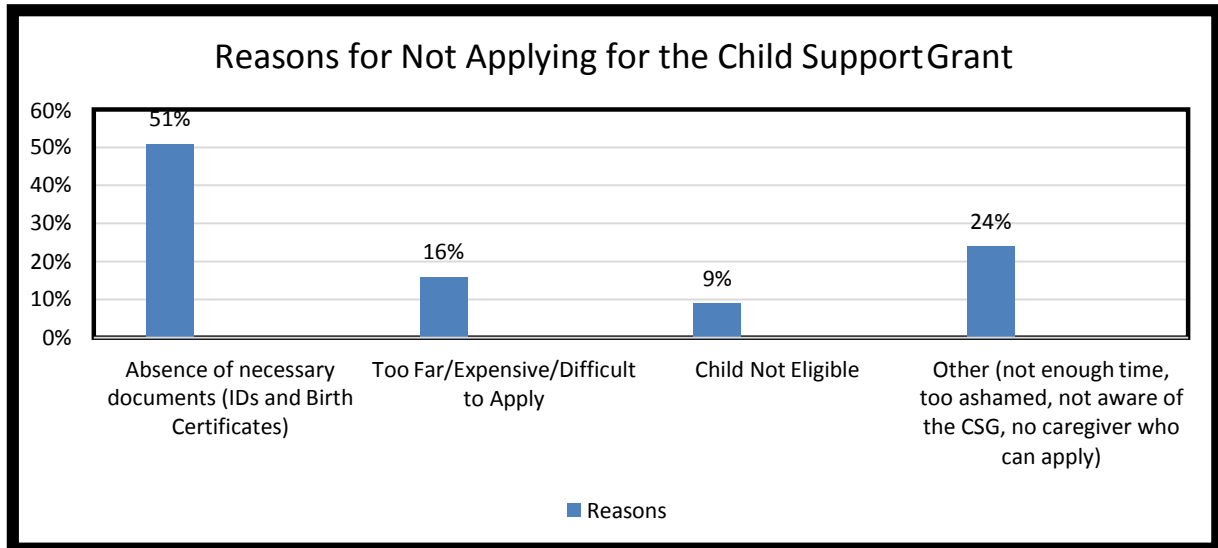
On the introduction of the child support grant in 1998, the grant was limited to children under the age of 7 years, the age limit was increased in April 2003 to include children under the age of 9 years. Thereafter in the year 2004 the age limit

increased to include children under the age of 11 years and in 2005 it increased to include children up until the age of 14 years. In 2008 a further extension to the age limit occurred, reaching to children under the age of 15 years (Department of Social Development, South African Social Security Agency and UNICEF, 2012:2). This age limit remained so until concerns were raised as many poor children who could have benefitted from the grant could not, as the age threshold did not permit them from accessing the grant. Thus, causing deprivation of meeting the needs of children between 15 and 18 years (Hall & Monson, 2006:41). Therefore, the government further reviewed the age limit and currently a child is legible to receive the child support grant up until his/her 18th birthday (Department of Social Development, South African Social Security Agency and UNICEF, 2012:2). Increasing the age threshold along the years indicates that the South African government is really doing their best to ensure the wellbeing of children in our country.

According to the National Guidelines for Statutory Services to CHH (Department of Social Development, 2010:37), over and above the requirements for accessing social assistance above, in order to receive the child support grant on behalf of a child, the child and the primary caregiver (the applicant) must both be South African and residing in South Africa. The primary caregiver is considered as the person who takes primary responsibility for meeting the daily care needs of the child (Hall & Monson, 2006:39). The applicant must be the primary caregiver of the child(ren) concerned. The child(ren) must be under the age of 18 years (Department of Social Development, South African Social Security Agency and UNICEF, 2012:2). The caregiver must have a 13-digit bar coded Identity Document and a 13 digit birth certificate of the child. This means that only if the caregiver is over the age of 16 and has a bar-coded ID then he/she can apply for the child support grant on behalf of younger children in the household (Department of Social Development, 2010:37). This raises a serious concern in terms of a CHH where the primary caregiver is under the age of 16 years and cannot apply for the child support grant on behalf of his/her siblings but still has the responsibility of the provision of basic needs to

his/her sibling(s). The graph below shows the challenges regarding the application for child support grants.

Figure 3.1: Challenges regarding the application for child support grant



Source: Hall and Monson (2006:41)

In the figure above, Hall and Monson (2006:41) highlight barriers that prevent children in need of the child support grant, from applying for this means of financial support. From the graph it is clear that the major barrier preventing eligible applicants from applying for the child support grant is the absence of documentation. With the lack of documentation such as IDs and birth certificates it becomes challenging for children to apply for the child support grant putting them at a huge disadvantage. There are also other reasons such as children not having enough time to apply for the grant or children who are not aware of the availability of the grant or there is no caregiver who can apply for the grant on their behalf. The process also seems to be difficult for them to apply and they consider it expensive.

The child support grant can benefit learners from CHH in many ways. Firstly, it can improve the nutrition of learners within the household having a positive impact on nutrition, growth and hunger (Hall & Monson, 2006:40). By receiving the child

support grant, early childhood nutrition is boosted (Department of Social Development, Case, South African Social Security Agency & UNICEF, 2008:14). The child support grant also benefits learners in terms of education as it increased the enrolment of 6 and 7-year-old learners into schools (Hall & Monson, 2006:40; Department of Social Development, Case, South African Social Security Agency & UNICEF, 2008:14). According to Hall and Monson (2006:40,41), households that receive the child support grant make use of it on basic needs such as food and fuel and other household operations. The Department of Social Development, South African Social Security Agency and UNICEF (2012:iii) indicate that the child support grant is also used for health care services and with the implementation of the child support grant there has been a reduction in the likelihood of illnesses within children.

3.5.1.2 Sanitary Pads Project for Girls

According to Davidson (2011) many girls living in impoverished backgrounds seem to absent themselves from school or even drop out on the onset of puberty or during their menstruation period. This information is confirmed by the South African Government News Agency (2014) - up to nine million young girls aged between 13 and 19 miss up to a week of school due to the lack of sanitary products.

The National Youth Development Agency (2015) mention that, due to the lack of sanitary towels, girls often experience a loss of human dignity because they are forced to use old newspapers or cloths. Furthermore, girls can also suffer from depression and stress from the fear of staining their clothes (National Youth Development Agency, 2015).

In response to this challenge, Davidson (2011) states that President Jacob Zuma announced early 2011 that the government will be promoting a campaign that will distribute sanitary towels to deprived teenaged girls. Since then, there have been a number of projects (Keeping Girls in School – Always, Sanitary Pad Project, Caring for Girls Programme) aimed at alleviating this stress that girls go through with a goal of keeping these girls in school during the time that they are menstruating.

There is a discussion on the high levels of child poverty in South Africa (*cf.* 2.4.1). With poverty being so high in our country, low levels of income impact on the ability to buy basic necessities (Department of Social Development, Case, South African Social Security Agency & UNICEF, 2008:14). Furthermore, vulnerable learners, in particular learners from CHH, are experiencing difficulties in accessing the basic needs such as food, shelter and clothing due to lack of financial resources (*cf.* 2.6.1.1).

3.5.2 Selective support programmes by the Departments of Education and Health

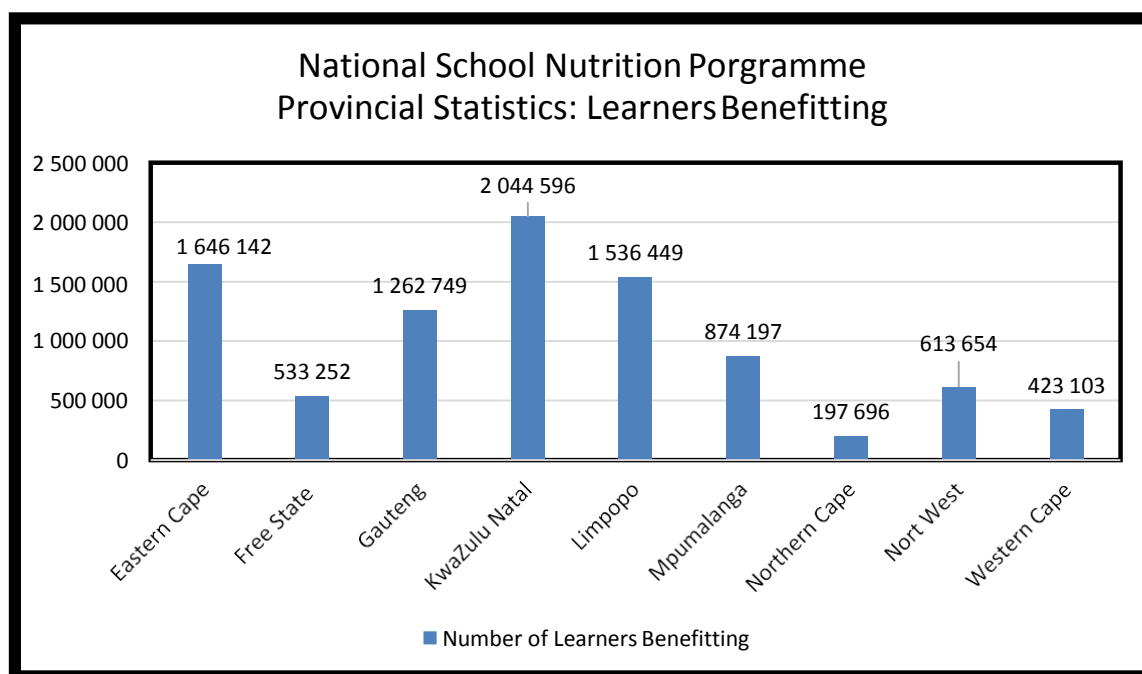
The government departments are taking the initiative to support learners in need. The National School Nutrition Programme supplies learners in need with a meal so that they do not remain hungry and so that they can concentrate at school (DoE, 2009:1). The programme is discussed in detail below.

3.5.2.1 The National School Nutrition Programme

According to the Integrated School Health Policy (2012:35) the National School Nutrition Programme (NSNP) started as a presidential initiative as part of the Reconstruction and Development Programme in 1994. Initially, the Department of Health was responsible for the implementation of this programme, however in April 2004 it was transferred to the Department of Education. Presently all learners attending quintiles 1, 2 and 3 primary and secondary schools are benefitting from this programme. The NSNP aims to enhance the educational experiences of needy learners by providing them with a healthy meal at schools (DoE, 2009:1). With the implementation of this programme, schools have seen a major improvement in terms of the punctuality, attendance and concentration of learners (DoE, 2009:1). The figure below displays the number of learners benefitting from the NSNP in each province in South Africa for the period 1 April 2013 to 30 March 2014.

In the year 2013/2014, this programme benefitted an average of 9 131 836 learners attending quintile 1,2 and 3 primary and high schools as well as special schools nationally (DoE, 2015:5). There are three primary objectives that the NSNP focuses on, namely: providing daily nutritious meals to learners to enhance learning capacity; to promote healthy lifestyles through nutrition education; and to support the development of food gardens in schools (DoE, 2015:10). The figure below displays the number of learners benefitting from the NSNP.

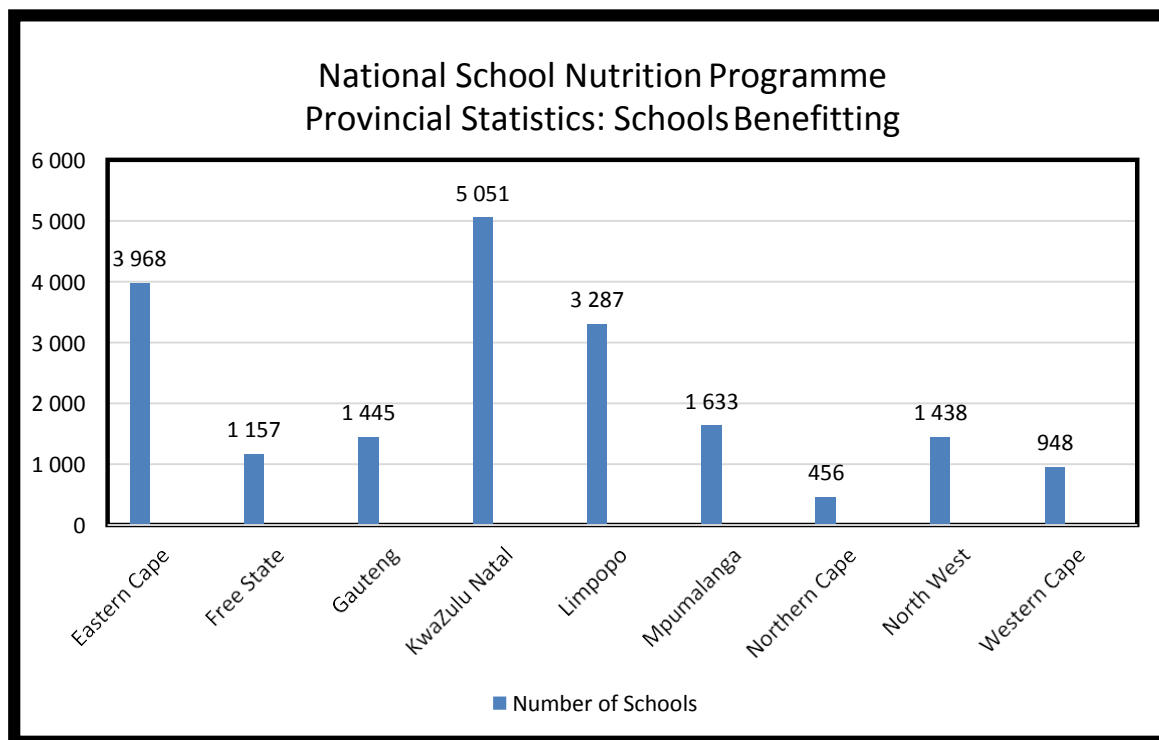
Figure 3.2: Learners benefitting from the NSNP



Source: DoE (2015:14)

The above graph confirms that the NSNP is a national programme benefitting learners in schools across South Africa. Learners in KwaZulu Natal, Eastern Cape, Limpopo and Gauteng seem to have the most number of learners benefitting from the programme. It is apparent that a lot more work needs to be done in the Western Cape, North West, Northern Cape and Free State. The figure below depicts how many schools are benefitting from the NSNP.

Figure 3.3: Schools benefitting from the NSNP



Source: DoE (2015:14)

On a national level, KwaZulu Natal, Eastern Cape and Limpopo schools benefitted most from the programme. It seems as though more work needs to be done in order to get the programme to reach more schools in the remaining provinces.

In order to ensure that meals are cooked and the learners are fed on a daily basis, food handlers are employed as part of the programme (DoE, 2015:13). According to the regulations, food handlers are responsible for the preparation and serving of food on a daily basis. Learners must be fed before 10am so that they have energy to concentrate in class and be more alert, especially for those who do not have breakfast before coming to school (DoE, 2009:4; Overy, 2010:65). Furthermore, Overy (2010:65) states that learners often have to walk long distances to get to school compromising their energy levels if they do not receive the meal early during the day.

The Evaluation of the School Nutrition Programme Provincial Report- Limpopo (DoE, 2008:20); the NSNP, a guide for secondary schools (DoE, 2009:4,5); and An Evaluation of the School Nutrition Programme in the Grahamstown Education District, Eastern Cape, South Africa (Overy, 2010:10) mention serving one meal per day to learners before 10 am. A more recent document, the NSNP 2013/14 Annual Report (DoE, 2015:22) and the National School Nutrition Circular (Western Cape Department of Education, 2014) mention the serving of two meals — breakfast and lunch respectively. The meals provided are in line with the South African Food Based Dietary Guidelines (DoE, 2015:4). According to Dei (2014:34), many schools provide breakfast to learners before classes begin. The Department of Education (2009:3) mentions that school menus should include tasty and adequate meals for learners. Learners are fed hot meals consisting of any of the following according to DoE (2009:3) and Dei (2014:70):

- Starches - maize meal; samp; mealie rice; rice; and bread or potatoes.
- Protein - soya; dried beans; lentils; nuts; dried peas; and fish.
- Vegetables - cabbage; spinach; and carrots or butternut.

The meals provided are intended to boost mental and physical capacity of learners and to allow their brains to function, making them alert and receptive during lessons (DoE, 2009:2). Boschloo, Ouwehand, Dekker, Lee, De Groot, Krabbendam and Jolles (2012:81) regard proper nutrition as a prerequisite for children to learn and perform better at school. Adolescents especially, have high nutritional needs considering their brain development processes and physical growth and thus proper nutrition is imperative. Hence this programme benefits many adolescent learners coming from poverty stricken areas where food insecurity is extremely high (Dei, 2014:15).

Vulnerable children often lack access to adequate nutrition and particularly within the younger children. Nutritional deprivation and malnutrition in the early years of a child's life has long term negative consequences on physical and cognitive

development (Department of Social Development, Case, South African Social Security Agency & UNICEF, 2008:14)

3.5.3 Universal programme by the Department of South African Police Services

The South African Police Services department are committed to helping schools in their communities to alleviate crime. This is ensured by implementing school based crime prevention programmes which are highlighted below (South African Police Service, 2009:3).

3.5.3.1 School-based crime prevention programme

According to the Report of the Public Hearing on School-based Violence by the South African Human Rights Commission (2008:1), in order to ensure that the right to education is met by all children in the country, it is imperative that teachers and learners are able to learn and teach in a safe environment —an environment that is free from all forms of violence. However, many children today are exposed to educational settings that are flooded with violence, exposing them to all forms of violent activity. Hence the South African Police Service has prioritised the prevention of violence and crime within schools. Police officers have sworn to work within schools as part of their daily responsibilities towards the community (South African Police Service, 2009:3).

On the 6th August 2013, the South African Police Service and the Department of Education officially formalised their cooperative partnership by means of a signed agreement known as the Partnership Protocol (Department of Education, 2013:1; South African Police Service, 2014:11). The main aim specified by the protocol is to develop and support the implementation of school- based crime prevention programmes (Department of Education, 2013:1). These programmes may include Captain Crime Stop, Adopt-A-Cop, Top Cops or other safer school projects and programmes that are locally specific (South African Police Service, 2009:3).

According to the South African Human Rights Commission (2008:27), Captain Crime Stop is an educational and awareness programme focusing on early childhood development centres such as crèches, pre-primary and primary schools. It entails a cartoon-type hero visiting the school demonstrating acts of heroism and teaching children a lesson in safety and security. However, this programme was not as effective as anticipated when implemented.

The Adopt-A-Cop programme focuses on learners aged 13 years and above. A police official from the local police station is allocated to each school. The official is trained specifically for the position. Their responsibility towards the school is to do regular visits and assist the school leadership with the identification and solving of matters related to crime and school violence. The goal of this programme is to encourage the establishment of relationships of trust between learners and the police so as to strengthen the communication between the two parties. The police are also allowed to do regular patrols around the school and search for illegal substances. They may also make use of dogs when searching for intoxicants (South African Human Rights Commission, 2008:27).

3.5.4 Selective support programme by the Department of Basic Education

The government has allowed for learners to attend school even though they may not be able to afford to. By exempting learners from paying schools fees allows learners access to basic quality education. In the case of learners from CHH, automatic exemption is granted to these learners (South Africa, 2006b). A detailed discussion on this form of support is presented below.

3.5.4.1 Exemption from paying school fees

When discussing the contextual factors resulting in the prevalence of CHH in Chapter 2 (*cf.* 2.4) attention was drawn to poverty as one of the contributing factors. Close to half of South African population is in poverty, more accurate statistics can be found in Chapter 2 (*cf.* 2.4.1). In this case the ability to afford access to

education becomes a challenge (South Africa, 2004:1). This encounter has led to the exclusion of poor learners from accessing education, thus discriminating against them and violating their right to basic education (Setoaba, 2011:1).

In response to this, the South African government published the Amended National Norms and Standards for School Funding in August 2006 (South Africa, 2006a) and the New Regulations on the Exemption of Parents from Payment of School Fees in Public Schools in October 2006 (South Africa, 2006b). These amendments strengthen the South African Schools Act. They clarified areas in the Act where discrimination occurred (Proudlock & Mahery, 2006:13). According to Setoaba (2011:1), the amendments to this Act came into effect on the 1 January 2007.

The regulations relating to the exemption of parents from payment school fees in public schools (South Africa, 2006a) indicate that caregivers who cannot afford to pay schools fees may be granted exemption. Moreover, section 1 (d) of the amended act (South Africa, 2006b) mentions that total exemption from paying school fees is to be granted to a child that heads a household. Also the act states that the discrimination against learners who have not paid school fees must not be allowed (Proudlock & Mahery, 2006:13).

