Enhancing school leadership:

Meeting the challenges of HIV and AIDS

Research paper funded by the Embassy of the Kingdom of the Netherlands

Lorraine Marneweck, Maryla Bialobrzeska, Ephraim Mhlanga, Paul Mphisa

4 September 2008



South African Institute for Distance Education

P O Box 31822

Braamfontein

2017

South Africa

Tel: +27 11 403 2813

Fax: +27 11 403 2814

<http://www.saide.org.za>

© South African Institute for Distance Education

This project was funded by

Table of Contents

[Introduction 4](#_Toc294527481)

[Policy Context 8](#_Toc294527482)

[Research Project 12](#_Toc294527483)

[Establishing Supportive Networks: Nutrition, Aftercare and Counselling 19](#_Toc294527484)

[Describing the Programmes 19](#_Toc294527485)

[Analyzing Networking 23](#_Toc294527486)

[Findings 29](#_Toc294527487)

[Conclusions 39](#_Toc294527488)

[Schools conceptualized as centres of care and support 39](#_Toc294527489)

[The resulting expanded role of school leadership 40](#_Toc294527490)

[Necessary professional development 41](#_Toc294527491)

[The role of the Department of Education 41](#_Toc294527492)

[Teachers 42](#_Toc294527493)

[To sum up 44](#_Toc294527494)

[References 45](#_Toc294527495)

Enhancing school leadership: Meeting the challenges of HIV and AIDS

*Over time the role of leaders in South African schools has become increasingly complex. School leaders are required to respond to and then implement a series of sophisticated education policies, often with very little support or training. And as it has become impossible to ignore the impact that HIV and AIDS has on lives of teachers and learners, school leaders also have to respond to the socio-economic circumstances in their school communities. Research conducted by the South African Institute for Distance Education (SAIDE) showed that many school leaders began to intuitively respond to these challenges by creating networks of support for learners around their schools. It also showed that while the form these networks took unfolded in different ways, many of them resulted in schools implementing learner support programmes around nutrition, aftercare and counselling. And in some schools, as a result of the implementation and management of these support programmes, the leadership style became more systematic and sustainable. In contrast, this research also showed that while many school leaders were able to respond to learner needs, there was very little evidence to suggest that schools were equally able to respond to the needs of their teachers. Through presenting an analysis of the support strategies, this paper reveals an interesting and informative picture of how the landscape of school leadership has started to evolve in some South African schools.*

*\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_*

### Introduction

A great deal of evidence exists to show that school leaders have a crucially important role to play in the successful development of their schools. This evidence comes from a range of research traditions, most notably school effectiveness literature (see: Mortimore, 1993[[1]](#footnote-1); Sammons, Hillman & Mortimore, 1995[[2]](#footnote-2); Scheerens, 2000[[3]](#footnote-3); Townsend, 2001)[[4]](#footnote-4). Similar research has also been conducted in the developing world where Heneveld and Craig (1996)[[5]](#footnote-5) identified leadership as one of the enabling conditions for school effectiveness. In addition, a range of school improvement research projects have also revealed the importance of school leadership (see: Hargreaves, 1994[[6]](#footnote-6); Hopkins, 2001[[7]](#footnote-7); Fullan, 2007)[[8]](#footnote-8). This paper acknowledges the importance of school leaders generally in the overall success of the school, and more specifically in terms of the potential they have to mitigate the impact of HIV and AIDS on teachers and learners. It sets out to illustrate that in order to meet the particularly challenging demands of HIV and AIDS, school leaders need to enhance their existing skills.

School leadership is no longer as ‘simple’ as implementing national policies and managing pedagogical processes to maximize learning – tasks that many South African school leaders already found very difficult. Now schools also have to manage and mitigate the impact of HIV and AIDS by establishing care and support structures in their schools and by putting prevention strategies into place (Nkinyangi, 2003)[[9]](#footnote-9). It has been argued that many South African school principals and managers are ill-equipped to meet these expectations and that they place unreasonable demands particularly on people in under-resourced schools (see Jansen, 2007)[[10]](#footnote-10). But when one considers the dire situation and the scale of the HIV and AIDS challenge, it is necessary to think beyond the immediate and obvious functions of schools. It becomes crucial to explore the additional roles that schools are well-placed to fulfill in terms of identifying and supporting vulnerable children and teachers infected or affected by HIV and AIDS.

This paper argues that for schools to function as nodes of care and support for children and teachers, a particular form of leadership is required to enable this new role. It also argues that there are reasonable actions that school leaders can take even in the face of the HIV and AIDS crisis. But it is unrealistic to expect schools and school leaders to fulfill this new role alone without any external official support. It is well known that schools need a balance of pressure and support (McLaughlin, 1986)[[11]](#footnote-11) in order to effect meaningful change; so while it is important to involve the micro-logic of individual schools, it is also important to involve the macro-logic of the system. Thus the Department of Education has a very important role to play in offering meaningful support to schools as they deal with this extremely challenging reality. This paper unpacks this official role and relates it directly to mitigating the impact that HIV and AIDS has on learners and teachers in South African schools.