The National Norms and Standards for School Funding (South Africa, 2006a) goes further to mentioning the issue of no-fee paying schools which are determined by the National Minister together with the provincial MEC's (Proudlock & Mahery, 2006:13). Schools in the poorest of areas, who are geographically chosen to become no-fee paying schools are reimbursed by the government for the income lost from school fees. This means that the government pays a certain amount for each learner attending that school (Proudlock & Mahery, 2006:14; South Africa, 2006a), thereby increasing poor learners' access to schools.

3.6 SUPPORT PROGRAMMES AT SCHOOL LEVEL

Bonthuys (2010:45) and Mkhize (2006:43) suggest that there is an urgent need to assist learners living in CHH and to ensure that their Constitutional rights are being protected. Williams (2010:10, 11) suggests that a school is one of the strongest institutions in the community to provide support and care to all learners including the ones from CHH.

Schools focus on children and it is a natural place to reach vulnerable children. Though there are agencies that can offer these learners care and support, none of them can provide them with the crucial access to learning (Williams, 2010:12). This is supported by Mkhize (2006:48) stating that the school is the only setting in which the personality, talents, values, mental and physical abilities of these learners are developed to their full potential. Even though the school system cannot meet all the needs of learners from CHH, they can at least lead the way by acting as a catalyst in the provision of support (Mkhize, 2006:202).

According to Ogina (2010:2), the teachers are expected to deal with the intellectual, social and emotional barriers of a child's development because when teaching a child one cannot separate the emotional and social barriers from the cognitive barriers. It is the teachers who have direct relationships with learners and thus it is their duty to recognise the danger signs in these orphaned learners and it must be in their capability to respond to these signs immediately and effectively (Ogina, 2010:6).

3.6.1 Selective programmes

The food garden programme is part of selective programmes. These programmes have emerged as one of the goals of the NSNP (DoE, 2015:4). A detailed explanation on what this programme entails can be found below.

3.6.1.1 Food Garden Programme

One of the objectives of the NSNP is to support the establishment of food gardens at schools. The development of food gardens is encouraged at schools so that fresh produce in the form of fruit and vegetables can be obtained to supplement the existing menu of the NSNP (DoE, 2015:4; Dei, 2014:85). The programme serves as a poverty alleviation strategy at schools. The gardens should be managed by teachers and learners (DoE, 2008b:8). According to the Department of Education (2015:4), teachers, learners and parents are provided with skills on how to grow their own gardens.

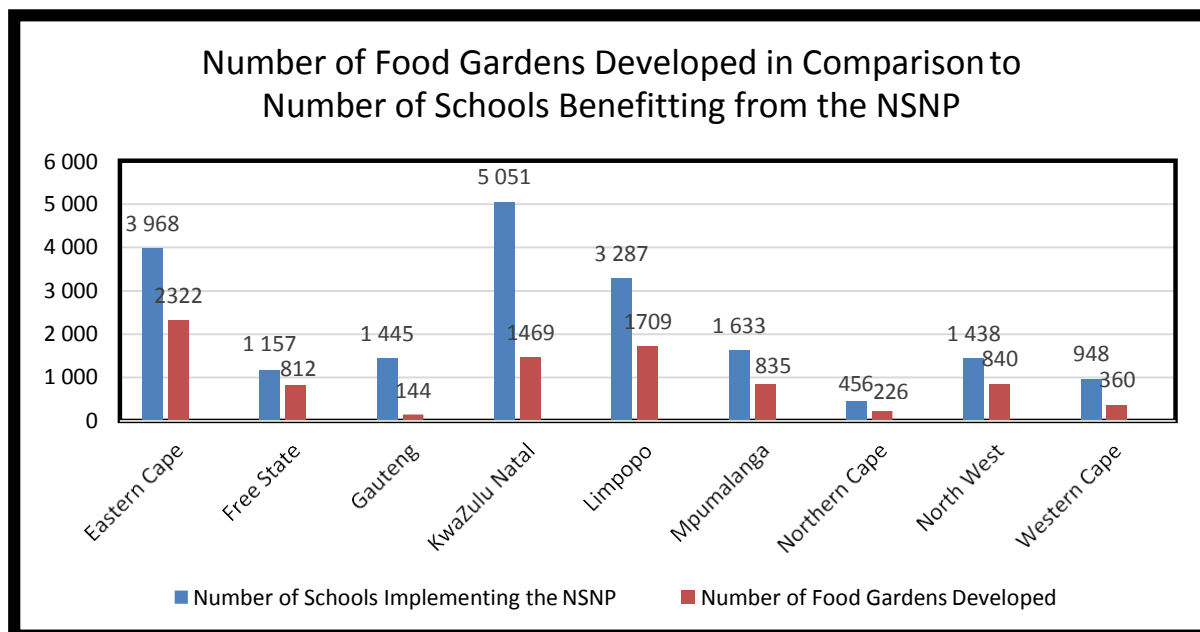
The food garden project is also a means of conveying knowledge, experience and practical skills on food production to ensure long term household food security (KwaZulu Natal Department of Education, 2011:23). Furthermore, it beautifies the school environment and can be used as a teaching and learning resource for learners (DoE, 2015:4). According to the Department of Education (2015:5), food gardens are a fundamental part of the NSNP.

In supporting this programme, the Department of Education has bought and dispersed 16 vegetable tunnels and other agricultural resources, to maintain and sustain the food gardens at schools (DoE, 2015:5). These tunnels and agricultural resources were donated to schools in the Eastern Cape, Limpopo, KwaZulu Natal and Western Cape (DoE, 2015:20). A variety of vegetables such as cabbage, spinach, beetroot and onions were planted (DoE, 2015:20). Furthermore, the National Lottery Distribution Trust Fund assists schools with the erection of vegetable tunnels. The main objective of the tunnels, over and above supplementing the NSNP is to supply fresh vegetables to learners from CHH (DoE, 2015:25).

According to the NSNP 2013/2014 Annual Report (2015:32), there is a competition which is used as an incentive to develop and maintain food gardens. The competitions are hosted annually and hundreds of schools enter. The winning school receives between R1000 and R25000 to buy resources to maintain their gardens.

This incentive motivates schools to continue producing vegetables in their gardens. The graph below illustrates the number of food gardens established at schools in South Africa against the number of schools benefitting from the NSNP.

Figure 3.4: Number of food gardens established in comparison to number of schools implementing the NSNP



Source: DoE (2015:14)

The graph above represents how many food gardens are established out of the all the schools implementing the NSNP in the country, for the period 1 April 2013 to 30 March 2014. Eastern Cape is doing a good job in terms of the establishment of food gardens. Out of the 3968 schools benefitting from the NSNP in the Eastern Cape, 2322 schools had developed food gardens. What is worrying is that KwaZulu Natal has the most schools benefitting from the NSNP in the country, but not even half of the schools had food gardens developed. Another concern is Gauteng, it is the province with the minimal number of food gardens developed at schools, with only 144 food gardens developed out of 1445 schools benefitting from the NSNP.

3.7 FACTORS IMPACTING THE ILST IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SUPPORT PROGRAMMES

According to Tebid (2010:21), the ILST has the capacity to maximise learner participation and improve the educational opportunities of learners experiencing barriers to learning and development. However, Naidoo (2008:2) and Wood and Goba (2011:275) state that many schools have grappled with its role and core function. Nel *et al.* (2013:2) also remark on reviews reporting that members of the ILSTs are not sufficiently skilled to perform their roles and responsibilities. By 2012, only 8 696 schools out of 26 000 had ILSTs. From those who had ILSTs, only 16 672 members were trained through short courses on the basic strategies of inclusive education (Nel *et al.*, 2013:2). This is supported by a study conducted by Nel *et al.* (2011:48), where the respondents' responses were that the ILST at their specific schools were not up to standard and they further stated that the DBST did not provide any support in the way that they were supposed to. Teachers deem that there is little or no collaboration between them and the ILST (Tebid, 2010:7).

Some studies conducted by Mphahlele (2005), Tebid (2010) and Perumal (2010) expose the concern that the ILST lacks implementation and there are a number of doubts relating to the ILST handling the enormity of learners' problems. Some teachers were even unaware that the ILST existed and that there should be policies addressing concerns for vulnerable learners (Williams, 2010:14, 18). Tebid (2010:7) relates cases where the ILST did not even address the staff in terms of their roles and responsibilities in the rendering of support. Mphahlele (2005:52) mentions that a problem around the ILST is that some members are not functional as they are overloaded and they have to serve on various other committees, causing them to become inactive (Perumal, 2010:32).

Nel, Nel and Hugo (2012a:3) state that within South Africa there is a lack of sufficient support services and this causes difficulties in supporting all learners. The fact that teachers and support service professionals are struggling to come to grips with the

way of doing things in ESS more than 10 years after the implementation of inclusive education, is having a huge impact on the establishment and functioning of ILSTs in educational institutions (Hay, 2003:135). The success of ILSTs largely depend on the paradigm shift towards inclusive education, in the minds and work of all members who are part of an institution (Hay, 2003:137). The continuous refusal of ESS in aligning themselves with the aspects of inclusive education, results in poor provision of support to learners experiencing barriers to learning (Hay, 2003:137). According to Wood and Goba (2011:284), the current approach of supporting learners is plagued with problems and the DoE (2012) also appeals for the establishment and functioning of ILSTs and DBSTs to be facilitated and provided with resources in order to improve the implementation of WP6.

3.7.1 Teacher challenges

With the implementation of inclusive education, the education system has brought about a series of radical changes that have transformed the working environment of all teachers (Prinsloo, 2001:345; Mphahlele, 2005:6). Teachers form an integral part within the education system and they are therefore key to ensure the success of inclusive education (Naong & Mateusi, 2014:61). Naong and Mateusi (2014:62) mention that teachers' beliefs and their attitude towards diversity can influence the practice of inclusive education. If teachers have good will and positive attitudes towards inclusive education, they will take the initiative to seek out the skills to support learners experiencing barriers to learning and in doing so they will embrace diversity (Mahlo, 2011:50). According to Mahlo (2011:47), one of the most difficult challenges is preparing teachers to teach in diverse classrooms.

Swart and Pettipher (2001:41) indicate that the provision of support to learners by teachers become an issue linked to the teachers' beliefs, values and attitudes. Engelbrecht (2013:52) mentions that teachers' attitudes toward and beliefs about support are affected by their personal characteristics and traits. Their assumptions, beliefs and attitudes influence their actions and support practices. It also has an

impact on their decision making. Negative attitudes can tarnish a teacher's efforts for supporting these learners (Engelbrecht, 2013:41). Ogina (2010:6) mentions that there are some teachers who are not sensitive to personal, social, emotional and behavioural problems experienced by learners and these teachers are more likely to be unwilling or unprepared to provide support to orphaned learners from CHH.

Ogina (2010:7) argues that in the literature the term support is interpreted differently by different institutions. This is the reason for teachers to remain confused about what their role actually entails (Prinsloo, 2001:245). According to Ogina (2010:4), some teachers acknowledge that it is their responsibility to provide support to learners from CHH while others argue and feel that it's the government's responsibility (Tebid, 2010:20; Mphahlele, 2005:5). According to Mahlo (2011:47), other teachers feel that because they did not take a special course in learner support, therefore they are not experts in supporting learners. Williams (2010:22) felt that some teachers believe that it is their responsibility to do more than just educate learners and others were less likely to embrace the idea of filling the gap between the learners' needs and the insufficient structures that were supposed to support them. These contradictory views result from a lack of shared and clear understanding that supposed to be constructed by the whole school and implemented throughout the school. In reality not all schools are fortunate enough to have professional guidance and counselling teachers on site (Ogina, 2010:7).

Another factor that negatively impacts the effective functioning of the ILST, is that teachers are unable to cope with the combined roles of teaching and learning and care-giving (Ogina, 2010:1). Nel *et al.* (2013:10) found that teachers are struggling to overcome challenges that they are currently facing in the education system. Teachers are already overburdened with an increase in paperwork expected from them (Williams, 2010:25; Tebid, 2010:47; Mphahlele, 2005:51). Teachers need to try and balance the challenging business of teaching and learning with additional demands imposed by the increased levels severe trauma, heightened discrimination and stigma and increased poverty experienced by learners from CHH (Wood &

Goba, 2011:276). As teachers are extremely worn down by the daily struggles that seem to never end, they have become accustomed to mental fatigue and unwillingness to provide support and initiate change in their schools (Williams, 2010:30). The fact that teachers are struggling to cope with these challenges while at the same time trying to complete the curriculum, negatively affects their pastoral role to learners experiencing barriers to learning (Nel *et al.*, 2013:10).

According to Williams (2010:22), teachers who do provide support, do so at their own expense. So, consistent points have been raised regarding the dissatisfaction towards their teacher remuneration. Teachers feel that in order for them to perform roles outside teaching hours, they need an increase in salary and recognition (Williams, 2010:22).

Ogina (2010:3, 7) also points out that teachers are battling to identify learners experiencing emotional barriers because they are not easily visible. Thus their current approach in supporting learners from CHH is not very effective (Wood & Goba, 2011:275). According to Wood and Goba (2011:279), Tebid (2010:21) and Mphahlele (2005:6), teachers do not perceive themselves as being adequately equipped in dealing with learners experiencing emotional barriers. They feel that in order for them to provide effective support to these learners they are in need of specialized skills (Ogina, 2010:7).

Williams (2010:22) and Mphahlele (2005:6) add the frustration that teachers experience due to the large volume of social problems that they are expected to address in a class of approximately 60 learners. Teachers complain that they cannot go the extra mile for 60 learners, and they cannot differentiate between naughty learners and learners who really have problems as the overcrowded classes make it impossible for them to identify learners (Perumal, 2010: 32).

Wood and Goba (2011:284) mention that although the learners' needs are paramount, it cannot be assumed that all teachers have the necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes and values to respond to the emotional and material needs of

learners from CHH. Bearing in mind that the ILST's effectiveness depends largely on the aspect of teachers working together as a team to address care and support to all learners within the school (Wood & Goba, 2011:284).

3.7.2 Lack of teacher development

According to Ladbroke (2009:57), teachers need to be adequately trained in order to address and respond to the diverse needs of learners. Teachers need to have the knowledge, skills and the correct attitude in order to support learners experiencing various barriers to learning (Watson, 2009:277; Ladbroke, 2009:57; Mahlo & Hugo, 2013:301). Teachers need the support and training from knowledgeable management teams at schools as well as from personnel at the district offices (Ladbroke, 2009:57). Ladbroke (2009:53) and Mahlo (2011:49) is of the opinion that the DBST plays an important role in providing support and capacity building of teachers through training initiatives so that teachers can be aware of support strategies that can be used to support learners in need of support (Mahlo, 2011:49).

Prinsloo (2001:345) argues that the in-service and pre-service programmes have undoubtedly improved teachers' attitudes and empowered them with theoretical knowledge but teachers battled to implement what they learnt in their relative classes (Mosia, 2014:300). Teachers have experienced needs that were not addressed during in-service training programmes such as strategies to get the rest of the school involved or how to overcome the shortage of resources that they felt is a severe barrier to the implementation of support (Wood & Goba, 2010:279).

Wood and Goba (2010:280) indicate that the counselling courses of in-service training had been very valuable, allowing teachers to be more empathetic and approachable towards learners. However, these courses may have stirred conflict in schools as teachers felt they were now qualified counsellors and started referring all problem cases amongst themselves.

According to Deng and Poon-McBrayer (2012:117), teachers are not well prepared in order to cater for the needs of learners experiencing barriers to learning. This is seen as a serious challenge because in some cases teachers never had prior interaction with learners experiencing barriers to learning (Deng & Poon-McBrayer, 2012:120; Mosia, 2014:300). The pre-service and in-service training of teachers may have dealt with the urgent need for initial skills however neglecting a long term systematic education plan for teachers (Deng & Poon-McBrayer, 2012:120).

Prior to the transformation in the education system, teachers were either trained to teach learners in the general education system or they were trained to teach learners in special education (Mahlo, 2011:1). Hence many complications arise in terms of development, because there are still teachers over 50 years who are still teaching in the education system. Trying to introduce new ways of teaching learners to these teachers is challenging as they are already in the profession for many years. This would require teachers to rethink and reshape their professional identity which could be intimidating and challenging (Nana, 2012:25). This could also be a reason why many teachers still lack an understanding of what it means to accommodate and support learners experiencing barriers to learning, because the recent literature (Mosia, 2014:292; Donohue & Bornman, 2014:1) states that a clear understanding of inclusive education is still lacking amongst teachers in South Africa.

Teachers feel that they lack consistent support structures and training. They also feel inadequately prepared to understand and cope with supporting learners which negatively impacts their enthusiasm in the provision of support to learners with diverse needs (Ladbrook, 2009:53, 56).

3.7.3 Importance of good leadership

Perumal (2010:v) states that effective leadership at school has been a driving force in determining the successful implementation of the ILST. Swart and Pettipher (2005:19) indicate the importance of the school principal in setting the tone of the school and recognising his/her responsibility in helping the school to become and

maintain a supportive community. Donald *et al.* (2010:119) specifies that in an inclusive education system, the role of leadership is not only attached to principals. A school that is running effectively is one in which leadership is fostered by the principal in all the staff members working at that institution. This transformational approach of leadership is a key element in determining the successful functioning of the ILST (Perumal, 2010:24).

Donald *et al.* (2010:118) describe leadership as providing a vision and direction in an institution. It is important in the process of developing an effective school (Donald *et al.*, 2010:119)— which is what makes it particularly important in determining the success and effectiveness of the ILST (Perumal, 2010:v). According to Williams (2010:14), establishing a supportive and caring school even in under resourced township schools, is not impossible, even though many township schools facing high poverty fail to serve as a catalyst to a supportive environment within the community.

Kamper (2008:14) mentions that the success of schools in terms of overcoming all their challenges depends on the principal's passion for upliftment and the teachers' commitment to supporting learners and caring for them wholeheartedly. Kamper (2008:12) has identified the following traits that principals should possess or develop in order for the learners at the school to perform well and in order for the school to maintain its supportive and caring reputation:

- Compassion for the poor and vulnerable children;
- Commitment to tasks;
- Ensuring that every measure is taken to equip teachers optimally for their tasks;
- Being an active and supportive role player;
- Acts as a facilitator of learning; and
- Plays a supportive role and emphasizes teamwork.

Kamper (2008:9) and Naidoo (2008:47) mention particularly that schools have to deal with the phenomenon of CHHs. This challenge can only be met through energetic, compassionate, innovative and empowering leadership (Kamper, 2008:12). Teachers need to be empowered by the principal to take decisions, exercise leadership and work in an environment that encourages teamwork. This can only be accomplished if the principal serves as a catalyst in bringing the team together (Perumal, 2010:57). Kamper (2008:12) states that getting continuous support from the principal, teachers are able to sustain their motivation and success in providing support to learners and ensuring that learners' needs are met, which in turn will enhance learner performance (Kamper, 2008:9) and reduce barriers to learning.

Ogina (2010:6) maintains that principals are not directly involved in providing for the needs of learners from CHH. In line with the above, there is a need for supportive and caring leadership so that teachers can be encouraged to become positively involved and responsive to the needs of learners from CHH. Wood and Goba (2011:283) urge that teachers voiced a need for more support from school leadership in terms of providing care and support to learners from CHH.

3.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter gave insight into the core aspects of the ILST, explaining the need for ESS. The chapter also looked at the establishment of the ILST and its core functions as well as the role players on the team. It provides insight on programmes supporting learners from CHH, including the NSNP by the Department of Education and Health, the child support grant and sanitary pads project by the Department of Social Development, crime prevention programmes by the South African Police Service and exemption from paying school fees by the Department of Education. Furthermore, it highlighted certain factors that impact the ILST. The next chapter looks at the methodology of this research study.

CHAPTER 4

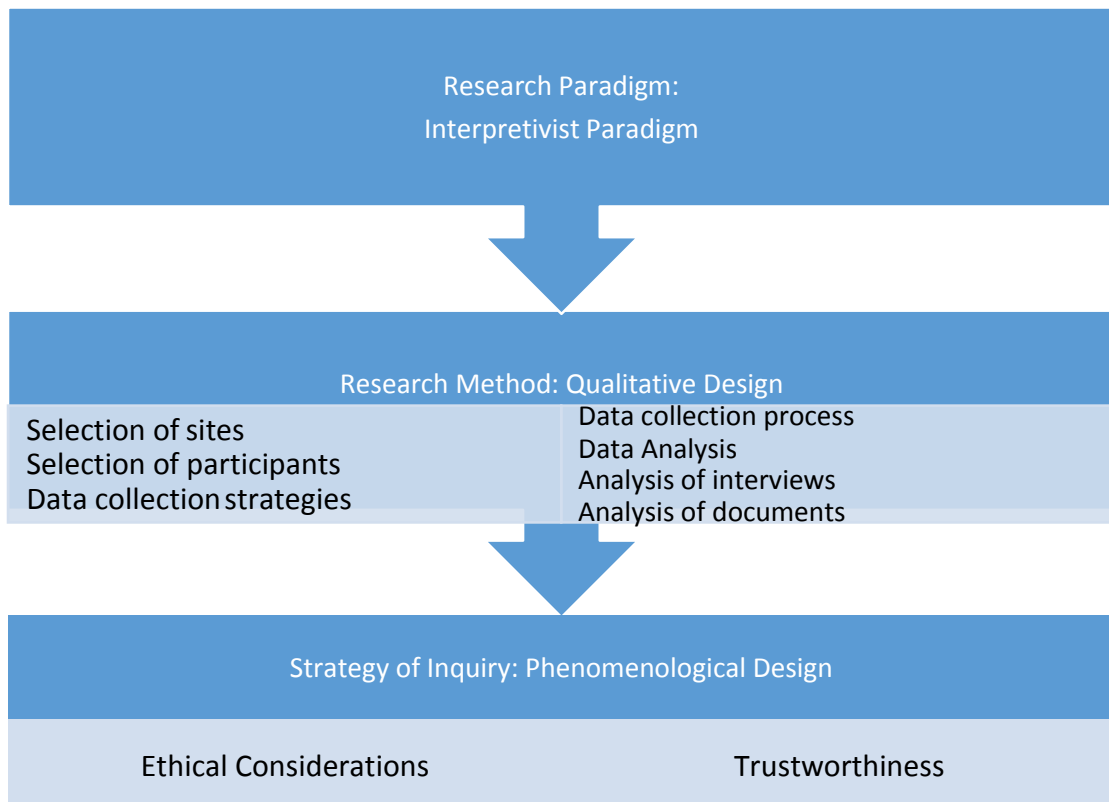
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This research study particularly focused on understanding the perceptions of support given to learners from CHH by the ILST within the Sedibeng district. Chapter 3 focused on the essence of support for learners from CHH, providing a brief background on the formation of ESS and the national, school and community programmes supporting learners from CHH at schools. The chapter concluded with problems that ILSTs are currently facing within South Africa.

This chapter focuses on the research methodology of the study. It explains the research paradigm and research method used. It also describes the sampling of the participants and sites. It explains the data collection strategies and process and how the data collected were analysed. The chapter concludes with quality criteria and the ethical considerations. The figure below summarises this chapter.

Figure 4.1: Summary of Chapter 4



4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

Taber (2013:287) explains that paradigms are used to describe approaches to educational enquiry. As mentioned in Chapter 1, this research study is based on an interpretivist approach which embeds itself within the views of participants about a particular phenomenon being studied (Creswell, 2009:8).

The assumptions that this paradigm holds pays particular attention to people's subjective experiences (Nieuwenhuis, 2010a:59). Data in this research study was collected from participants, describing their experiences in supporting learners from CHH (Creswell, 2009:8). A considerable amount of time was spent in the field in direct contact with the participants of this research. Interpretivists focus on the social construction of peoples' ideas, views or understandings of reality. In simple terms this paradigm emphasises why and how people interact with each other as well as describe their motives and relationships (Nieuwenhuis, 2010a:54). This research was underpinned by interpretation. Interpretation involved the researcher's attempt to inductively develop a pattern of meaning from the information provided by the ILST members and documentation collected. It makes use of literary work consisting of ordinary language (transcripts) and expression to gain an understanding through recurring perceptions from the participants of this research.

According to Nieuwenhuis (2010a:59), interpretivists assume that by putting people in their social contexts there is a better opportunity to understand their perceptions of their own actions. This is imperative if the researcher wants to construct meaning from participants. The participants of this research were approached personally by the researcher in their classrooms at school which were their specific contexts in which they worked (Creswell, 2009:8). This was done in order to understand how these participants perceive their actions in supporting learners from CHH within the school context and being in the context in which they are working and supporting learners from CHH allowed them to recall experiences more easily (Nieuwenhuis, 2010a:59).

Since interpretivists believe that there are multiple meanings to reality (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:6) which can differ across time and place (Nieuwenhuis, 2010a:60) this research aimed to explore the multiple meanings that participants at different levels of the ILST attach to support learners from CHH.

Interpretivist researchers explore the richness, depth and complexity of the phenomenon (Nieuwenhuis, 2010a:59). I focused on the complexity of views instead of narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas (Creswell, 2009:8). These complex views were gathered from participants who were members of the ILST namely: the principal, the ILST co-ordinator and a teacher on the ILST with the most amount of learners from CHH in his/her class. Through constant interaction with these participants within the context of their schools, I attempted to generate a pattern of meaning from the data generated within the research field instead of starting with a theory and applying it to the research field (Creswell, 2009:8).

The interpretivist paradigm has limitations that include researcher subjectivity or bias (Nieuwenhuis, 2010a:60) and the unwillingness of participants to open up and share their life. However, despite these limitations I have made an attempt to control bias through exposing every step of my research process and providing comments about how data was interpreted by me and how my background has shaped my interpretations (Creswell, 2009:192). McMillan and Schumacher (2010:6) and Creswell (2009:9) mention that this paradigm gives consideration towards the researchers' professional judgements, perspectives, experiences and background, in the interpretation of data. I have tried my best to spend time on the field in order to develop a relationship with participants prior to interviewing, so that they could be comfortable and open up during the interview.

4.3 RESEARCH METHOD

Qualitative research is defined in Chapter 1 (*cf.* 1.5.3). This approach follows a procedure of exploring and understanding meaning that participants ascribe (Creswell, 2009:4) to the provision of support to learners from CHH. This

understanding was derived by analysing the various contexts of participants as well as their meanings of events and situations relating to providing support to learners from CHH as indicated in paragraphs below (*cf.* 4.7). Below the three key characteristics of qualitative research that were evident in this research study are discussed.

The first characteristic, as explained by Mertler and Charles (2011:192), is that qualitative research is naturalistic in that the researchers go directly to the particular setting of interest in order to collect their data. Since the interest of this study focused on understanding the perceptions of teachers in terms of supporting learners from CHH, I went to the school setting to collect my data because it was the teachers' naturalistic setting.

McMillan and Schumacher (2010:322) explains the second characteristic of this research design as being rich and descriptive. Qualitative research accomplishes the task of providing rich data by making use of words or pictures rather than numbers and every detail is considered to contribute to a better understanding of the phenomenon. Furthermore, it is a design in which the descriptions capture observations in the same form in which they occurred naturally in the particular context and that no detail escapes scrutiny or is taken for granted as to ensure that a complete understanding is obtained (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:322). An example of how this characteristic relates to my study is that during the course of this study one of the participating schools relocated which resulted in the differing of meanings derived, across time and place, from the participants in terms of support provision to learners from CHH within their school. All descriptions pertaining to this relocation, including the different meanings that were derived from the participants from the one premise to the other are described in detail in this chapter (*cf.* 4.5.1).

The third characteristic is that qualitative research is an emergent design (Creswell, 2009:175). This characteristic of the mentioned approach was realised during a pilot study. Initially intending to concentrate on three primary schools and three high schools when entering the research field I came to realise that it was difficult for teachers to identify learners from CHH within the primary schools. This could have

been due to a lack of understanding on what CHH entailed or an identification fault that led to these learners being identified as orphans or just vulnerable children. Therefore, the sites were changed and the focus was then on five high schools within the Sedibeng districts. Furthermore, when entering the field to conduct the research, one of the participating schools suddenly decided to no longer take part in the research. Another school that was willing to take part in the study had to be found. All these processes justified the emergent nature of qualitative research.

4.4 STRATEGY OF ENQUIRY

The definition of strategy of inquiry can be found in Chapter 1 (*cf.* 1.6). Being a phenomenological study, it is therefore characterised by the principles of phenomenology.

As mentioned by Leedy and Ormrod (2014:147) in a phenomenological study the researcher aims at listening closely to the participants as they describe their everyday experiences which are linked to the phenomenon. The advantage of this strategy is that the researcher can administer meaningful cues displayed by the participants in terms of expressions, pauses, questions and side tracks. As the researcher, I listened closely to the participants as they described their experiences in terms of supporting learners from CHH. Lichtman (2011:77) indicates that the essence of the experience is what a phenomenological study looks for. During this interaction with them I could note their expressions and try to understand their experiences through this.

Researchers using this strategy focus entirely on lengthy interviews which resemble an informal conversation, with a sample of approximately 5 to 25 participants, in

which the participants do most of the talking and the researcher does most of the listening (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:147-148). In this study, 15 participants having experience in supporting learners from CHH were identified. Direct information was obtained from these participants by conducting lengthy interviews of about 45 min each.

4.5 SAMPLING

McMillan and Schumacher (2010:326) verify that sampling within the qualitative methodology focuses on a few cases which are studied in depth in order to generate many insights about the topic. The section below explains how the sites and participants were chosen in this research.

4.5.1 Selection of Sites

Sites are selected in order to locate participants who are involved in a certain event. The criterion for the selection of sites was critical and relevant to the research problem and design as suggested by McMillan and Schumacher (2010:326-327). Creswell (2012:209) mentions that within a qualitative study the number of sites sampled for the research vary from one study to the next. This range could be from 1 to 40. In this study five ordinary public high schools were selected. Two of the schools were situated in the same area, two were scattered within the Sedibeng East District. The one school was situated in a township falling under the Sedibeng West district but during the course of this study the school relocated and the new premises allowed them to fall under the Sedibeng East District as well.

All five schools mentioned above were classified as underperforming and all fall under Quintiles 1 or 2 schools. These schools were purposefully selected due to high number of learners from CHH in them. This information was obtained from the district offices. It was explained to them what the nature of research was to substantiate why schools were deeded within their districts that had a high count of learners from CHH. Getting a list of schools with a high number of learners from

CHH allowed me to purposefully select the schools for my research. Hence the participants that were selected could explore the viewpoints and the actions of ILST members regarding support to learners from CHH. This is crucial according to McMillan and Schumacher (2010:327) as they suggest that the sites should be selected correctly so that the viewpoints and actions relative to the study are likely present and can be studied. A short description on each research site herewith follows:

School A

School A is situated in Sharpeville and classified as a quintile 2 school. Many learners from an informal settlement attended in this school. The area where meals were prepared for learners was clean and learners could sit and eat their meal on the steps or pavement. Many learners seemed not to have the proper uniform. The table below indicates the number of learners from CHH in school A.

Table 4.1: Number of learners from CHH in school A

| | 2014 | 2015 |
|------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|
| Roll of learners in school | 734 | 835 |
| Number of Learners from CHH | | |
| Grade | 2014 | 2015 |
| 8 | 0 | 0 |
| 9 | 0 | 0 |
| 10 | 5 | 2 |
| 11 | 4 | 5 |
| 12 | 0 | 2 |
| Total | 9 | 9 |

For the year 2014 and 2015, 9 learners in school A were coming from CHH. There were no learners from CHH in grades 8 and 9 for both 2014 and 2015. It can be

noted from the above table that the weight of learners from CHH were found between grades 10 and 11 in school A.

School B

The school was founded in 2013 so it is still fairly new. It is classified as a quintile 1 school. It is situated on a remote plot in Meyerton. The classrooms were mostly in the form of containers. Learners mainly from the Sicelo Township attend in the school. Since the school was new it looked very neat, there was no graffiti on the walls. The school had a vegetable garden. The area in which the ladies prepare meals for the National School Nutrition Programme was very clean and neat and the area where learners ate was also clean. When looking at the learners at the school, all looked neat and in correct uniform. The number of learners from CHH in school B is indicated in the table below.

Table 4.2: Number of learners from CHH in school B

| | 2014 | 2015 |
|------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|
| Roll of learners in school | 750 | 920 |
| Number of Learners from CHH | | |
| Grade | 2014 | 2015 |
| 8 | 4 | 0 |
| 9 | 1 | 4 |
| 10 | 3 | 1 |
| 11 | 0 | 3 |
| 12 | 0 | 2 |
| Total | 8 | 10 |

In the year 2014, the learners from CHH in school B were spread amongst grades 8 to 10. There were no learners from CHH in grades 11 and 12. In the next year, each

grade had a learner(s) from CHH except for grade 8. No pattern concerning the number of CHH is depicted from this table.

School C

The school was located in Sharpeville and was classified as a quintile 2 school. The school was built from bricks instead of containers. During lunch time learners ate their food along the corridors of the classrooms and after lunch there was a lot of mess and wastage of food left behind. The room where meals were prepared for the NSNP was small. The table below specifies the number learners from CHH in school C.

Table 4.3: Number of learners from CHH in school C

| | 2014 | 2015 |
|------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|
| Roll of learners in school | 1246 | 1297 |
| Number of Learners from CHH | | |
| Grade | 2014 | 2015 |
| 8 | 1 | 0 |
| 9 | 0 | 0 |
| 10 | 3 | 3 |
| 11 | 3 | 3 |
| 12 | 1 | 3 |
| Total | 8 | 9 |

The total number of learners from CHH in school C did not change much between 2014 and 2015. In fact, the number of learners increased by one learner. In 2015 the learners from CHH were evenly spread in grade 10, 11 and 12.

School D

School D was situated in Steel Park, next to a railway line. When looking at the school from outside you could notice holes in the fencing around the school. Many classroom windows were broken. Just at the entrance of the school, in a building that looked like a small hall, was an area where meals were prepared for the NSNP. This area looked clean. Learners who were beneficiaries of the NSNP had no specified place to sit and eat, they had to find places on the pavement or steps. The table below shows the number of learners from CHH in school D.

Table 4.4: Number of learners from CHH in school D

| | 2014 | 2015 |
|------------------------------------|-----------|-----------|
| Roll of learners in school | 493 | 482 |
| Number of Learners from CHH | | |
| Grade | 2014 | 2015 |
| 8 | 0 | 0 |
| 9 | 1 | 0 |
| 10 | 3 | 1 |
| 11 | 2 | 6 |
| 12 | 5 | 5 |
| Total | 11 | 12 |

School D was the smallest school in this research. However, the school had the most learners from CHH. Most of the learners coming from CHH are in the higher grades, grades 11 and 12.

School E

Initially this school was situated in the Boipatong Township. The classrooms were built with bricks. The school was very cramped as two schools were sharing one premise. Classrooms were overcrowded due to lack of space. The place where

meals were prepared for the learners was very small and learners had to find their own space on the premises to eat.

The school was later situated on the outskirts of the township, allowing it to fall under the Sedibeng East district. The new premises were formed with container classes and the school was classified as quintile 1. The school had more space and more classrooms in the new premises. There was grass for learners to sit and eat and the place where meals were prepared was more spacious and clean. Due to more classrooms, learners were then fewer in the class compared to when they were at their previous site. Below is a table indicating the number of learners from CHH in school E.

Table 4.5: Number of learners from CHH in school E

| | 2014 | 2015 |
|------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|
| Roll of learners in school | 1193 | 1066 |
| Number of Learners from CHH | | |
| Grade | 2014 | 2015 |
| 8 | 0 | 0 |
| 9 | 0 | 0 |
| 10 | 6 | 0 |
| 11 | 2 | 5 |
| 12 | 0 | 1 |
| Total | 8 | 6 |

School E had a total of 8 learners from CHH in 2014, the number of learners decreased in 2015 by 2. From the table it is clear that in this school there were no learners from CHH in the lower grades, grades 8 and 9.

4.5.2 Participant Selection

Two types of sampling methods were used for this research: criterion sampling and stratified purposive sampling. Mertens (2010:322) explains that with criterion sampling, the researcher sets up a criterion and thereafter identifies cases that meet the criterion. The use of criteria sampling was useful in terms of quality assurance. The criterion that each participant needed to meet for this study was that they had to be members of the ILST. Creswell (2013:158) mentions that in criterion sampling all participants should meet some criterion. The criterion used to recruit participants, included that the participant be a principal of a school; or a teacher with the highest number of learners from CHH in his/her class and or a co-ordinator of the ILST.

Purposive sampling as indicated by Mertler and Charles (2011:103) is a method of selecting certain segments of the population for a particular study. I used my own discretion to select the segments which should be included. This type of sampling is particularly appropriate for qualitative research whereby making generalisations to the entire population is not the intention. A strategy of purposeful sampling is stratified purposeful sampling. Leedy and Ormrod (2014:277) define this strategy as a method which illustrates the characteristics of specific subgroups to facilitate the drawing of comparisons by choosing participants based on key dimensions. Thereafter, potential cases are then separated into 'strata' which contains variants of the phenomenon. In this research I intentionally selected members of the ILST within schools, with the intention of collecting data from three strata. These three strata included principals, the ILST co-ordinators and a teacher on the ILST with the highest number of learners from CHH in his/her class. Collecting data from the three strata allowed me to compare the findings given by the three strata. The table below illustrates the participants who took part in this research.

Table 4.6: Total number of participants

| School | Number of participants | Description of participants |
|--------|------------------------|--|
| A | 3 | <p>The principal</p> <p>The ILST co-ordinator</p> <p>A member of the ILST with the highest number of learners from CHH</p> |
| B | 3 | <p>The principal</p> <p>The ILST co-ordinator</p> <p>A member of the ILST with the highest number of learners from CHH</p> |
| C | 3 | <p>The principal</p> <p>The ILST co-ordinator</p> <p>A member of the ILST with the highest number of learners from CHH</p> |
| D | 3 | <p>The principal</p> <p>The ILST co-ordinator</p> <p>A member of the ILST with the highest number of learners from CHH</p> |
| E | 3 | <p>The principal</p> <p>The ILST co-ordinator</p> <p>A member of the ILST with the highest number of learners from CHH</p> |

Out of all the participants as indicated above, the gender split was as follows: 7 males and 8 females. Males were from the following schools: 2 (School A), 1 (School B), 1 (School C), 1 (School D) and 2 (School E). Females were from the following schools: 1 (School A), 2 (School B), 2 (School c), 2 (School D) and 1 (School E).

4.6 DATA COLLECTION STRATEGIES

Making use of a qualitative approach, I was the primary instrument in the process of data collection. Thus, in order to gather rich and valuable data, I had to become directly involved in the research field, which in this case was the school setting.

The choice of methods used during the data collection process is very important as it should generate data which will answer the research question concerned (Atkins & Wallace, 2012:137). Atkins and Wallace (2012:137) mention the different data collection strategies, namely: interviews, particularly semi structured interviews and documents to generate data.

4.6.1 Semi structured Interviews

Mertens (2010:352) explains that interviews are primarily used to fully understand a person's impressions or experiences. The advantage of this strategy of data collection is that it creates a full range and depth of information. By using interviews I wanted to develop a wide understanding of the various support strategies that the ILST members used within their schools in order to support learners specifically from CHH.

A disadvantage of this technique is that some participants may be intimidated by my presence as the interviewer and this could bias their responses (Wilson & Fox, 2013:119, Mertens, 2010:352). During the research study, I have noticed that many of the participants assumed that I was from the district, which somehow prevented them from opening up. In order to overcome this, I tried to develop a good relationship with them, assuring them that I was not from the district and that I was a normal teacher just like them. The idea of being on the same level as the participants

would probably allow them to be more open. It was also explained to them that whatever they told me would be held entirely confidential. Prior to the interviews there was several meetings between me and the participants during which time informal general conversations were held. Establishing this kind of trust allowed me to move from being a complete stranger to them to someone they could converse openly with.

The type of interviews used in particular was one-on-one semi structured interviews and it was used to gain an understanding of the participant's personal experiences with the phenomenon and to make meaning of their subjective experiences in supporting learners from CHH. Mertler and Charles (2011:196) assert that this type of interviewing is often the best when wanting to gather truly qualitative data.

Due to the fact that the aim of this study was to gain a detailed picture of ILST members' perceptions, feelings and thoughts about the provision of support to learners from CHH, semi structured interviews were best suited as they are created to gain a complete picture of the participants perceptions of a particular phenomenon (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delpont, 2005:296). An interview schedule was used in which topics could be selected in advance in the form of predetermined questions, however, during the flow of the interview, I had the leisure of deciding the sequence and wording of the questions.

Along with the questions, the interview schedule contained a space for me to make notes of responses by the participants. Open ended questions were also used so that the participants could express themselves freely (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:355; De Vos *et al.*, 2005: 296). The questions that were part of the interview schedule were on support programmes at schools, support from outside the schools, how they identified learners from CHH, adherence to ILST policies and questions about the functioning of the ILST.

Semi structured interviews allowed me and the participants much more flexibility as I was able to probe on interesting ideas that emerged during the interview and the

participants could clarify and elaborate on aspects so that a fuller picture of the phenomenon could be created. A copy of the interview questions used to guide the interview is attached at the back of this document (*cf.* Appendix 5).

4.6.1.1 Conducting the semi structured interviews

Being a novice researcher, the initial part of my interview process started with me reading numerous research books on how to conduct a productive semi structured interview. The knowledge that was gained from these books helped me to be more prepared during the interviews with my participants.