As this research set out to investigate the extent to which school leadership skills needed to be enhanced to deal with the specific challenges of HIV and AIDS, issues of curriculum delivery in schools’ Life Orientation or other programmes were not investigated. The focus was on how leaders in certain schools managed the health and social needs of vulnerable children and teachers infected or affected by HIV and AIDS. Given that schools find it difficult to respond in ‘deep and sustained ways’ (Jansen, ibid, p. 13) to this crisis and that both teachers and learners need ‘guidance, assistance and treatment’ (ibid*,* p. 27), this makes this research of particular importance.

Interspersed throughout the text of the paper are six case studies that are included to demonstrate the range of leadership competencies demonstrated by leaders in a range of schools selected to be part of this research project[[12]](#footnote-12). They reflect the richness and variety of the leadership styles observed during the research. They also serve to illustrate that reasonable and ‘doable’ responses can be made to this risis even in the most poorly resourced schools.

The rest of this paper is divided into four sections: first the policy context within which this research took place is detailed; second, the actual research project is described in terms of how it responded to the contextual challenges experienced; third, the manner in which school leaders established supportive networks around their schools to care for vulnerable learners is analyzed. This section highlights the extensive leadership skills required to mitigate the impact of HIV and AIDS through implementing programmes like nutrition, aftercare and counselling. And four, the key findings are summarized and conclusions drawn.

|  |
| --- |
| **CASE ONE: Strategies for action…** |
| Vista Lower Primary is a rural school situated in a poor Limpopo community where unemployment is rife. The few people who do work are employed on the surrounding commercial fruit farms. Subsistence farming supports most people, an activity that is totally dependent on the weather. Vista is a quintile three school where every learner is required to pay R 50 school fees per year. But the principal, Mrs Ndukwana, states that the annual default rate is in excess of 50%. The school, with a total of 688 children, has a favourable teacher-learner ratio of 1:30. As there is no running water, the school is dependent on a borehole from which water is pumped into tanks. Vista School does not have a telephone line or e-mail facilities, and the only way of communicating is through the principal’s private cell phone. While the school has 3 donated computers, limited computer literacy on the part of the staff renders these almost unused. The school is connected to the ESKOM grid with electricity primarily used to run a photocopying machine and computers which are located in the principal’s office. The principal’s office also has to doubles up as a library and a storage room for school equipment.  According to school records, 30 learners have been identified as orphaned and vulnerable children (OVCs), and of these 14 are estimated to be affected and/or infected by HIV AND AIDS. The school records do not list learners who are orphaned directly as a result of HIV and AIDS, nor is the problem of HIV AND AIDS infection talked about openly in the community. However the majority of learners are vulnerable because of their poor home backgrounds. Mrs Ndukwana commented that most learners stay with their siblings or with relatives, and as a result, regular food supply is a challenge.  Poverty causes the school to rely heavily on support from official sources and from external donors. After realizing the constraints posed by poverty in the community, Mrs Ndukwana looked for external support. As a result many provincial departments became involved in the school, with the most obvious being Education which helps with infrastructure development as well as training on record keeping and school administration. The Department of Agriculture helps with the school garden, while Health contributes educational posters and assists learners to go to the local clinic. The Department of Water provides water when the borehole does not work.  When Mrs Ndukwana arrived at Vista in 1997 there were not enough classrooms and many classes were run under trees. The school grounds were not fenced and accessing water was extremely challenging. But the principal had learnt about accessing donor funds from her experiences at another school. Today the school has five classroom blocks that accommodate all learners and sufficient space to plan for the extension of the school to include Grade 5 in 2009. Three of these blocks are relatively new; one was built through the assistance of the Department of Education while the others were constructed through funds from the Japanese Embassy. The Centre for Community Development (CCD) started a Woman’s Project aimed at raising funds for school fees through building and sewing. This led to the involvement of the National Development Agency (NDA) which began by supporting salaries for the men and women who worked in the Woman’s Project. The NDA’s involvement soon spread to capacity building training for teachers, school managers and the school governors. Mrs Ndukwana has also secured the help of local businesses, and one bus company supplies free transport as well as food and dishes for special occasions like HIV AND AIDS days.  The principal has organized her staff into teams to work on various aspects of school development and learner support. Apart from the School Management Team (SMT) that implement policies, committees have been established for orphans and vulnerable learners, health and hygiene, nutritional diet and the school garden, and psycho-social counselling for learners. These committees are answerable to the principal and to the SMT. Thus the principal remains constantly aware of what is happening in the committees. She also plays a pivotal role in supporting the committees through mobilizing resources.  Mrs Ndukwana says that the School Governing Body (SGB) is too weak to make meaningful contributions towards school development. The School Management Team (SMT) reportedly has problems in getting members of the SGB to attend meetings, as the latter are usually busy fending for their families on the surrounding commercial farms. Most activities in the school are therefore driven by the principal and her SMT. Although there is no active SGB, the principal has been able to mobilize a tremendous amount of resources from external agencies. |

### Policy Context

Three themes emerged from a review of relevant policies and guidelines dealing with education and issues pertaining to HIV and AIDS in the South African context. These themes relate to a human rights and inclusive approach to education and training, the roles of the School Governing Body (SGB) and the School Management Team (SMT) in mitigating the impact of HIV and AIDS and the notion of schools as centres of community life. The essential aspects of these three themes are reflected below and the implications for school leadership in this research are highlighted.