I met with each participant at their preferred date, time and venue. McMillan and Schumacher (2010:358) recommend that on the onset of the interviews it is a wise step to state the purpose and focus of the research. So, before commencing the participants were assured of their identity protection and I provided them with an overview of possible discussion topics. Interest in support programmes for learners from CHH at their school was particularly highlighted. I was also curious about their experience in supporting learners from CHH and I wanted more information on the functioning of the ILST at their schools and about factors enhancing and hampering the function of the ILST.

I always started my interviews with a joke or small talk as I thought it would break the ice and allow the interview to flow in a more informal and casual way so that the participant could feel more relaxed and at ease.

I mentioned to them that I would be relying completely on their information for my study and asked permission if I could please record our interview because I wanted to listen to their responses instead of me writing everything down. On gaining their permission to record, I started. Recording the interview is supported by McMillan and Schumacher (2010:360) who argue that it ensures completeness of the verbal communication and provides material for reliability checks. The fact that I recorded the interviews did not stop me from taking notes during the interviews. Notes were

taken on nonverbal communication cues to help me reformulate questions and probes.

During the interview I tried my best to maintain rapport by showing them my genuine interest in what they were saying. I usually smiled and kept eye contact with them. I made use of three types of probes highlighted by Nieuwenhuis (2010b:89) during my interviews, namely detailed oriented probes, elaboration probes and lastly clarification probes.

Detailed oriented probes were used when I wanted to understand the: who, what and why of the participants' responses. For example, one of my participants mentioned that the school received sanitary packs for girls as a support strategy. Being vague as is, I probed so that I could understand where these packs were coming from, who supplied them to the school and what the procedure was after their delivery. Clarification probes were also used during my interviews and I usually paraphrased what I thought I heard in order for me to get the correct confirmation of what the participant really meant.

Nieuwenhuis (2010b:88) states that good interviewers are good listeners who do not dominate the interview. I tried my best to be more of a listener than a talker and this helped me get maximum information out of my participants. I noticed that at many times during the interviews a little silence stimulated a thought to spark in their heads and more often these were valuable thoughts. I also was not too hasty, I allowed them time to think so that they could recall experiences or so that they could structure the manner in which they wanted to respond. I thought this was important because personally when I answer questions I like to gather my thoughts and think about what I am going to say first. People are different and while others are good with words, some people need some time to think about their responses first.

At the end of the interview I thanked them and explained to them that their data was to be used to for my research. I request them that if I needed clarification on certain aspects, to be kind enough to assist me.

During the process of my data collection I have come across obstacles, this reminded me of the emergent nature of qualitative research. On few occasions, especially with the principals, I had to re-schedule interview appointments due to the fact that other duties came up which needed immediate attention. When this happened I also ensured that I maintained rapport with them and willingly accepted another scheduled time. I make mention of this because at times I had to re-schedule about four appointments before conducting the interview.

4.6.2 Documents

Creswell (2012:223) states that the use of documents in qualitative research is seen as a valuable source of information. Document review is usually used when information about how a particular programme operates. It is a form of data collection that does not interrupt the programme or the participant's routine in the programme (Mertens, 2010:352). I wanted to formulate an understanding of how the ILST supports learners from CHH through gathering their policy documents and evidence of support provision. Obtaining documents allowed me to administer whether identification and support of learners from CHH was in fact done at the schools or not. Other documents pertained to support programmes including the NSNP, school uniform programme, food gardening, and all other school support initiatives.

The detailed analyses of documents were addressed in Chapter 5, however, I found that two schools were lacking ILST policies. One of the schools had evidence that sanitary packs were distributed amongst the female learners (*cf.* Appendix 8). All schools had evidence that identification of learners from CHH was done at their respective schools (Appendix 8). One school had a list of learners that were on the Adopt-A-Learner programme (Appendix 8).

4.6.3 Data Collection Process

In order to commence with my research, I had to first seek permission from the Gauteng Department of Education (GDE). I sent in my application form along with a copy of my proposal attached. As mentioned earlier my intention was to conduct my research at three primary schools and three high schools, therefore I stated that on my application form. A few days later I received confirmation granting me permission to conduct my research at the requested schools. After conducting a pilot study and deciding to change the sites for research to five mainstream high schools, I corresponded with the GDE so that they could be aware of the change.

I had to approach each school so that I could get permission from the principals to conduct my research at their schools. During this time, I gave the principals briefing of what the research was all about. The principal served as the gatekeeper, meaning he or she could grant permission for accessing the setting and participants (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:351). Although the principal was the gatekeeper, participants were at liberty to choose whether to participate in the research or not. Once getting the principals' verbal approvals to act as participating schools for my research, I personally delivered the letters requesting permission.

Apart from the principal, I requested the ILST co-ordinator and a member of the ILST with the highest number of learners in his/her class to participate in the study. I had no problem in getting their permission to participate in the research. After getting their permission they had to sign a consent form.

Once permission was granted by the gatekeeper, I started the process of building a relationship with the principals, co-ordinators of the ILST as well as members of the ILST. Gaining their trust took quite a while since trust cannot be gained overnight. After meeting with the participants on an informal basis to gain their trust, I notified each participant that I would be at their school for a while in order for me to collect data for my study. I spent three days at each school to conduct the interviews. This was apart from the time spent at the schools trying to build a relationship with the

participants. When I interviewed the co-ordinator of each school I requested to have a look at their files in order for me to collect the documents. This did not take more time as the schools allowed me to make the necessary copies of documents that I needed, at their premises after conducting the interviews with the ILST co-ordinators. During the analysis I realised I needed clarification on certain aspects and I needed to fill some gaps in my data. Therefore, I had to go back into the field to conduct more interviews. This took me one week.

I had to deal with one school at a time, starting with School A, I met with the principal discussed a date, time and venue of his preference. Thereafter I did the same with the co-ordinator and the ILST member. This process was repeated with all the participants of all five schools.

4.6.3.2 Data capturing

In order to record the data from interviews I made use of an iPad. It was decided to record the interview in order for me not to have to write down the responses while trying to understand what the participant was saying. Not paying close attention while the participant was talking, could also seem rude. The main reason for recording the interviews was to capture everything that the participants said. After each interview, the audio file was named as follows: A1, A2, A3 - the A referred to the school. Number one referred to the principal, number two to the ILST co-ordinator and number three to the ILST member. This made it easier to store the data for later use. The audio files were transferred from the iPad to a laptop and onto a CD. After analysis it was kept in a locked cupboard along with the transcripts of this research. During the recording of the interviews, necessary notes were also taken. Attention was also paid to non-verbal communication. The notes that I made while in the field assisted in probing purposes.

4.6.3.3 Transcribing

McMillan and Schumacher (2010:360) mention that immediately following the interview, it needs to be transcribed. This is beneficial since valuable information is then documented while still fresh in the memory. This procedure assisted me in processing the data so that a mental picture could be created.

The data was transcribed verbatim, because according to Mertens (2010:424) this is an excellent opportunity for the researcher to actively engage with the research material from the start of data collection. Furthermore, Mertens (2010:424) explains that the act of transcribing is an interactive process. This means that the researcher needs to enter a process of deep listening, analysis and interpretation. In order to transcribe the interviews verbatim I had to ensure that I listened carefully to each interview and typed word for word everything that was said during the interviews. After typing each sentence I would re-listen to every statement to ensure that they were typed correctly.

In the paragraphs to follow (*cf.* 4.7.1), an explanation of why second interviews had to be conducted with certain participants is given. The transcripts of the first set of interviews came to a total of 240 pages, while the second set of interviews were 161 pages. The 401 pages of the transcripts could not be attached to this dissertation as the document would be too big, transcripts from two schools are attached (*cf.* Appendix 6). The names used on the transcripts were pseudonyms and not the participants' real names

4.7 DATA ANALYSIS

Atkins and Wallace (2012:139) describe qualitative data analysis as an ongoing cycle which in fact can be embedded into daily practice. This prevents the process from becoming too overwhelming. Content analysis as specified by Nieuwenhuis (2010c:101) is usually used for the analysis of books, brochures, written documents, transcripts, news reports and visual media. Content analysis was used in this

research study. Mertens (2010:424) explains that there are certain steps that need to be followed when conducting content analysis. The first step involves preparing the data for analysis including transcribing the data and ascribing a number to each participant. Creswell (2009:185-190) and Nieuwenhuis (2010c:104-113) indicate the next step as pertaining to reading through the data and reflecting on the overall meaning of the data. Thereafter the coding process starts by ascribing codes to significant parts in the data (Creswell, 2009:185-190; Nieuwenhuis, 2010c:104-113). The last step as suggested by Creswell (2009:185-190) and Nieuwenhuis (2010c:104-113) is making meaning of the data.

As indicated earlier, qualitative analysis involves an inductive approach. This means that conclusions and theories are developed from the data (Mertler & Charles, 2011:200). Inductive coding was used during the analysis process, because the codes were developed by me through direct examination of the data. In other words I developed the codes as I coded the data.

Creswell (2012:261) mention that major analysis of qualitative data involves coding the data. Coding implies that a text is reduced to descriptions and themes of people, places or events. Two types of coding techniques were used during the analysis process, namely open and axial coding.

The open coding was done by breaking the transcripts down into different fragments which were labelled according to extensive lists of codes. At times the same fragment could have a variety of different codes attached to it. While making use of open coding I came up with descriptive codes without restricting myself. I wanted to uncover chunks of meaning from the data. I examined the transcript line by line asking myself what the participant was saying and assigning a code next to the text. During this process I maintained a very open mind in order for me to discover the unexpected while at the same time became aware of aspects that did not allow for final ending. I show how I coded my data in the appendices (Appendix 7).

After the process of open coding I moved on to axial coding. Evans (2013:166) describes the process of axial coding as linking together codes that were developed during the process of open coding. This allowed me to search for connections and links between various open codes that related to a certain category. For example, in a category of the “uniform programme” I looked for clues about, when learners were measured and when uniforms were delivered to schools. This enabled me to formulate a sub-theme on uniform programme.

4.7.1 Analysis of interview data

I made use of three stages during the analysis of my interviews. During the first stage I wanted to explore the general sense of the raw data. Creswell (2012:243) is in fact in accord with this first stage. My first step was to print out my transcripts, I did this so that I could have a hard copy of the interviews because I prefer reading on a hard copy as opposed to reading on computer. I started to read through each transcript several times, in doing so I explored the data thus, making sense of it. During this process I realised that I was able to heighten my awareness of key features and I also became aware that I was lacking details on specific support programmes at schools as the responses were not clear enough. These questions that needed clarity on were unique to each participant. Hence, I compiled few guiding questions for my participants to ensure that I do not forget what I needed clarification on. I approached the schools again so that I could interview nine participants again in order for me to get clarity and more details in my data. These nine participants were A3, B1, B2, B3, D1, D2, E1, E2 and E3. This process allowed me to get extra valuable information as well as clarify certain aspects from the first interview.

After gaining more information, and going through the same process with the new data. I started to ascribe open codes to the data line by line. I did this with all the interviews. These codes were created directly from the transcripts. After coding all the transcripts, I decided to write each code on a post-it. I then stuck them all over

one wall at my home. Having the codes on post-it helped me to then physically group similar codes together to form categories. This process helped me to visualise how often a certain aspect was brought up by the participants. After the grouping of similar codes, I could then develop categories to each group. The categories that I developed came from the text. I wrote the 22 categories on different post-its and stuck it above each group of codes. I was now able to see if there was a mistake during the development of categories. During this process I rearranged some codes so that they fitted to the correct category. The categories were then all over my wall with the underlying codes, giving me a visual representation of the categories.

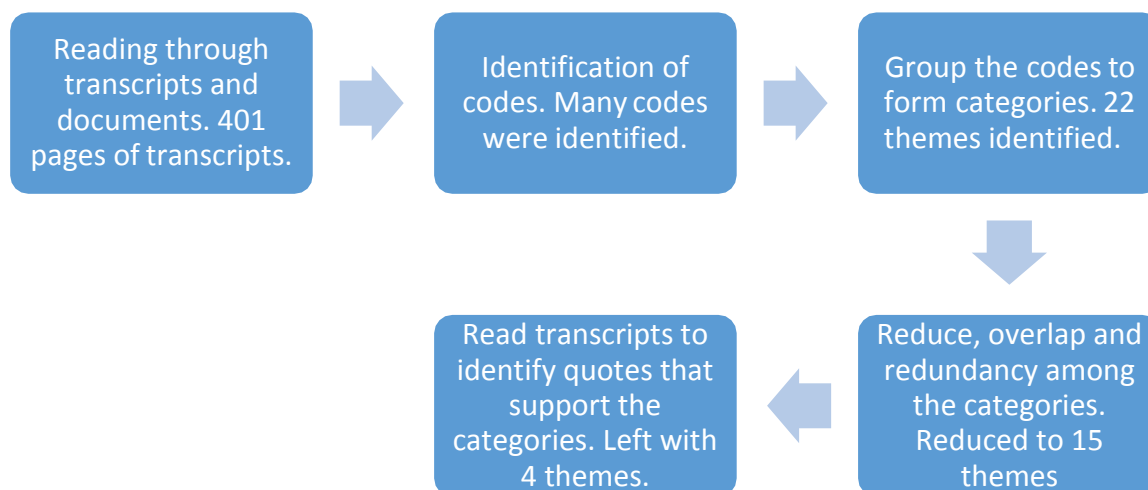
Thereafter I read the transcripts again to check for verbatim statements that support each of the categories. The categories or themes broke the data into main ideas. I discussed the final themes and verbatim statements with my supervisor to check if they were in line. After a little bit of rearranging and rewording of themes this marked the end of my first stage.

During the second stage I worked on my themes. I added the supporting quotations under each theme. This was a bit of a confusing process because I had to rearrange many verbatim statements until I was content they were correctly placed under the relating theme. I had to ensure that all the verbatim statements addressed my research question and I had to make sure that no data was lost.

The third and last stage was considering the course of action in terms of the analysis. This included aspects such as how the themes will be structured and how best the theme could be presented so that there was a logical flow that created understanding of the phenomenon for the reader.

The many pages of transcripts could not be attached to this document as it would be too big. However, I have attached transcripts of data from two schools (Appendix 6). Below is a diagram illustrating the coding process in inductive analysis.

Figure 4.2: The coding process in inductive analysis



The data yielded five themes as indicated below:

- Programmes to support learners from CHH: (*cf.* 5.3) – This theme did not come as a surprise to me because being a teacher I was aware of certain support programmes supporting learners from CHH. What surprised me was the different initiatives that schools take, above the national programmes in order to support learners from CHH.
- Identification of learners from CHH (*cf.* 5.3) – This theme described the process taken by teachers to identify learners from CHH. What surprised me here was how teachers use other forms of identification techniques to identify learners such as their behaviour and appearance, over and above the statistics taken at the beginning of the year for the department.
- Policies guiding support (*cf.* 5.3) - Although policies are a big part of implementation of programmes, this came as a surprise to me as I realised schools are not developing their own policies guiding them with the implementation of national policies.

- Functioning of the ILST (*cf.* 5.3) – I realised that leadership plays a big role in the functioning of the ILST and what surprised me was that member of the ILST are not playing their part, thus weakening the performance of the team and overburdening the co-ordinator.

4.7.2 Analysis of data from documents

Official records and documents were another source of information gathered from this research study. McMillan and Schumacher (2010:362) explain that the analysis of documents requires descriptive data about the production or acquisition of the documents. It consists of determining the documents' authenticity and accuracy in order to identify the meaning of the document in the social setting.

Prior to the collection of these school documents I had to seek permission first in order for me to review their documents. I requested and studied some documents present in each school's ILST file and others that were kept in other files in the school. This allowed me to gain an impression of the overall functioning of the ILST. I also analysed the documents providing evidence of identification of learners who were at risk, focusing particularly on learners from CHH. This process made me aware if identification of learners was done in the five participating schools because the schools had supporting documents which showed that they were identifying learners. These documents are attached in the appendices (*cf.* Appendix 8).

Documents pertaining to the years 2014 and 2015 were analysed. I read through the documents selecting information relevant to my study. The documents I looked for had to be pertaining to support interventions. After the selection of relevant information, I corroborated the data found in the documents with that of the interviews. The data from documents was also subject to content analysis. In chapter 5 (*cf.* 5.3) I included information from the following documents: Identification lists used to identify vulnerable learners at the beginning of the year, evidence of receiving toiletry packs from Social development at school D and school D's

document dividing grade 12 learners among teachers for the adopt-a-learner programme,

4.8 TRUSTWORTHINESS

Nieuwenhuis (2010b:80) explains that in quantitative research reliability and validity are crucial aspects. This is mainly because the researcher makes use of research instruments to collect data. In qualitative research the researcher acts as the data gathering instrument. So while quantitative researchers refer to validity and reliability, qualitative researchers prefer credibility and trustworthiness of research. Lincoln and Guba (1985:290) mention that trustworthiness is simply the process in which the researcher can persuade his or her readers that his or her findings are worth paying attention to and worth taking account of. To ensure trustworthiness throughout this study it was imperative for me to address transferability, credibility, dependability and confirmability.

4.8.1 Transferability

Transferability can be defined as enabling readers of the research to make judgements based on similarities and differences when making a comparison between the research situation and a situation which they would like to transfer the findings to. Mertens (2010:310) claims that qualitative researchers have a task to provide detailed and thick descriptions about the setting so that readers can understand the contextual variables taking place in that setting. I tried to accumulate detailed descriptive data to allow for transferability of the study. This descriptive data included descriptions of each site at which the research was conducted and of the participants of this research. This intended to give the reader an opportunity to identify with the setting in which the research was conducted. Furthermore, Mertens (2010:4) asserts that qualitative researchers emphasize the complete context in which the research was conducted in order for readers to judge whether this study's results can be transferred to their own situations.

4.8.2 Credibility

Credibility as explained by De Vos *et al.* (2005:346) is the alternative to internal validity. The goal is to show the reader that the research was conducted in such a way that ensures that the subject was accurately identified and described. I assured credibility of this research by collecting data from multiple sources, I did not only rely on one data source. This is known as triangulation. I corroborated data from the interviews and the documents. I have an audit trail with details of how the data was collected, from which sites, what data was collected and how it was analysed.

4.8.3 Dependability

Dependability is the parallel to reliability in quantitative research. According to Mertler and Charles (2011:199), dependability refers to the need for the researcher to account for the ever- changing context within which research occurs. It was therefore my responsibility to describe the changes that occurred in the setting and how these changes affected my approach to the study. I noted all the changes that occurred during the process of this research starting from the changes in primary to secondary schools, to the fact that I had to go back to the field for clarity on the data.

4.8.4 Confirmability

De Vos *et al.* (2005:347) acknowledge that confirmability refers to objectivity, which means that the influence of the researcher's judgements is minimised. Mertens (2010:260) explains that confirmability ensures that the researcher's data and interpretation of the data is not just figments of the researcher's imagination. I asked another Masters student in the same field as I am, to code my transcripts so that I could compare the codes. I also went back to the participants and gave them their analysed transcripts so that they could check if the data was misinterpreted or not.

4.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

When drawing a comparison between qualitative research and quantitative research, qualitative research will likely be more personally intrusive than quantitative research, this is why ethical considerations should be taken into account when conducting qualitative research (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:338). Ethical issues relate to policies regarding informed consent, deception, confidentiality, anonymity, privacy and caring.

Permission to Conduct Research- The first step was to get ethical approval from my university. The OPTENTIA Ethics Committee at the North-West University (VTC) reviewed my proposal and granted approval to undergo with research. My number in the approval letter was OPT-2014-013, the letter of approval is attached in the appendices (*cf.* Appendix 3).

Permission to conduct research was imperative to be obtained from the Gauteng Department of Education (GDE) since my research involved working with schools. The GDE requested a research proposal from me and I had to specify which schools I intended to do research in which districts. As my application was prior to doing a pilot study, I mentioned that I was to conduct research at three primary and three high schools. The relative changes in terms of my final sites for research was communicated with the GDE. Permission was granted a few days later with a request from the GDE that the findings of the study be shared with them on completion of the study. Therefore, a final copy of this dissertation will be submitted to the GDE and the participating schools will be informed about the findings in a meeting that will be held with them after this dissertation has been approved by the North-West University. The preliminary findings of this research were also disseminated in a Teaching Practice Symposium hosted by the School of Education Science in October 2015. The letter of approval by the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct research at the schools attached (*cf.* Appendix 1).

After obtaining the go ahead, principals of the five high schools were approached and informed about the nature of the research. The principals were presented with a letter of introduction (*cf.* Appendix 4) as well as the letter from the GDE granting permission to do research at their school (*cf.* Appendix 1). Permission was sought from the individual participants to conduct the interviews and an introduction letter was given to each participant (*cf.* Appendix 4).

The principals were informed that my research was not going to disrupt the smooth running of the schools due to the fact that interviews were to be held after teaching hours.

Informed consent- On engaging with the participants I had to initially introduce them to the research that I intended to conduct. I also explained to them the method of data collection. I gave them a chance to ask me any questions regarding the research and their role. Thereafter, I allowed the participants some time to think about what I had told them regarding the research and their role. I gave them time to consider their ethical rights before they could make their decision. This afforded them the opportunity to have an understanding of the study before giving their permission. I also made them aware that they were not obligated to take part. After a week I went back to them and upon getting their consent to participate I assured them of confidentiality regarding the information they were to share and anonymity regarding their personal identities and those of their schools. The names of the participants were coded by using alphabetical and numerical codes, instead of the participants' names. Schools' names and emblems were erased from all documents that were collected. Learners from CHH whose names appeared as evidence for identification, could be from any school in the Gauteng province. The lists had surnames, which were also erased.

No Deception- Mertens (2010:345) explains that deception and invasion of privacy should be given critical consideration when planning research. The data was not fabricated in this research. All the data indicated was derived from the responses of

the research participants by means of interviews and documentation. All the participants gave their consent to the recording of the interview. No data was manipulated to support personal position.

No Plagiarism- McMillan and Schumacher (2010:124) state that plagiarism is avoided when one gives appropriate credit to the contributions of others. All the data used from other sources for this research was clearly indicated and authentic.

4.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter explained how the whole empirical research took place from beginning to end. Starting with the research paradigm, research design and research method. Aspects that allowed for the legitimacy of this study were also considered within this chapter, aspects such as ethical issues, selection of sites and participants and trustworthiness. The chapter that follows looks at the analysis and interpretation on data.

CHAPTER 5

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Creswell (2013:179) explains that the process of qualitative data analysis is much more than approaching the analysis of image and text data. It includes organising the data, doing a preliminary read through of the data, coding and organising themes, representing the data and finally developing an interpretation of the data.

Chapter 3 described the methodology that was utilised in this research. It also described in detail the process of analysis that took place. In this chapter, the data collected by means of interviews and documents is analysed and interpreted and the representation of the analysis and interpretation is what unfolds in this chapter.

5.2 PROFILE OF THE PARTICIPANTS

School A:

Participant 1 (A1) - (male) Principal

The principal has been in the education sector for 35 years, as he started teaching in 1980. He had a B.Ed. majoring in Mathematics. He taught grades 10 to 12 for 24 years and has been principal for 11 years.

Participant 2 (A2) - (male) Coordinator

The coordinator was a middle aged African man who was appointed as deputy principal. He had been teaching for 19 years. He taught grades 8 and 10. He worked previously at a school in the Free State. The year he started at this school was the year that he formed an ILST committee. He served on ILST at his previous school for 4 years and has been coordinator of the ILST at this school for 2 years now. He was completing his honours degree in management.

Participant 3 (A3) - (female) Member

This teacher was also working in a school in the Free State. She had her honours in learner support. She was teaching for 18 years. She taught grade 10 to 12. She had a lot of strategies and techniques from her previous school that she often proposed to the ILST to enhance the support provision. She had been an ILST member for 4 years.

School B:

Participant 1 (B1) – (male) Principal

He had been leading the school since it started in 2013. At his previous school he was deputy principal for 7 years. He had an honours degree in management and when he was teaching, he was a Mathematics teacher teaching grade 12s. He was also on the board of Albinism South Africa and has adopted 2 Albino children.

Participant 2 (B2) – (female) Coordinator

A lady in her late thirties, she was an HOD for Life Orientation. She had been serving on the ILST since the start of the school in 2013 and she had been the coordinator for this period as well. She had a B.Ed., majoring in the subjects Life Orientation and Mathematics. She taught grades 9 and 10.

Participant 3 (B3) – (female) Member

She was in charge of the HIV learners and the feeding scheme. She was also in charge of maintaining the vegetable garden. She arranged trips for learners to attend universities and FET colleges so that they could be motivated. She had been on the ILST for 5 years including the years served at her previous school. She did not have any learner support qualifications.

School C:

Participant 1 (C1) – (male) Principal

He had a B.Ed. in senior education and an ACE in leadership and management. He had been teaching for 28 years and had been principal for 10 years. He taught grades 9 to 12.

Participant 2 (C2) – (female) Coordinator

She had been in teaching for 30 years and the coordinator for 3 years. She had a diploma in special education. She taught grades 8 and 9.

Participant 3 (C3) – (female) Member

This member was on the ILST but lived very far from the school. Due to transport issues it prohibited her from reaching her full capacity on the team. She had her honours in learner support. She had been a member of the ILST for 2 years now. She taught grade 10 and 11.

School D:

Participant 1 (D1) – (male) Principal

He had his honours degree in management and was studying towards a law degree. He was appointed to be principal in 2013, so he was a fairly new leader but he had been a principal at another school for 7 years. While he was teaching he taught grade 12 learners.

Participant 2 (D2) – (female) Coordinator

She was an elderly African lady. She was an HOD for Mathematics and was very passionate about learners. She knew most learners and could tell what was going on in their lives. She had been teaching for 28 years. She taught grades 11 and 12. She

had been the coordinator of the ILST for 2 years but she did not have any learner support qualifications.

Participant 3 (D3) – (female) Member

She had a lot of passion for the learners. She was also hands-on with the learners. She had been teaching for 25 years. She had been a member of the ILST for 2 years. She taught Life Orientation and Mathematics. She had been teaching grades 10 to 12.

School E:

Participant 1 (E1) – (male) Principal

He had been teaching for 25 years and was principal for 8 years. He was down to earth and talked to learners as a parent instead of the principal. He had a B.Ed. in senior education and his honours in leadership and management. When he was teaching, he taught grades 9 to 12.

Participant 2 (E2) – (male) Coordinator

He was also the deputy principal and the coordinator of the SAT (School Assessment Team). On the first interview he didn't have much information to share with me. It seemed as though the change in districts helped with the improvement of the ILST because he could give me a lot information during our second interview. He had been the ILST coordinator for 4 years. He was in the process of completing his honours in learner support however, he did not complete. He taught grades 8 and 9 currently.

Participant 3 (E3) – (female) Member

A young teacher that was very passionate about learners. She had her honours in learner support. She was also in charge of the feeding scheme. She was hands on

with the learners. She was only serving on the ILST for 1 and a half years. She taught grades 10 learners.

5.3 RESULTS OF INTERVIEWS

The following results are related to the research question on the perceptions of ILST members regarding support given to learners from CHH.

THEME 1: PROGRAMMES TO SUPPORT LEARNERS FROM CHH

NATIONAL PROGRAMMES:

National School Nutrition Programme

About nine participants referred to this programme as an existing programme at their schools. For the purpose of this study, the programme is referred to as the feeding scheme, since this was the term the participants also used.

*“So fortunately even here at school we have what you call a **feeding scheme** (B2); then the **feeding scheme** usually has a **soft porridge** (D2); we have the **feeding scheme** (A3); we do have the **feeding scheme at school** (D3); because, remember the department has also this **feeding scheme** (E1); what we are doing as a school here, we are **providing them with the food** (C1); we are supporting them as I’m mentioning the fact that even the **feeding scheme** (C3); normally at school we have that particular programme of the Government by saying we must **provide food** (D1); we having the **feeding scheme at school** (E2).”*

It can be applauded that the participating schools, especially the secondary schools, had feeding schemes as one of their programmes. Learners from poor communities do not have enough food, as mentioned in the literature (Rosa, 2004:4, Ruiz-Casares, 2009:244, Nel *et al.*, 2011:46) (*cf.* 2.6.1.1). Research highlights the importance of nutrition on academic performance (DoE, 2009:2) (*cf.* 3.5.2.1).

These nine participants indicated that the feeding scheme at their schools catered for all the learners. One participant also mentioned that the school was struggling, meaning that it was situated at a poor community.

*“The school has been **identified first by the Department** because we are falling under **quintile 1** which shows that this is a **poverty struggling area**, it shows that **every learner at school must go to the feeding scheme (B1)**; in fact **each and every learner** is entitled to be fed at school (E1); that is why they said the **whole school must benefit** from the feeding scheme (E3); this feeding scheme is **for the whole school (B2)**; the **whole school must go** to the feeding scheme (A3); the feeding scheme is for **all the learners (D1)**; but the **food is for all learners (E2)**; the feeding scheme caters for **every learner in the school (D2)**; it is for the **whole school (C3)**.”*

The feeding of all learners in a school without discrimination is of importance. This could mean that learners from CHH are also accommodated. If all learners are provided with food, being shy in accessing the food would be eliminated. Literature indicates that all learners in quintile 1, 2 and 3 primary and high schools are provided with food (DoE, 2009:1) (*cf.* 3.5.2.1).

Schools A, B, C and E served breakfast and lunch to the learners. Breakfast was served during the first break which is short and lunch served a little later during a longer break. Six participants acknowledged the serving of 2 meals a day.

*“We make sure they get **breakfast and lunch** (A3); they receive **two meals** because **in the morning** they have to take **porridge** and at **lunch** they are having a meal (B1); we also have a **short break at 10:00 which is fifteen minutes**. Sometimes they get **soft porridge**, because we have other learners that are **taking medication and then lunch at 11:45** (B2); they will get the **cereal from 10:00 to 10:15**. We have got the **short break**. Then from **11:45 till 12:45** then we have got **lunch** (B3); it is **two meals, breakfast and lunch** (C3); learners are getting **breakfast and lunch** (E3).”*

Serving two meals a day help learners with, first they do not worry about being hungry and second, it helps them with concentration in class. This is confirmed by the literature which indicates that with the implementation of the NSNP, there has been an improvement in learners' concentration in class (DoE, 2009:1) (cf. 3.5.2.1). Few years ago only primary schools benefited from this programme but the progress made in ensuring that learners in high school also become beneficiaries is satisfactory.

School D was the only school in which they stopped serving breakfast, according to the principal the learners did not like the porridge so the department stopped supplying it and the coordinator of the ILST confirmed that only 1 meal was served.

*“**No it is once a day, for lunch time**. Actually the Department wanted us to **give** them something like the **porridge**, but they **don't like that**, so **we don't serve it**. Even the department **don't supply it anymore** (D1); **one meal. Only at lunch** (D2).”*

There seems to be no problem with the four schools mentioned above in terms of what is served at breakfast. The learners in school D had problems. The challenge could be how the porridge was cooked and served in this school. Food has to look

and taste delicious to stimulate their appetite. Literature indicates that if learners do not get breakfast at school, their energy levels are compromised because they normally walk long distances to get to schools (Overy, 2010:65) (cf. 3.5.2.1).

From the data, six participants have mentioned that even though the feeding scheme was for the whole school, not all the learners were eating there every day. Some were shy or afraid, others were from more affluent houses and had money for lunch.

*“But **not all of them go to the feeding scheme** on a daily basis because some of them have some money. Then they go and **buy in the tuck shop** (B3); **some of the children don’t go to the feeding scheme, they are shy** (C3); some are **afraid to come, they are shy** (D2); **not all learners eat** (E2); there is **enough food** for every learner. Just that **some of our learners** are coming from an affluent background, and as such they **do not even bother to go to the kitchen** (E1); the food which we receive is for the whole school but **not all learners eat** (E3).”*

It helped that there were learners that did not eat because they had money. In that case learners who are really struggling would have more than enough to eat because according to literature some learners come to school without having breakfast (DoE, 2009:4; Overy, 2010:65) (cf. 3.5.2.1). What is worrying is the fact that some did not eat even if they were hungry because of being shy and afraid. This is typical of teenagers.

Schools B, D and E mentioned that when there was surplus food, it was distributed amongst learners who were very needy. Four participants related how they distributed the surplus food to learners in need.

*“Yes sometimes every week like those **vegetables if they are left** we **give them every Friday. If we don’t have, we don’t have only if***

there are leftovers (E3); when we have extra food we give it to learners who don't have parents to take home for food like child-headed families as you say, sometimes at the end of the quarter when we have a lot of certain food item (E2); sometimes there is extra food that they can take home, especially the vegetables. If there is extra rice we tell them to come with the containers, we pour rice in the containers (D2); but if there are some, maybe Friday we give it to learners that are heading those households (B1)."

Schools differ regarding the times when learners are given surplus food. This surplus seems not to be constant meaning learners cannot rely on it. The food items also differ depending on availability. According to literature food supplies from the NSNP should be supplemented by produce from the school food gardens (cf. 3.6.1.1).

Participants from Schools B and E explained that learners needed to be identified first before given the surplus food. Identification was done either by asking the class educators to identify learners who were neediest or by using the list of learners at risk that they compiled at the beginning of the year.

"We go to the class educators, they have to identify those learners who are really in need of the food. Then they make the list (E3); no when the need arises, because those learners need to be identified first by the educators and the nutrition committee (E1); no we select them. We know them they are in the list, so we know who must take (E2); we identify the most needy learners. Then they go and get those parcels (B3); but if an educator will come to us and say there is a particular learner who is actually very needy, dire need, that learner will be catered for, aside from, from other learners..... So they would arrange for food packages for the particular learner (E1); when there are leftovers from the previous month then the following

*Friday we **identify learners**. They must come with **plastic bags**, so that we can **pour maize meal, maybe samp and beans also** at the **end of the week (B3).***

It seems that the method of identifying needy learners in class is used by most schools. Literature indicates that identification of learners experiencing barriers to learning is one of the functions of the ILST (2005a:35) (cf. 3.4.1). Only one participant indicated using existing lists. It also seems that the existing lists that were sent to the district were ignored. It is not clear whether all learners that were identified at the beginning of the year were all considered regarding the surplus food.

Uniform Programme:

Learners were identified first than a composite list of the names of learners in need of uniform were drawn up by the ILST committee, this list was then sent to the district, who would then take it further.

*“No we normally **identify** the learners who have a **problem of uniform**. Then we **take down their names** and we **submit them to the District (E1)**; so we said the **class teachers must identify learners** in their classes with their names, then we **submit the names to the SBST committee (A3)**; the **class educator will identify** which learner **needs uniforms**. They will give the **lists of the learners who need the uniform** and then it goes **to the District (E3)**; no we look at **needy children** because sometimes you will find that other learners they are **not properly dressed (B2)**; we **must identify learners**. Then we must **submit the names** of the learners to the **District office (B3)**; we **identify them in classes**. We ask for the help of the **guardian teachers** to check in their classes who is **needy** and who is not. We as **SBST committee** we make a **list of learners (D2).**”*

It seems that there are procedures in place to identify learners in need of uniform in four participating schools. It also seems that there is cooperation between the schools and the district regarding this programme. Literature indicates that orphans and vulnerable children struggle to buy uniforms due to financial difficulties (Rosa, 2004:2) (*cf.* 2.6.1.2).

Four participants from three schools mentioned that when it came to identifying learners for uniforms, learners were shy to come forward. Participants from Schools A and D were silent about this matter.

*“What we have observed is that some learners are **shy to come forward**. You will find that the learner is **not having uniform** that is required by the school but the **child will shy away and not even indicate that she or he needs the uniform** (E1); they all get even if they are **afraid to come** and write their names (B1); **some are shy** to tell us straight away that they **need the school uniform** (C3); these learners have a problem, **they are shy some of them**. Some we force because they are **shy to go on their own** (E2).”*

It seems that teachers encounter problems even if they have identified needy learners. Participants indicated being shy and afraid as a reason why learners do not come forward to indicate that they need uniform. Literature indicates that learners are often shy of getting humiliated due to their financial difficulties (Van Breda, 2010:273) (*cf.* 2.6.1.2). Teachers therefore expect the learners to take initiative. Other two participants indicated having a solution to the problem. They devise means to ensure learners get uniform whether they are shy or not.

Once lists from the schools were received at the district, learners then needed to be measured to get the correct sizes for the uniforms so that they fit the learners properly. Five participants from three schools alluded to that. Measurements were done by the district or social development.

*“They **come and measure those kids**, take the sizes (E1); then they **come and measure the learners** after some time ne, to make sure that these are the learners on the list (B3); they do **measure only those that have been identified** (E2); they call to tell us that they will come on a specific day **to come and measure the learners** (D2); it seems as if they have been **sent by the district** to come and **take measurements** (D3).”*

There seems to be collaboration between school districts and the department of social development to ensure that these learners are getting supported. According to literature collaboration fosters a supportive environment in which different parties share a mutual goal of supporting learners (Terhoeven, 2009:43; Mahlo, 2011:54) (cf. 3.2).

There was no set or fixed time in which learners were measured for their uniform size. The measuring time frame varies, but in all three schools it is done after June.

*“**After June, ya September 3rd term** (E1); **August** they are coming to **measure the learners** (B1); then they do the **measurements** during **August, September they come and measure** (B3); they **come and measure** normally they come in **September, October, November, there** (D1); they **come to measure the learners, maybe August, September** (D2).”*

The department of social development should be applauded for following clear processes. It is also important that they take their measurements in the last semester of the year in preparation for the following year. In that sense, it seems there is a clear strategy which is implemented.

In schools B, D and E, learners received their uniforms at the beginning of the following year. On delivery each uniform was packed with the learner's name on each parcel.

*“The uniform is coming already **every January** (B1); at the **beginning of the year**. Then when the uniform comes, it has the **name of the learner** on it (E3); they receive uniform at the **beginning of the year** (B2); **February, January**, around there they come with the supplies (D1); they brought it in **January this year** (D2).”*

It helps that uniforms are delivered at the beginning of the year when learners are starting with schooling. The labelling of parcels is good gesture. It can make learners to feel valued and loved. Feeling valued can heighten these learner's self-esteem because according to literature learners from CHH suffer from low self-esteem (Zolten & Long, 2006:1) (cf. 2.6.1.5.2).

The social development also brought underwear for the learners receiving the uniform.

*“The **Social Development**, brought the **underwear for the learners at schools**. **All those who got uniform they got the underwear** (D2).”*

It is thoughtful of social development to supply learners with underwear. For learners who are struggling financially, buying underwear would be the last thing on their minds, as food is at the top of their list. Literature states that learners suffer physically due to food deficiencies, which is why food is their top priority (Kamper, 2008:9) (cf. 2.6.1) instead of buying other necessities.

Schools A and B brought a challenge in terms of the uniform programme. The grade 8 to 11 learners were identified in 2014. Their measurements were taken late 2014 and uniforms were received early 2015. The challenge that was caused in this regard, was the following, as stated by the principal of School B and an ILST member from School A:

*“But the **challenge** is those learners that are **coming from primary schools** when they come for 2016, you see now we **didn’t cater for them the two hundred is not enough** (B1); others they arrived this year, they are **new learners from primary school**. They are now in **Grade 8 and very poor**, you can tell. They **did not receive because the request was made last year** (A3).”*

The grade 8 learners seemed to be at a disadvantage. The uniforms in primary and secondary schools were not the same. Learners who came from primary schools had to buy new uniforms for their new secondary schools. This is a challenge if learners are coming from poor communities because according to literature learners from CHH cannot afford uniforms (Van Breda, 2010:273) (cf. 2.6.1.2). It seems that there is no provision made for such learners in the participating schools.

Four participants from three schools mentioned that they were getting support from social workers.

*“Fortnightly there is a **social worker** allocated to the school who also works with the **social and behavioural problems** including those **learners from child headed families** (E2); we also **have a Social Worker** who visit our school every Monday to **talk to the learners having problems, learners from child headed families also benefit** (B2); we are having **social services** they come to address learners on their own (A1); when we arrived here, yes we were given the name of a **Social Worker** who is coming on Mondays and Fridays to **talk to learners experiencing barriers** (E1).”*

All the participants acknowledged the involvement of Social Development in providing counselling and dealing with social and behavioural problems. Literature explains that many learners from CHH display behavioural, emotional and social problems (Nel *et al.*, 2011:40) (cf. 2.6.1). Learners get an

opportunity to talk about the problems they experience. In this sense the support of learners in need is not only the responsibility of the ILST. This coordination could make a difference in the lives of learners especially those from CHH.

Two participants from schools C, D and A mentioned that social workers were allocated to their schools, however they did not turn up.

*“The social worker only reported that she is **allocated for the school**, but she **has not come** (C2); another challenge is that we had a social worker here, but he **just vanished**. We **don’t know what happened with him** (D2); now I’ve **never seen** him or her. **I don’t know who he or she is** (C3); no, I don’t know whether we have, but yoh we **struggle to get a Social Worker** (A3).”*

It seems that other schools do not get the support they expect from the social workers. This could mean that the support varies from school to schools depending on the social worker allocated to the school. The lack of uniformity in the provision of services by the social workers could hamper the progress of this program and deprive learners of an opportunity to access such services. According to the Constitution (RSA, 1996a), children have a right to basic social services (*cf.* 2.2).

Three participants from two schools mentioned that they made use of identification list in which they included learners with barriers to learning. This list is compiled at the beginning of each year, the identification lists for the participating schools can be found in the appendices (Appendix 8). The social workers are given this list when they visit so that they can attend to the children on the list for their individual or group sessions.

*“Those learners who have **been identified** will be taken to the office next door and the **Social Worker will talk to them** (E1); we **give her the list** in which we identified learners at the beginning of the year and*

*then she does the assessment herself. It can be **one on one or group sessions** with them depending on the number of learners she is supposed to attend to (E2); we a **list of learners** at risk that we compiled at the beginning of the year. But we **concentrate on the extreme cases first**. We **give learners from child headed families first preference** (B2).”*

The coordinated activities of the teachers and social workers come to the fore in these schools. Teachers compile list and social workers focus on providing services to the learners identified by the teachers. This is a good service by social workers because the emotional needs of learners are challenging to fulfil by teachers alone (Ogina, 2010:6) (cf. 2.6.1.3). The process could make it easier for social workers because the list is already available. What is not clear in this process is what happens during the year as some of the problems might manifest during the year, after the lists have been compiled.

Five participants from schools B, C and D mentioned that they did not get feedback from the social workers.

*“But it is a **private matter** between the Social Worker and the child. She **doesn’t give us the details** what has transpired between them in the interview (B2); then we **expected** that we will get **feedback from the social worker** after that. **Up to now we didn’t** (D2); **he never gave us the feedback** (D3); we don’t know because if you have referred them it’s between the social development and them, they **don’t give us feedback** (B3); **no feedback** was given to me by the social worker (C3).”*

Some of these participants were expecting feedback from the social workers while others understood the confidentiality surrounding the issues. The challenge with not getting feedback from the social workers could be that teachers would be unable to provide further support and according to

literature teachers need to plan intervention programmes to support learners on a daily basis (DoE, 2014:37) (cf. 3.4.2.1). In that sense the responsibility of providing support shifts solely to the social worker.

The coordinator of school E raised an important challenge that some learners who were heading a household were not receiving the grant because there was no adult staying with them. Grants were only given to adults who were taking care of children. Only once the learner reached 16 would he/she be able to receive the grant for the younger siblings in the home.

*“We have one problem of a Grade 12 learner who **does not want to live with other people**. Then the Social workers came and said they **can’t continue giving him grant** because he is staying alone. He must have somebody, an **adult in the family** (E2).”*

It seems the learners from CHH and teachers have to be aware of the policies pertaining to social grants. According to the literature the child support grant is for children under the age of 18, the applicant for the child support grant must be the primary caregiver of the child(ren) concerned (Department of Social Development and South African Social Security Agency & UNICEF, 2012) (cf. 3.5.1.1).

Sanitary Pads Project

The Department of Social Development also provided female learners with sanitary packs. Included in these packs were toiletries, toilet paper and a pack of sanitary pads. Three participants from three schools acknowledged that they received the sanitary packs for female learners.

*“**Every girl is getting, not only the needy, because they are being supplied by the Social Department. It is Vaseline, a body lotion, roll-on, a toilet paper, a pack of sanitary pads and soap and sunlight soap** (D2); but social development is giving them **roll-on, body lotion, sanitary pads, toilet paper and Colgate** (A3); the **toiletry packs***

come from the Social Development, in the packs we have got one pack of sanitary pads, maybe ten pads. Then a bottle of Vaseline, bottle of hand and body lotion, one roll-one, one toilet paper a soap for washing and a Sunlight soap (B3).

It seems that the department is doing a tremendous job in ensuring that learners have at least toiletries for hygiene purposes. The sanitary pads project is also remarkable in the sense that it gives girls from poor communities' dignity. According to the literature girls do not attend school during the time when they are on menstruation (South African Government News Agency, 2014) (*cf.* 3.5.1.2). It seems then that this project can reduce the rate of absenteeism.

Delivery of these packs is done by the Social Development. School D has proof of handing out these packs to learners as learners have signed on receiving the packs (Appendix 8). The time of delivery is not consistent according to these two participants from two schools:

“At times they deliver every month. But at times they deliver once in two months. Like now they delivered last month. We don't know whether they will deliver next month in June or when we reopen. (D2); sometimes the delivery is once in six months. You know it is never stable (B3).”

It seems that there is irregularity in the supply of the toiletries and sanitary pads that the learners are so in need of. Although this is a good project, the inconsistency will retard the progress made. The most affected will be learners who rely entirely on this supply, because according to literature girls suffer from stress and depression due to staining their clothes from the lack of sanitary pads (National Youth Development Agency, 2015) (*cf.* 3.5.1.2)

The ILST coordinator of School D and a member in School B both mentioned that the surplus toiletries are given to the boys who are in need. The sanitary pads that they take out from the packs that are given to the boys are given to the girls.

*“If there are **more** we **give to the boys**. Sometimes they deliver that the girls should get two, so we **give the girls one packet** and the other packet we only take the pads out to make the two packets of pads for the girls. Then **all the other things are given to the boys** (D2); if we have surplus we give toiletries to **the boys** (B3).”*

It seems that in these two schools, boys also benefit. This is due to the fact that teachers in these schools take the initiative to support the boys. Teachers in these schools seem to understand their role of supporting learners in need. This is a positive sign because according to literature if teachers have good will and positive attitudes towards supporting learners in need, they will go out of their way to seek the skills to provide support to learners (Mahlo, 2011:50) (cf. 3.7.1).

Adopt-A-Cop

The principals of schools B and C, as well as the ILST coordinator of school B mentioned that they had an adopt-a-cop program in their schools.

*“They even sent me a constable to come here and **motivate learners**. She is a member of our **adopt-a-cop** program (B1); we are working hand in glove with the **police**, whereby we having an **adopt-a-cop** (C1); there is a **police officer** who has also **adopted our school** (B2).”*

The involvement of the police in schools is good in curbing crime in schools. It is worrying that only two schools mentioned having the adopt-a-cop program in their schools. According to the literature every school in South Africa should have the adopt-a-cop program (Department of Education, 2013:1) (cf. 3.5.3.1).

The South African Police Service supported the schools by doing patrols and also talking to the learners about issues of drug. Three participants from two schools indicated how the police assisted their schools.

*“Like for instance if we have cases of **learners involved in substance abuse** we normally call her and she assists. She **talks to these learners**. Sometimes we invite her to come and **address learners at the assembly on drug awareness and abuse (B2)**; we got about **seven patrol searches** here. They are **searching for dagga, knives, guns, everything (B1)** then at one stage the principal has to communicate with the **SAPS to do random search (A2)**.”*

Learners from CHH do not have anyone to talk to regarding the challenges of their development. Having police to talk about the issues on drugs and abuse could help these learners. The random searches are in line with the policy as indicated in the literature (South African Human Rights Commission, 2008:27) (cf. 3.5.3.1), where it indicates that if there is suspicion that learners are using or selling drugs they can be searched. This is a good way to ensure safety of all learners and teachers in schools.

SCHOOL PROGRAMMES:

Adopt-A-learner:

Both principals from schools B and D mentioned the functioning of adopt a learner programme at their respective schools. School D has implemented this programme for the grade 12 learners only.

*“Usually at the **beginning of the year** each **educator** is assigned to **adopt five learners**. **These five learners are reporting to you direct (B1)**; in **Grade 12** normally we apply the **adopt-a-learner** programme, we **adopt all learners** irrespective of their conditions at home. It **depends on the number of children that we are having in Grade 12***

as well as a number of teachers who are teaching Grade 12. So they share those kids. Then they help them by motivating them (D1)."

Learners from CHH have therefore benefitted from this programme as there were learners in grade 12 who were from CHH (Appendix 8). The role of the teacher in this regard is to support and motivate them. This kind of support is good for learners' wellbeing. Literature indicates that support generally functions as a buffer to reduce the stress and enhance resilience for people in stressful life events such as CHH (Mahlo, 2011:32) (cf. 3.3).

The principals from schools B and D explained how this programme operated in their respective schools. Teachers also offer learners another kind of support that is financial.

"So some of the educators they will take learners to their home so that he/she can study. They buy them uniform. Sometimes they buy them new shoes. You know those things we started doing that before the Social Development come (B1); when they don't have also uniform. You know the Department offers them uniform only once. So they can also have extra uniform and help them financially, help them also with the schoolwork as well. No it is not a daily thing. You will have like now, I can give R20 or R50 once off. It is not a binding thing. If it can be binding then it is a problem because we are underpaid anyway (D1)."

The kind of support offered by teachers in these schools is tremendous. Teachers are not obliged to support learners this way but they continue offering their kindness. It takes a teacher that really cares about learners to support them in this manner. The literature acknowledges that there are such teachers that feel it is their responsibility to do more than just educate learners (Williams, 2010:22) (cf. 3.7.1).

The principal and ILST coordinator of school D mentioned that the staff sometimes helped learners from CHH with transport money to school. Teachers were asked to make any contribution that they could afford.

*“Some of the **learners from child headed families were struggling with transport** because some of them were living far away from the school. **So normally my teachers help** those in terms of **transport (D1)**”; then **if they need transport money, we ask from the teachers** to help us, and we **make contributions towards that**. Teachers **just give whatever they have (D2)**.”*

Although the department encourages learners to attend schools in their vicinity, this is not always the case. Literature highlights that learners from CHH often do not have enough money for transport to school and back (Mkhize, 2006:87) (cf. 2.6.1.2). Giving learners money for transport is another act of kindness which ensures that learners attend regularly and curbs drop-outs.

School support initiatives

The principal of School B indicated that during exams time he allowed boys, including those from CHH, to come and sleep at school so that they could study. He also invited the motivational speakers to motivate those boys who studied in the evening. He even allowed the food handlers to cook for them before they leave the school. The principal has arranged with the police in the area to keep guard and patrol the school during the time these boys were staying there, himself as well as the chairperson of the School Governing Body came to check on the learners. He describes this programme below:

*“**When the exams are coming, these boys are coming to sleep at school**. I’ve arranged with the feeding scheme members to cook the evening **meal for them**. They come with their **blankets and everything**. Late at*

*07:00 I have **motivational speakers** that are coming to **motivate them. Myself, the chairperson and the police always come and check. Because I usually inform the police station that the boys are here. They sleep all seven days (B1).***

This school takes initiative to make all these arrangements to support learners. This is good support for learners in general and especially those from CHH who do not have that kind of backing at home. Literature indicates that learners from CHH lack resources including electricity and proper furniture to do their homework on (Kamper, 2008: 2; Pillay, 2011:8-9) (*cf.* 2.4.1).

School B had two female albino learners who were from the same CHH and one male albino from a CHH. The school got support from Albinism South Africa for these learners. The principal himself was a member of the board of Albinism South Africa. The principal and the ILST member from School B described the support provided to these learners as follows:

*“In our school I am a **board member of Albinism South Africa. I’m having two learners that are Albino and taking care of them (B1); those people from the organisation come and make sure that those learners get their supplies. They give it to them in person. Two of them are from a child-headed family. They are girls. We have got another one who is a boy. We give them first preference in the feeding scheme because they must not stand long in the sun (B3).**”*

The involvement of external stakeholders in support of learners from CHH is commendable. This collaboration strengthens support provision in this school. The principal is committed to draw resources from the community to support learners from CHH. In the literature it is indicated that one of the functions of the ILST is to draw resources from within or outside the school (DoE, 2005a:35) (*cf.* 3.4.1).

Seven participants went out of their way to visit the homes of learners from CHH.

*“We make a **home visit to all our child headed families** trying to check their relatives (A3); I’ll be **going to their houses** to check **whatever they are doing** (B1) we do visit where the learners are **staying** to oversee what is **happening there** (B2); but, **they even go to their places, these educators** (D1); even, there is **an educator** who yesterday took his car, **went to a house of one of our learners** to **check what is happening with that learner** (D3); I myself personally took my car and went **to see where that learner stays** (E3); we went there to **check on the premises and the house itself** (A1).”*

Home visits are regarded as a good strategy in understanding the plight of learners. Although teachers are legally bound by policies to visit learners at home it is also an act of kindness. It is also a way of showing learners that teachers care. According to literature learners from CHH are neglected by family members and their communities (Leatham, 2005:105) (cf. 2.6.1.2). If the teachers are able to step in and act as support structure in this way, the school becomes a pull factor.

On visiting the homes of these learners from CHH, participants described the type of conditions that these learners were living in. These learners were very poor, residing in shacks and not in good condition. These are the descriptions of three participants:

*“We found that it is **not worth living** in that particular place. On our arrival we find that this boy is **sleeping helpless, sick in a shack alone** (A1); it is tough because sometimes they are living in **one shack**. Once there was one learner whose **shack burnt** (B1); they are seriously living in **poor conditions in one roomed shacks** (B2).”*

Teachers who visit learners from CHH in their homes get first-hand information which becomes a trigger for them to do something about the situation. Literature specifies the bad living conditions of children from CHH (Pillay, 2011:8-9) (cf. 2.4.1).

Four of the participants provided support to learners through counselling. This was done by talking to learners or giving them some attention.

“I give the child attention and listen to what he is saying (A3); because, after you talk to them you can see that there is a relief in that child (B2); I was talking to that child like I was talking to my own. I am saying that support should not be just supporting because I am a member of the SBST, it should be the support genuinely from my heart (E1); you must have passion for the learners. I will talk to them and read scriptures with them (E3).”

Teachers seem to be providing counselling to the learners. Although they are not qualified or trained they act as para-professionals. Literature indicates that teachers act as lay counsellors however not taking on the role of registered counsellors or psychologists (Perumal, 2010:2) (cf. 3.4.1). Teachers also act in loco-parentis in that sense learners from CHH get an opportunity to have motherly and fatherly figures in their lives.

COMMUNITY/SCHOOL PROGRAMMES

Food Garden Project

School B had a vegetable garden on their premises. It was managed by an ILST member, the principal and another teacher. The members from the Community Work Programme and learners helped with gardening. A mild insecticide was used so as not to harm people. The school has also won a competition because of the vegetable garden.

“The food garden, are managed by me (ILST member), the principal and another teacher. Last year we entered into the competition and we won R30 000 for the school. We also got four fruit trees. Some of the learners benefitted from the food garden, because every week we manage to give them a bunch of spinach, cabbage and maybe onions to take home. When we have enough produce then we add to the feeding scheme. People from CYP (Community Work Programme) and learners help in the food garden. They come here maybe three times a week. We use sunlight liquid. So it won’t harm anything, but kill the insects in the food gardens (B3).”

In this school there are teachers that are designated to manage the vegetable garden project and this is supported in the literature (DoE, 2008:8) (cf. 3.6.1.1). It also seems that the community members involved are dedicated. The produce benefits learners in school and also the members of the community. This project also benefits the school as a whole in that the prize money won could lift the morale of other teachers and encourage those that are already involved to continue. Literature also mentions the annual competition that is used as an incentive to establish and maintain food gardens (cf. 3.6.1.1). The people in charge of the project are knowledgeable about the use of insecticides.

Community Support Initiatives

School B got support from Nature’s Choice (a company that produces organic food items) for learners who want to participate in competitions. School E was supplied with food packages from a non-governmental organisation.

“When learners from child headed families are going to participate in some competitions, because normally we don’t have money here at school, we talk to Nature’s Choice (B2); yes for instance the

community based organization I just mentioned, give learners who are heading homes, food packages on a fort night basis (E1)."

The support from external stakeholders is important. Schools cannot take care of the needy learners alone. Literature confirms the involvement of external stakeholders by stating that the ILST must collaborate with community-based support organisations (Nel, Engelbrecht, Nel, Tlale, 2013:1) (cf. 3.4.1.1). The initiative that is taken by school B in approaching the company for assistance, can be applauded.

School B has a programme running on Thursdays in which nurses and people from Lifeline came to the schools to talk to the learners. Issues such as HIV/AIDS and teenage pregnancy were addressed. They gave advice to young mothers. School A invited nurses from clinics to come talk to learners.

"Nurses and people from Lifeline are coming to school at 01:30. They talk to learners about teenage pregnancy and AIDS (B1); we invite nurses to talk about HIV at school, this benefits the learners (A2)."

Learners from CHH benefit from this because the talks revolve around issues close to what the learners are experiencing. According to literature HIV/AIDS is one of the contextual factors leading to CHH (Rosa, 2004, Germann, 2006:150) (cf. 2.4.2). The involvement of different government organisations in support of learners in need is significant. Learners in need benefit more in collaborated activities.

Pastors are invited to schools. Learners from CHH also benefit from their guidance and encouragement.

"So the pastor was here just to preach to the learners (B2); at the assembly the pastor comes to encourage all the learners (E3); the pastor that has just left, came here in the morning for the assembly (E2)."

Learners especially those from CHH who do not have parents to take them to church services do not get a chance to be developed spiritually. Spirituality is an important factor in every human being and literature states that intervention programmes at schools can assist in fulfilling the spiritual needs of learners (Rossi and Stuart, 2007:151) (*cf.* 2.6.1) The religious groups in these communities play a major role in contributing to the emotional development of learners. The religious instruction in these schools is in line with the policy on Religion Education (2002) where it supports the involvement of religious groups in schools especially in assembly, during break and after school.

THEME 2:

IDENTIFICATION OF LEARNERS FROM CHH

Five participants from five schools mentioned that identification of learners from CHH is done at the beginning of each year.

*“We **identify them** at the **beginning of the year**. Learners must be from **single parents, orphaned or child headed families** (A1); we **identify them** because there is a **form from the district** where we write the names of **vulnerable learners, orphans** and those who are from **child-headed families** (B3); we do take **statistics at the beginning of the year** and then we give it to the coordinator (C3); at the **beginning or every year** that information is normally needed. So that we know **which children are from child-headed families** (E2); the district **demands the statistics** of the learners that are vulnerable (D2).”*

It seems that in these schools, identification is done at the beginning of each year. Literature also acknowledges the beginning of the year statistics (*cf.* 3.4.1) and it also refers to the ILSTs responsibility in identifying learners at

risk (DoE, 2001:33) (cf. 3.4). These identification documents can be found in the appendices (Appendix 8). It is good for the schools and the districts to have the statistics. But collecting the data once in a year is a disadvantage to learners who become vulnerable during the course of the year. It is unfortunate that schools collect this important information because of pressure from the district. They do not do it on their own accord. These are the same lists that were mentioned in the paragraphs above that are used by the social workers to support learners.

Two participants from schools A and B indicated that as part of collecting the statistics, they observe learners' behaviour as a way to identify learners in need.

*“We identify them in terms of their **behaviour**. You can be able to **notice** that others are **not coping well**, always **reserved** (B2); the other one will be **quiet, not mixing** with other learners. Some very **talkative and cheeky**, giving you an **attitude**, others **behave differently** (A3).”*

Teachers seemed to have developed different strategies to identify learners in need. These methods can help in ensuring that no learner is left behind. These teachers also understood that learner misbehaviour and withdrawal symptoms could be reflective of deeper issues. Literature indicates teachers need to be able to identify learners in need in order for them to provide support to these learners (Ogina, 2010:4) (cf. 2.5).

Four participants from three schools had observed that learners from CHH displayed positive behavioural patterns.

*“The ones I am teaching, **behave very well**. She is **so cooperative, works very hard**. She **respects in class** and **she is neat** (D3); they **don't stay with parents** but they **never give us problems** (E2); we **don't encounter any problems**. They are **well behaved**. They **listen in class** (D2); if you **give***

*back your love then you will see they will reward you with **good behaviour** (B3)."*

The comments about the good behaviour of learners from CHH are positive. All four teachers indicated that these children do not have behavioural problems. This finding contradicts the literature where it indicates that these learners become aggressive because of social and emotional problems they encounter. Literature says that they display bad behaviour because of lack of disciplinary measures at home (Nziyane, 2010:5) (*cf.* 2.6.1.3).

Eight participants mentioned that learners were afraid, embarrassed or shy to come out and talk about what they were going through. The participants indicated the following:

*"Some are a bit **reserved**. Almost **80% of them** are **afraid to tell us what exactly the problem is** (A2); they feel **embarrassed**. They **don't want to come out and tell you straight** (C3); they really **don't want to talk** about their problems (E1); they **don't want to be seen** by other learners that they are **struggling** (E3); sometimes **they don't talk** (B3); they are **shy** (A1); others **keep it to themselves** (B2); you know, our **kids are very private**. They **don't talk easily** (A3)."*

The silence about problems could be related to the stage of development the learners are in. the literature also specifies the reluctance of learners in exposing their problems and experiences due to the fear of being stigmatised or discriminated against (*cf.* 2.5) (Ogina, 2010:3). All these learners are in high school. They are in adolescent stages, others about to become young adults. This is a difficult stage.

Six participants mentioned talking to learners, asking them direct questions. This helped in identifying learners who were from CHH. Through talking they also became aware of what problems the learners were experiencing.

*“Then we will have a one on one session whereby we will **talk to them**, trying to **understand the causes of the problem** (A3); during breaks I call them and then **talk to them** after the class. I get **insight in terms of what their problems are** (B3); sometimes I **call a learner** after class. It is then that the learner **will come out and tell me about his or her problems** (E3); we start to **ask them questions** so we **can be able to identify** those learners (B2); we **call learners** and ask them **about their problems** (D3); I **spoke** to one of the Grade 12’s and she told me there were some **family problems** (C1).”*

Although the sessions are to identify vulnerable learners they do more than that. Learners from CHH do not have adults to talk to about their problems. Talking about their problems could help them emotionally because according to literature these learners suffer due to emotional problems (Nel *et al.*, 2011:40) (*cf.* 2.6.1). Learners could also feel cared for. Talking about problems has been indicated in the literature as a stress reliever.

Regular absenteeism was also observed as behaviour leading to identification of learners from CHH. Four participants made reference to learners being absent regularly from school. Participants from School B and E were silent about this.

*“Sometimes they **absent themselves from school**, they are going to work somewhere, doing gardening (D1); they do not **attend regularly**. Sometimes they are **absent** for about **two weeks** (C3); high rate of **absenteeism** is a problem (A3); sometimes they **don’t pitch up** for classes (A1).”*

Irregular attendance of learners from CHH may lead to poor performance as they miss most classes. According to literature, learners from CHH are affected by high levels of absenteeism which could be due to the lack of authority at home to persuade learners to come to school or due to the fact that they are over tired due to

an increase in household responsibilities. Another reason could be that they are frequently sick due to lack of health access (Nyaradzo, 2013:28) (cf. 2.6.1.5.1).

From the five participating schools only one participant has mentioned the high dropout rate of learners from CHH.

*“So a number of **learners dropped out** because of **heading those families**. I realised that **dropout rates here is very high** (A1).”*

This could mean that learners from CHH struggle to cope with the demands of attending school and balance them with their responsibilities at home. This situation could be even worse with the heads of these households. Literature states that high absenteeism results in learners falling behind in their work and this eventually leads to these learners dropping out of school (Nyaradzo, 2013:29) (cf. 2.6.1.5.1).

Appearance is another way in which five participants identified learners from CHH. The way they dressed and cleanliness and body stature.

*“By the **way they dress** sometime — they do not **dress properly** like other learners. They are **not that clean** (E3); there is **no supervision, health care** — they are **not well cared** for (A1); again, they are **untidy**. They **look clumsy** and some having a **bad smell** (A3); you will also see **the hunger that the child doesn’t get fed well** (D1); they are **untidy** (B2).”*

It seems that vulnerable children can be easily identified based on the factors mentioned by participants above. The appearance could not only be because of their own doing, that is, not taking care of themselves. But it seems that lack of guidance from older people is also a contributing factor. Literature indicates that learners from CHH have poor hygiene as a result of the challenging physical environments in which they live (Pillay, 2011:13) (cf. 2.6.1.1).

Four participants related that identification of learners from CHH can be problematic. Sometimes it's difficult to make a clear distinction between learners from CHH and other needy learners such as learners with unemployed parents. Learners that are from CHH do not come out and say so, they usually keep quiet.

*“It is very **difficult** sometimes **to identify** the learner as coming from a **child-headed family** because they **keep quiet** about their problems. There is **no clear distinction** between **child-headed families** and the **needy** (E1); because, some of them are **afraid to** come out in the open that **they are heads of houses**, so it's **hard to identify** them (A2); even those of unemployed parents, they still **experience the same problems** that are experienced by **child-headed families** (E2); it's unfortunate that learners are reluctant to **reveal to us their problems** making it a **challenge to identify them** (C1).”*

It is true that learners from CHH are as vulnerable as others that are orphans and those that come from very poor backgrounds. Although to identify them seems to pose a problem for teachers, it is a necessity. Learners might all be vulnerable but certain challenges differ for example learners from CHH have a unique challenge of role adjustment (Naidoo, 2008:1, Campbell *et al*, 2014) (*cf.* 2.5.1) which learners with unemployed parents or orphaned learners taken in by extended family members do not have.

THEME 3:

POLICIES GUIDING SUPPORT

Availability of policies

When asked about the availability of ILST policies, eight participants mentioned that there were policies available in their schools.

*“Yes. **We have got the policies (A2); Yes, we have policies (B2); we do have the policy guiding the SBST (C2); policies are there (D1); ya, they are developed (D2); we do have policies (E1); yes there are policies at the school (E3); there is an SBST policy (C3).**”*

It can be applauded that participants mentioned having policies in their schools. If the policies are in place and implemented effectively, learners from CHH can benefit from such initiatives. Availability of policies could mean that there is acknowledgement of the need to support vulnerable learners in the participating schools. All national programmes supporting vulnerable learners come from policies, including the NSNP as well as school based crime prevention programmes (*cf.* 3.5.2.1; 3.5.3.1).

Three participants from different schools indicated that they developed the ILST policies in different ways. In School E all staff members decided on the policy, in school B they compared policies with other schools to incorporate ideas and in school D two participants mentioned different ways of having policies.

*“You will see **we all decide on the policy (E1); yes we come together, we develop the policy and then also compare our policies with other schools, we take some of the ideas from other schools’ policies and implement them here at our school (B2); the district***

developed the policies (D3); no the SBST committee draws that (D1)."

In two schools, teachers are part of the development of policies. In the third school, it seems that they rely on national policies or delegate the task to a designated body. When people are part of the formulation of guidelines, it becomes easier for them to adhere to them. This is the best way to avoid a top down approach.

Unavailability of policies specific to CHH

Seven participants have mentioned that the policies that are developed are not specific to learners from CHH. They cover a broad range of learners especially those that are vulnerable.

*"The policy is **not specifically designed for learners from CHH (C3)**; no I think it is **not necessarily focussing on the CHH (B2)**; the policy involves **every learner (A2)**; no we **do not have specific policies to handle learners from child headed families (E2)**; it is **holistic** because it looks at every aspect of the child (B1); policies are for **all learners**, because we have the **learners with different needs, different backgrounds**. We are **not only focusing on them (B2)**; it deals with also **learners with learning barriers**. **Not specific to learners from child-headed families (D1).**"*

It seems that teachers expect to have policies specifically for learners from CHH, hence they indicated not having policies. What they are not aware of is that there are a range of policies that guide the support of vulnerable learners and those from CHH. For instance, the National Policy for HIV/AIDS (1996) which addresses issues pertaining to learners affected and infected with HIV/AIDS protects the rights of learners from CHH as well. The Integrated School Health Policy (2012) benefits learners from CHH as nurses help them as well. Thus, all policies that support learners from poor backgrounds do not exclude learners from CHH.

Ineffectiveness in adhering to policy

Policies are meant to be implemented as they are imperative to the functioning of the ILST. Four participants mentioned that the implementation of policies was problematic at their schools.

*“Unfortunately in this school the **implementation is a problem** (A2); **no I can’t say we are adhering, the implementation from the committees is lacking** (D1); there are a few ideas and interventions but **they are not implemented** (A3).”*

Lack of implementation of policies deprives learners of support they would have benefitted from. In such cases, initiatives for support become ineffective. Literature indicates that it is the role of the principal to ensure that policies are implemented correctly and if not, improvement plans need to be drawn up and programmes need to be developed (DoE, 2010:13-14) (cf. 3.4.2.1).

Filling in of support forms seemed to be a problem. As mentioned above identification of learners in need of support needed to be done by the class teacher during contact time. After identification of learners who required additional support, teachers needed to start completing support forms or 450s for these learners.

*“After identification we must **complete support forms** for these learners (A3); we must **fill in 450 support forms** after we identify learners in need of support (B2); then we **complete support forms** for these learners who need support (A2); we identify them and then we **fill in the 450 support forms** (E3); we need to **fill in support forms** for the learner after we identify that he needs support (D3); we **fill in the 450 support forms** for learners who need support (D2); then we need to **fill in support forms** for learners (E2).”*

It seems that teachers understood their role in filling in support forms for learners. They also knew about the correct support form they had to fill in.

However instead of completing the support forms during the term and upon identification, teachers waited for the schedules at the end of the term so that they identify children who fail from the schedules and then they only completed forms for those learners who failed a subject.

*“They will rather complete the **450’s of those that have failed** and identify it **from the schedules**, not through identification in the classroom during teaching (E2); we are supposed to fill it in from the time we identify them but normally we just fill them in at the **end of term once we have their term marks** (E3); we fill them in **once a term** depending on their **end of term mark** (A2); we complete the support forms **once a term** when we have their term mark and we can **see if they failed** (B3); once a term, at the **end of the term** (C3).”*

It seems that the support these teachers were targeting was academic related which could be a reason why literature indicates that some teachers are not willing to provide support to learners suffering from psychosocial and behavioural problems (Ogina, 2010:6) (cf. 3.7.1). They only choose learners that failed, this is not identification of learners that are in need of support. Seemingly, the support relating to contextual barriers such as CHH is also not referred to.

After completing support forms teachers then need to submit them to the ILST coordinator.

*“We complete the support forms then **submit them to the coordinator** (D3); after writing the 450s they must **send them to me (the coordinator)** (B2); then we must send the **completed support forms to the coordinator** (A3); after writing the support forms we must **send it to the coordinator** (E3).”*

It seems that the main intention for this process is not to support the child in need of support but just to have records. It also seems that the ILST accepts these forms without any queries. This is against the functions of the ILST, because literature indicates that the ILST should monitor the progress/lack of progress of support programmes (DoE, 2014:32, 33) (cf. 3.4.1) and here they just accepting the forms without monitoring.

A challenge highlighted by 3 ILST coordinators from School A, B and E is that some teachers avoid completing support forms and some need to be reminded regularly and forced to write support forms.

*“But the problem is **teachers who avoid completing the 450 support forms** (E2); some teachers **need to be pushed** all the time to submit the **support forms** (B2); teachers **do not like to complete the support forms**, I (the coordinator) need to remind them all the time and **force them** to complete them (A2).”*

Some teachers do not like to fill in the 450 forms, they need to be reminded or pushed. This could mean that if these teachers are not pushed, the forms could not be filled in. This implies that these teachers do not have interest in supporting learners or prefer other means. Literature states that negative attitudes can tarnish a teacher’s attempts in supporting learners (Engelbrecht, 2013:41) (cf. 3.7.1).

The ILST coordinators from Schools B, D and E mentioned that there was not enough evidence given by the teachers on how they supported the learners in class. As a result, due to the lack of information from the teachers, learners were allowed to proceed to the next grade even though they were in need of support.

*“Most of the time the learners are just **allowed to proceed** in the next class, because teachers **do not have enough information** about*

*support given to the learners (E2); a major challenge is that teachers are **not providing enough support evidence** on these support forms and so learners are **left to proceed to the next grade** even though they might need to fail (B2); these teachers **do not provide enough evidence** showing how they supported the learner in class and that's why the learner **is forced to proceed to the next grade** (D2)."*

This means learners are just pushed to the next grade without any intervention. This also means that as these learners progress from one grade to another, more and more problems are added. If there is no evidence, there is no support and literature emphasizes the role of the teacher in facilitating the support of learners (DoE, 2014:37, 38) (*cf.* 3.4.2.1).

At the end of each term, the support forms need to be submitted to the district. According to participants from Schools A and C, the school does not play their part in submitting the support forms to the district.

*"It **depends on us as a school**, we **do not submit** the support forms dealing with learner barriers, to the district (A3); the district, they **can't do anything** if we as a **school don't submit the support forms** (C3)."*

There is an indication of poor management support processes at school level. This is a big problem because literature states that a school needs to have knowledgeable management teams so that they can provide support and train teachers (Ladbrook, 2009:57) (*cf.* 3.7.2) It seems that teachers are aware that there are no consequences for not having submitted forms to the SBST. The ILST only focusses on forms that have been submitted. It also seems that the forms for learners who need additional support submitted to the ILST are not taken to the DBST. This deprives learners of support they would have received from the district.

Support from the district

The district was also involved in supporting schools and communicating with schools. Their involvement was seen as positive according to five participants.

*“The lady we are **working with** from the **district**, **she is so supportive**. Immediately **when we call her** she comes to school and **help us** (D3); **they (the district) support the school**. (A2); **we are communicating with the district**, because the district officials are **providing us with the necessary skills** so that we can be **able to cope** with what is expected of us (C1); **the district based support team they support us** (B1); **the communication with the district office is fine, and it is working for us** (D2).”*

Teachers seem to be satisfied with the amount of support they received from the district. They also seem to appreciate the open communication channels between them and the district. This kind of provision would motivate teachers in their endeavours to support learners. This was contradicted in the literature in which teachers deemed there was little or no collaboration between the district and the school (Tebid, 2010:7) (cf. 3.7).

Two participants from different schools had contradictory perceptions to the above.

*“That is why I told you, because other than that, the district office **doesn’t support us 100%** in terms of support to learners from **child headed households** (C3); the DBST needs to **take more charge** as less is done for learners from **child headed households** (A1).”*

In the previous paragraph teachers from C and A regard the DBST as supportive while others from the same school see it differently. In this regard teachers feel that there are not supported by the district. Literature also indicates that the district did not provide support to schools in a way that they were supposed to (Tebid, 2010:7) (cf. 3.7). As a researcher I am of the opinion that if this situation continues, it will lower their morale and have a ripple effect on the implementation of the programmes and the kind of support offered to learners.

Participants mentioned the significance of workshops in terms of their development. Workshops conducted by private companies and other professionals, arranged by the district, covered a number of issues that empowered them with knowledge they did not have. It also provided them with skills and coping techniques on how to deal with situations. Six participants commented on the benefit of training provided.

*“We were trained on how to **help learners with barriers** and those from **child-headed families**, the learners **who are not coping in class** (D3); **the workshop is done by experts. Everything that involves education and the rights of learners** (A2); the district also **assists** in terms of **providing workshops to develop** teachers so that they are **able to cope and handle situations better** (B2); **district officials** provide us with the **necessary skills** so that we can **be able to cope** with what is expected of us (C1); yes, **there was a training**. At times they are beneficial because they **give us advice** on what to do **in taking care of those learners**. Then they also **provided us with the tools to deal with problematic learners** (D2); sometimes they give us other people and they **invite professionals for HIV and AIDS**. So it was a very **eye opening workshop for teachers to deal with the learners** (B3).”*

It seems that the district is making effort in training teachers to provide necessary support to learners including those from CHH. Literature emphasizes the importance of training where teachers also share their expertise and best practices (Ladbrook, 2009:57) (cf. 3.7.2).

In March 2015 school E re-located. Their new location was in another district. The principal and the ILST co-ordinator commented on the positive impact this had made in terms of the support they were getting from the new district.

*“This year, you know that we are now in a **new district**, there **is a difference now in the way things happen**. So the **support here is quite coordinated***

also in this District, the way they do their things (E2); ya, but I have seen amazing support from this district, especially with regards to training of the SBST (E1)."

This school reveals that the functioning of the DBST and the support rendered to schools varies from one district to another. This could mean that the ILST can be affected either positively or negatively by the functioning of a district.

The new district provided the school with support forms and policies, assisted and helped in the smooth running of the ILST. There were also regular visits from the district.

"We have **more tools** now than we used to for supporting learners. Almost every day **there is a visit from the district office** they check all our documents. We **never received documents like these from the other district (E2)**; they are **checking us on a regular basis** to see whether we **stick to the policy (E1)**; at the **district they come to make sure that everything which is there in the policy, we have implemented (E3)**."

It is commended that the DBST did not only provide the school with support forms, but also guided them throughout the process by availing themselves and monitoring the progress. Participants from school E confirmed what participants from other schools indicated about support from the district officials. Literature also indicates that the district must help set up the ILST if it is not properly set up (DoE, 2014:32) (cf. 3.4).

THEME 4:

FUNCTIONING OF THE ILST

The following 5 participants indicated the importance of good leadership and the impact it has on the provision of support to learners from CHH. School C and D were silent in terms of this.

*“So **good leadership does impact on the support provided to learners from child headed families (E2); so it is right up for the management to even further understand what is contained in the policies of the SBST so that we know how to support learners accordingly (E1); Because sometimes you can say to them **let us call nurses to come to school and talk to the girls about pregnancy. But if the management says no you won’t be able to call nurses (A3); good leadership plays an impact on the support provision at the school. I have made an impact, even to most of the learners from child headed families (B1); if you have good leadership, then the whole staff will work properly and support learners to the best of their capability (E3).**”***

Participants were aware that good leadership plays a role in the nature of support provided to learners. This is confirmed by the literature which indicates the importance of good leadership in terms of support provision (*cf.* 3.7.3). Leadership can heighten the support provided to learners at the same time if the management is weak, without guidance then the opposite would be the result.

The coordinator of the ILST at school B spoke highly of their principal as he was hands on, eager to get sponsors to donate things the school needed for learners. These initiatives benefited learners from CHH. This is the same principal who visited the homes of learners from CHH.

*“Our principal is **highly hands-on**, because he managed to **talk to other organizations to help these learners with school uniform**. Then also he did talk to **Nature’s Choice**, where they sometimes also **donate foods to these learners**. Like I said, in most cases the **principal is the one who is visiting those children at their homes (B2)**.”*

This is a manager who is able to draw resources from the community. He is willing to go out and find resources that would benefit his learners. Literature indicates a good leader is one who has compassion for poor and vulnerable learners (Kamper, 2008:12) (*cf.* 3.7.3). This kind of management is not only confined to the parameters of the school but goes beyond its boundaries.

Two of the participants spoke about the leadership being a challenge at their schools. The participants mentioned unavailability of the manager, lack of will and of hard work.

*“As the SBST we still **need the leadership** of this school to give a go ahead. So that is the **biggest challenge**. If he is not available, if he is not willing then it becomes a problem (A2); I say the **management is not effective**. They **need good management and a leader** who is leading them as well. But still with **management some of them they are not pushing that hard**. So I have to interrogate that **culture for all the committees, including the SBST to function (D1)**.”*

It seems that principals’ lack of leadership also contributes to ineffectiveness of the ILST. In that case, it is not only the teachers as mentioned earlier that are a stumbling block, but also the principals. Literature states that effective leadership acts as a driving force in determining the successful implementation of the ILST (Perumal, 2010:v) (*cf.* 3.7.3).

Three participants from one school indicated the distribution of roles to different members on the ILST.

“She (ILST coordinator) divides us into different tasks. I am also in charge of the HIV and AIDS and school health (B3); because, all of them have been allocated with duties; like for instance I am not dealing with uniform, there is somebody else who is dealing with uniform issues (B2); everybody got their own role in the SBST (B1).”

The implication of this statement is that teachers do not serve only in the ILST committee, they are assigned other roles and they belong in multiple committees. These multiple roles could affect the performance of these ILST members in their activities in the ILST committee. Literature supports this statement by indicating that teachers are overloaded due to them serving on various committees (Perumal, 2010:32) (*cf.* 3.7).

An issue that was raised revolved around members not doing their part in the committee. Even though all the members had their own roles most members expected the coordinator to carry out most of the duties. Teachers were not committed, they did not cooperate, which means they were not sticking to their roles and teamwork was lacking. These 6 participants related examples of this issue as follows:

“Not all members of the committee are committed most of them think that everything should be done by the SBST Coordinator. They don’t stick to their roles (B2); but if we go to the meetings, I go alone. We have to work as a team. It is not happening (D2); the challenge is only that the other educators who can’t cooperate with us (E3); sometimes we don’t get the support from other educators (D3); I feel that it is a matter of teaching and it ends there. Everything else or anything else, I’m not concerned (C3); the main thing I think, it goes with the attitude of the teachers and in this school the attitude is not positive (A2).”

It seems that the members are overloaded with work as indicated above. This has a negative implication on the coordinators and the functioning of the ILST. There are issues of bad attitude towards the committee and its roles, there is also lack of care towards learners from CHH as they feel that what is important is teaching, more than

anything else. The literature mentions that teachers have become accustomed to mental fatigue and unwillingness to provide support (Williams, 2010:30) (cf. 3.7.1).

Participants mentioned that the workload in the classroom was demanding. The paper and administrative work related to teaching was too much for them. There were other duties for teachers that emerged and had to be attended to as a matter of urgency. There was limited time due to the fact that everyone was involved in different things and had to attend meetings and workshops for their subject areas. Therefore, meetings for the ILST became difficult to arrange. Three participants brought up these challenges.

“We have got such a lot of work to do and sometimes we don’t deliver. Last week I was arranging for the trip and I had to go to North West University on Monday, last week Monday, because there was a workshop on this thing of careers so that we can arrange for Saturday. So you see some things just come up and sometimes we don’t have time to meet as a team, because somebody will be involve with something else. Other things also, we have got visits from the District. Sometimes we have got to attend our learning areas workshop maybe in a certain school. (B3); we are having too much work. You know, marking, teaching. Even if you identify a problem, sometimes you will say I will handle it, but you end up wanting to mark their task. You know, too much paperwork in classes. So the most challenging thing is we don’t have meetings regularly like we are supposed to (A3); time, we don’t have enough time because we are involved in other things. Like me I am also involved with SAT and with SBST. We must have morning classes. So meeting separately for all different committees it becomes difficult (E2).”

It seems that the reasons given in the above statements can be attributed to the failure of the ILST. If teachers feel overwhelmed and overloaded, they then choose what is more important for them to do. It seems that the ILST coordinator ends up doing all the work. Literature states that teachers are struggling to cope with the combined roles of teaching and learning and caregiving (Ogina, 2010:1) (cf. 3.7.1).

School A and School E saw an improvement in the functioning of their ILSTs. School A implemented extra classes for learners experiencing barriers to learning which meant that learners from CHH benefitted from this. School E moved to another district and then they noticed that learners from CHH were getting better support.

*“Then we are **having extra classes for learners with barriers to learning**. The last period we are using it to help those with **serious barriers of learning** (A3); for now, there is an **improvement** at least **learners from child headed families, are getting better support** (E2).”*

Although the failures of the ILST are mentioned earlier there are participants that indicated otherwise. The improvement in these schools according to participants was brought about by the schools’ initiatives and in the other school by moving to another district. This also shows that the districts differed in terms of support provided to schools.

School D commented negatively on the overall functioning of the ILST.

*“No it is **not functioning to its full potential** (D1); **it is not well enough**. So if you are alone, it **doesn’t work that well**. **People who are reluctant to go to meetings** (D2)”*

These statements add to the earlier comments about the failure of the ILST to perform its duties. If meetings are not held, members have other priorities,

and are overloaded and this contributes to factors that are prohibit the effect functioning of this important committee. Literature highlights the importance of the ILST meeting on a regular basis to discuss various problems and to find solutions DoE (2010:22) (*cf.* 3.4.1).

Providing feedback about a learner from a CHH assisted teachers in working out different intervention strategies to support the learner in the best possible way. Teachers made time to talk about their strategies and problems they were faced with in their classes. Feedback was usually given in the briefing sessions and in some cases ILST meetings.

*“During the briefing sessions we do **brief them about those learners.** (D3); **when we have the briefings in the morning we report to the teachers so and so had a problem and we were able to solve it,** (D2); or in **our meeting as an SBST we will provide feedback about learners** (E3).”*

It is worrisome that it is a participant from one school mentioning briefing sessions and another talking about ILST meetings. This contradicts what was said earlier about having no time for meetings and the inability of the teams to meet because of other conflicting roles and responsibilities. Literature also indicates that an effective ILST thrives on clear and detailed communication and negotiation between all role players and this is accomplished through regular meetings (Makhalemele, 2011:69) (*cf.* 3.4.2).

5.4 CONCLUSION

In this chapter the data collected was analysed and interpreted. During the analysis and interpretation, four themes came up. Theme one was programmes that support learners from CHH; theme two was identification of learners from CHH; theme three was policies guiding support and theme four was the functioning of the ILST. The challenges pertaining to the support

programmes; factors enhancing the provision of support and the factors hampering the provision of support came up in this chapter but the findings are discussed in detail in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6:

CONCLUSIONS, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 5 the data was analysed and interpreted. The themes that came up from the study were presented. The themes addressed the research objectives. This chapter consists of a summary of all the literature chapters in this research as well as that of the empirical research. The findings from the literature and the empirical research are presented along with the recommendations for practical implementation of findings.

6.2 OBJECTIVES REVISITED

The intended purpose of this section is to report on whether the objectives were achieved or not.

Table 6.1: How objectives were achieved

| OBJECTIVE 1 | Where the objective was addressed in the study | Achieved /Not Achieved |
|---|---|-------------------------------|
| To determine the essence of CHH. This objective was dealt with by a literature review on CHH. | Chapter 2 – This chapter provided background on the phenomenon of CHH, highlighting its prevalence in South Africa. It also gave light on the contextual factors leading to CHH and the challenges that these learners face on a daily basis. | Achieved |

| | | |
|---|--|----------|
| OBJECTIVE 2 | | |
| To determine the support provided to learners from CHH. This objective was dealt with in chapter 3 by a literature review on the essence of support for learners from CHH. | Chapter 3 – Discussed the policies and documents guiding support of learners in schools. It also focussed on the establishment, functions and role players in the ILST. Furthermore, it highlighted government, community and school support programmes. | Achieved |
| OBJECTIVE 3 | | |
| To investigate the effectiveness of the ILST in implementing policies pertaining to support | Chapter 5 – This objective was addressed in this chapter. Policies were in place but schools were not effective in their implementation | Achieved |
| OBJECTIVE 4 | | |
| To determine programmes that provide support to learners from CHH by the ILSTs. This objective was addressed in chapter 5 where the raw data that was gathered from the participants was analysed and interpreted | Chapter 5 – The participants mentioned availability and implementation of national programmes, school programmes and a community programme that helped in the provision of support to learners from CHH. | Achieved |

| | | |
|--|---|----------|
| OBJECTIVE 5 | | |
| To explore factors hampering the provision of support by the ILSTs to learners from CHH. | Chapter 5 – There were factors that were indicated by participants as hampering the provision of support by the ILSTs | Achieved |
| OBJECTIVE 6 | | |
| To explore factors enhancing the provision of support by the ILSTs to learners from CHH | Chapter 5 – Participants indicated factors that enhanced the provision of support to learners from CHH. | Achieved |
| OBJECTIVE 7 | | |
| To come up with recommendations to help the ILSTs to provide effective support to learners from CHH. | Chapter 6 – This chapter elaborates on recommendations on how ILSTs can be strengthened. | Achieved |

6.3 SUMMARY OF LITERATURE

This section comprises of a summary of the literature review which is composed of chapters 1, 2 and 3. The purpose of this summary is to understand the study as a whole. The focus was on separating the main intentions of the study as summed up in the problem statement (*cf.* 1.2) and the aim and objectives of this research (*cf.* 1.4).

6.3.1 Summary of Chapter 1

In this chapter the reader was familiarised with the phenomenon of CHH and also made aware of the ILSTs responsibility in terms of supporting learners. The chapter also provided the foundation of what was expected throughout the study. The problem statement indicated the key problems of learners from CHH and problems within the ILST as an education support service to learners in schools.

6.3.2 Summary of Chapter 2

The focus of Chapter 2 was to highlight the essence of CHH. It was important to understand the legal framework regarding children in South Africa in order to apprehend the policies guiding the implementation of programmes to support learners. The chapter included a discussion on the phenomenon of CHH including statistics concerning its prevalence in South Africa, to provide the reader with information on the extent of the CHH phenomenon.

The chapter also looked at the contextual factors leading to the development of CHH as it is important to know how these households evolve. These factors included poverty, HIV/AIDS and breakdown of appropriate alternative care in the form of extended families. Other factors such as high levels of child poverty in South Africa; HIV/AIDS targeting people in the most productive years of their lives in which they bring up children; the eldest sibling in the house is left to take on the role of the caregiver in respect of other siblings in the household.

Furthermore, the chapter also highlighted the following challenges that learners from CHH face: role adjustment, stress and grief, school drop outs and educational barriers. Learners from CHH lack the following needs: physiological, safety and security, love and belonging and esteem.

6.3.3 Summary of Chapter 3

Chapter 3 focused on the essence of support for learners from CHH. The chapter included a discussion on how inclusive education was adopted in South Africa. A brief discussion on the medical model used in education prior to the implementation of inclusive education, a review of policies and reports that provide guidance on supporting learners in schools were also discussed.

This chapter also elaborated on the establishment, functions and the role players in the ILST. Furthermore, the chapter identified support programmes by the government, community and school. The chapter concluded with the challenges faced by the ILST in the implementation of support programmes.

6.4 SUMMARY OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

This section included a summary of the empirical research, it is comprised of chapters 4 and 5. Chapter 4 focused on the research methodology that was utilised in this study and Chapter 5 elaborated on the analysis and interpretation of data.

6.4.1 Summary of Chapter 4

This study was based on an interpretivist paradigm which pays particular attention to people's subjective experiences with a focus on the social construction of peoples' ideas, views or understandings of reality. In line with the interpretivist paradigm, a qualitative research method (*cf.* 4.3) was used which was complemented by a phenomenological strategy of enquiry (*cf.* 4.4). The aim for using this method was to listen to the participants providing descriptions of their everyday experiences that were linked to the phenomenon. In this study the phenomenon was support of learners from CHH.

The sample in this research comprised of (n= 15) participants from five participating schools in the Sedibeng East district. Data collection methods used included semi-structured interviews (*cf.* 4.6.1) and documents (*cf.* 4.6.2). The textual data and data

from documents were corroborated when analysed. Open and axial coding was used to produce themes for the analysis of data. The inductive method to identify themes was used in this process. Five themes were the product of the inductive process.

6.4.2 Summary of Chapter 5

The initial part of this chapter included a profile of the participants. Thereafter, the analysis and interpretation followed. The themes were then linked to the research questions in this chapter (*cf.* 6.4.3), making it imperative to determine which themes answered which research questions. The themes and the research questions they answered are indicated in the table below:

Table 6.2 Themes and research questions

| Research question | Theme |
|--|--|
| How effective is the ILST in implementing policies pertaining to support? | Theme 3: Policies guiding support |
| What programmes provide support to learners from CHH by the ILSTs? | Theme 1: Programmes to support learners from CHH. |
| What are the factors hampering the provision of support by the ILSTs to learners from CHH? | Theme 2: Identification of learners from CHH; Theme 3: Policies guiding support; Theme 4: Functioning of the ILST. |
| What are the factors enhancing the provision of support by the ILSTs to learners from CHH? | Theme 1: Programmes to support learners from CHH. |

6.4.3 Findings from the literature

Data from the literature review indicated the following regarding research question one:

What is the essence of CHH?

The findings from the literature review indicated that:

- Children from CHH, like all other children in this country have a right to basic education, basic nutrition, health care services, shelter and social services to

mention a few. However, with children from CHH these rights are often compromised (*cf.* 2.2).

- Children end up in CHH if their parent, guardian or primary caregiver is terminally ill, had died or has abandoned the children in the household. Thus there is no adult caregiver present to provide care for the children in the household. The eldest child in the household takes on the responsibility of caring for the younger children in the house. CHH can be a temporary living arrangement (*cf.* 2.3). Even though statistics fail to provide evidence that the prevalence of CHH is increasing (*cf.* 2.3.1), there are a number of learners from CHH attending in the participating schools (*cf.* 4.5.1).
- they face challenges including carrying the burden of adult responsibilities (*cf.* 2.5.1), stress and grief (*cf.* 2.5.2) and school drop outs (*cf.* 2.5.3). They lack access to basic physiological needs such as food, water, shelter and clothing (*cf.* 2.6.1.1); safety and security needs in that they are exposed to negative influences that jeopardise their safety, living with a constant fear of staying alone without an adult caregiver (*cf.* 2.6.1.2); their need for love and belonging is not met, affecting their social functioning at all levels and interfering with building their identities (*cf.* 2.6.1.3); they have a low self-esteem (*cf.* 2.6.1.4) and cannot reach a level of self-actualisation (*cf.* 2.6.1.5).
- the contextual factors that lead to the development of CHH include HIV/AIDS, poverty and the breakdown of appropriate alternative care (*cf.* 2.4).

What support is provided to learners from CHH?

The findings from the literature indicated that there are policies and reports guiding support of learning in schools. The ILST is also responsible for the provision of support to learners experiencing barriers to learning.

The findings from the literature regarding programmes providing support to learners from CHH include:

- programmes by government departments (*cf.* 3.5) such as the child support grant (*cf.* 3.5.1.1); the sanitary pads project for girls (*cf.* 3.5.1.2); the national school nutrition programme (*cf.* 3.5.2.1); school based crime prevention programmes (*cf.* 3.5.3.1) and exemption from paying school fees (*cf.* 3.5.4.1).
- support programmes at school level such as the food garden programme (*cf.* 3.6.1.1).

6.4.4 Findings from the empirical research

The finding in this research regarding the support to learners from CHH by the ILST, was connected to the following research question:

How effective is the ILST in implementing policies pertaining to support?

The following was found in the empirical research regarding the implementation of policies pertaining to support:

- Teachers were aware of policies pertaining to support however, they expected to have policies that were specific to learners from CHH. The implementation of policies were lacking, having a negative impact on the functioning of the ILST.
- The completion of support forms was done just for record purposes, defeating the real purpose of the forms, which is to support learners. The forms were completed mainly for learners with academic barriers, depriving learners in need of psychosocial support.

What programmes provide support to learners from CHH by the ILSTs?

It was found in the empirical research that teachers were aware of existing programmes that were meant to support learners. Most of these programmes were developed and implemented at national by different departments. The following programmes were mentioned by participants in terms of supporting learners from CHH (cf. 5.3):

- From national level there were four support programmes that were indicated by participants. The first, the NSNP aiming at providing food to all learners from disadvantaged communities. Four of the participating schools served two meals a day (breakfast and lunch) while one school served only breakfast, in that case, there was inconsistency in the serving of meals. Not all learners ate at the feeding scheme some learners were shy or afraid to eat even if they were hungry. If there were surplus food from the feeding scheme the food was distributed among the needy learners. Distribution times differed and the surplus was not constant so learners could not rely on it (cf. 5.3).
- The second was that of school uniform. There were procedures in place to identify learners in need of uniform in four participating schools. Learners could also not take advantage of the availability of this programme due to them being shy and afraid. Grade 8 learners were at a disadvantage as measurements would be taken in the last semester of the year and uniform delivered at the beginning of the following year (cf. 5.3).
- The third pertains to programmes provided by the Department of Social Development. Counselling by social workers varied from school to school depending on the social worker allocated to the school. This programme was not effective due to few visits and their perceived inability to work with teachers. Schools received toiletries and sanitary pads for hygiene purposes but there was irregularity in the delivery because pads were not monthly supplied, schools would receive the packs not knowing when they

will receive again. There was a lack of access to the child support grants for learners.

- The fourth was provided by the South African Police Services. The Adopt-A-Cop was working only in two participating schools. The cops would come and give talks to learners about drugs and abuse. They also came to do random searches and patrols around the school.

In some schools there were two programmes that were effective. The main finding is that there was lack of focus in all participating schools regarding the development of support programmes. They relied mainly on national programmes which were more constant than school-based. All school programmes were ad hoc in their nature and lacked consistency. Programmes that were available included (*cf.* 5.3):

- Adopt-A-Learner being implemented in two schools. Learners would be divided among teachers. These teachers would help learners with any form of financial support the teacher could afford.
- School support initiatives where schools devised means to support learners in different ways. In one school boys were allowed to stay at school after teaching time, during the examinations so that they could study. In the same school learners with albinism were supported. Homes visits by 4 participating schools were done to get first-hand information on vulnerable learners' situation. Voluntary counselling was provided to learners by teachers from 3 participating schools.
- There were no programmes that were initiated by the communities. In most participating schools the food garden project was not effective. Only one participating school had an established vegetable garden. The produce from the garden sometimes benefitted learners as well as supplemented food in the NSNP.
- There was also support from companies such as Nature's Choice who helped school B with financial support for learners participating in competitions. An NGO provided learners in school E with food packages. Nurses and Lifeline came to

talk to learners about HIV/AIDS and teenage pregnancy in 2 participating schools. Schools A and B also benefitted from religious organisations who sent pastors to the schools to talk to learners.

What factors hamper the provision of support by the ILSTs to learners from CHH?

There were four factors that were indicated as hampering the provision of support.

- The first factor pertained to the identification of learners from CHH which was done at the beginning of the year for statistical purposes. Learners who became child headed during the course of the year were not included in the lists and therefore, not regarded as beneficiaries of the programmes. Teachers encountered problems in the identification of learners from CHH as they experienced the same problems as other needy children. Learners from CHH do not openly talk about their problems.
- The second factor was related to the lack of policies guiding the support of learners from CHH.
- The third factor was the of lack of leadership in schools. Only one participating school had effective leadership in that the principal managed to draw external stakeholders to provide support, four of the participating schools lacked effective leadership. Participants from schools A and D mentioned that managers were not available and there was a lack of willingness and hard work from the leadership. The lack of leadership impacted the functioning of the ILST.
- The fourth and the last factor pertained to members of the ILST who were not fully committed. Most of the work was left to coordinators to do. The functionality of the ILST was therefore weak.

What factors enhance the provision of support by the ILSTs to learners from CHH?

There were four factors that were indicated as enhancing the provision of support.

- The first factor was good leadership. School B had good leadership and management and this enhanced the provision of support within the school. The principal set a good example by visiting the homes of learners, welcoming external stakeholders to provide support to learners and being a board member of Albinism South Africa who helped learners with albinism in his school.
- The second factor that enhanced support was the availability of programmes from national especially the NSNP, Sanitary pads and security by SAPS. These programmes were provided constantly.
- The involvement of external stakeholders was the third factor enhancing support provision in schools. Stakeholders include companies in the community such as Nature's Choice; NGOs such as LifeLine, and religious organisations.
- The fourth factor was the effort that the district was making in training teachers to provide necessary support to learners including those from CHH.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations presented below for practical implementation of findings are based on the findings discussed above.

6.5.1 Recommendations for practical implementation of findings

In this section recommendations addressing the following research questions are given:

What programmes provide support to learners from CHH by the ILSTs?

The findings show that grade 8 learners were at a disadvantage and were not beneficiaries in terms of the uniform programme. There were learners coming from primary schools in need of the new uniform for high school.

Recommendation: Since the time of measuring the learners' sizes for uniforms, is causing the problem, a change in times for taking measurements for the grade 8 learners can be recommended. This will automatically alter the delivery time. If measurements only for grade 8 learners are taken in January and uniform delivered in April, the problem of these learners not benefitting from the uniform programme could be solved.

Social workers were not consistent in terms of coming to schools to counsel learners. Due to their few visits and inability to work effectively with teachers, this counselling programme was not effective. Collaborative activities between the social workers and teachers were poor.

Recommendation: Thus strengthening the collaborated activities between social workers and teachers can be recommended. With technology such as cell phones, emails and social networking it is much easier to work together even if social workers are not on site. Teachers and social workers can build a relationship in which they share their knowledge and keep in touch in order to work together on challenges and share ideas and support strategies. This will ensure that even though social workers are not coming to schools they can guide teachers and offer their skills over the phone or through email or through social networks. If social workers are not constant with their visits, then teachers can go after school to the social workers at their offices in order to discuss confidential information of learners.

As part of the findings, there was a lack of access to child support grants for learners.

Recommendation: It is recommended that the social development approach schools in order to help learners who qualify for the child support grant with the application process. The social worker can use the list the schools compile to check if all learners benefit from grants. This gesture will make learners who are not aware of this kind of financial support, aware of it. If social development approaches schools and helps learners apply for the child support grant, it will make the process of application much easier for learners and they do not have to travel far to access grants. Social development can assist the learners in getting their documents in order and the application can be done at school.

What are the factors hampering the provision of support by the ILSTs to learners from CHH?

There was a lack of leadership in four participating schools, which hampered the support provision to learners. There is a link between effective leadership and management and the nature of support provided to learners.

Recommendation: The DBST can cluster schools and provide a platform where best practices of principals from different schools can be shared.

The findings indicate that there was a lack of commitment by members of the ILST. ILST members expected the coordinators to do most of the work. This weakens the functionality of the ILST.

Recommendation: There is firstly a need for team work and collaboration between members of the ILST; secondly there is a need for commitment between members. To enhance teamwork, the communication between members need to be strengthened. This can be accomplished by means of regular meetings. The use of technology is a good means to enhance communication. The team can create a group on WhatsApp where all team members can communicate reminders regarding

meeting times, discussions on support strategies or discussions regarding problems encountered. This constant communication by members can enhance teamwork. To ensure that members are more committed, teachers should volunteer to be in the team and not be forced. This will ensure that teachers are committed because only those who are passionate about support provision will form the team.

6.5.2 Recommendations for further research

Based on the aspects that were exposed during this research, a follow up study can be done on:

- factors contributing to the effective functioning of the ILST in supporting CHH;
- the role that leadership plays in the provision of support to learners; and
- the role that external stakeholders play in enhancing the provision of support to learners in school.

6.6 CONCLUSION

In this study the perception of support given to learners from CHH by the ILST were investigated. The literature review looked deep into the phenomenon of CHH highlighting the contextual factors leading to CHH and the challenges experienced by these learners. The essence of support for learners from CHH was also reviewed. The establishment of education support services and the ILST was discussed with a review of programmes at school supporting learners from CHH. There were similarities between the literature review and empirical research regarding the support programmes at school and the implementation thereof. The study highlighted important findings of which recommendations for practice were made.

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