First, the human rights policy internationally accepted is reflected in the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Children (to which South Africa became a signatory in 1994). The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child and the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996)[[13]](#footnote-13) cover the spectrum of human rights in South Africa including in broad terms, the right to education. Regulations pertaining to human rights in South Africa are provided by policy documents that include the South African Schools Act (Department of Education, 1996 a)[[14]](#footnote-14) and the Admissions Policy for Ordinary Schools (Department of Education, 1998)[[15]](#footnote-15) which both provide for quality education for all learners of school going age. The South African Schools Act states that the rights of all learners must be upheld and that intolerance and discrimination must be combated. As well as setting out the rights of every child to basic education and equal access to educational institutions the National Education Policy Act (1996 b)[[16]](#footnote-16) endeavours to ensure that no person/child is denied the opportunity to receive an education to the maximum of his or her ability as a result of any physical disability. Essentially a broad non-discriminatory approach is taken to those infected and/or affected by HIV and AIDS in these policies.

With particular reference to HIV and AIDS, the National Policy for Learners, Students and Educators (1999)[[17]](#footnote-17) provides comprehensive regulatory guidelines pertaining to the rights and treatment of learners, students and teachers who are HIV positive. While the policy acknowledges HIV and AIDS as one of the major challenges facing South Africa and clearly spells out its effects, it does not provide guidelines as to how districts or schools could put this policy into practice. For example it states, ‘the school…should take into account the needs and values of the specific school…and the specific community it serves’ (p. 15) without supplying any assistance on how schools should do this.

And more recently, this non-discriminatory principle is reflected in White Paper 6 Special Needs Education: Building an Inclusive Education and Training System (Department of Education, 2001)[[18]](#footnote-18) where inclusivity is defined as an approach which maximizes the ‘participation of all learners in the culture and the curriculum of educational institutions and uncovering and minimizing barriers to learning’ (ibid, pp 6-7). Related to this is the notion that barriers to learning and development are predominantly socio-economic in origin. The role required by the Department of Education is implicit in this White Paper which refers to district-based support teams that need to be established to provide an integrated, community-based support service. The White Paper also states that it is necessary to:

…establish a system to identify orphans, coordinate support and care programmes for such learners, put into place referral procedures for educators, and develop teaching guidelines on how to support orphans and other children in distress (Ibid, p. 34).

The focus of the White Paper is on learners with special needs, with HIV and AIDS being mentioned as one of a range of infectious diseases that impact on children’s ability to learn. This inclusive policy approach set within the context of human rights has implications for all research conducted in the area of school leadership. Schools should expect to have learners and teachers whose lives are negatively impacted by HIV and AIDS. Schools need to make adjustments to the way they are managed and governed to meet these learners’ and teachers’ needs. And research needs to help school leaders understand how to make these adjustments in a reasonable manner that takes contextual differences into account.

A certain critique needs to be raised with regards to the policies mentioned here. The policies on HIV and AIDS are located in a ‘political domain rather than in the realm of practice’ (Jansen, 2001[[19]](#footnote-19), p. 272) where they have ‘symbolic value’ (ibid, p. 273) rather than enabling characteristics. This ‘over-investment’ (ibid, p. 286) in symbolism at the ‘expense of practical considerations’ (ibid, p. 286), raises a series of questions about the implementation of such policies. If policy and practice were strongly linked, ‘we would expect a government bureaucracy to outline concrete steps that would be taken to implement such policies’ (ibid, p. 274). But this is not the case as the Department of Education – national, provincial and district – gives little substance to HIV and AIDS. For example, the five-year broad plan of the department does not include HIV and AIDS as a direct priority area. And while there is a great deal of policy ‘busyness’ (Jansen, 2007[[20]](#footnote-20), p. 13) around HIV and AIDS, it lacks depth, directions and detail. Jansen also points out that schools are demanding places and that ‘what those in power want is for schools to respond to every conceivable social problem’ (ibid, p. 11). Couple this with the pressure on schools from various lobbying groups, the situation becomes even more untenable as the HIV and AIDS agenda ends up competing with a myriad of other constituent interests.

Second, a number of educational policies detail the role that official leadership structures have to play to enable access to quality education for all children. For example, the South African Schools Act (1996) stipulates that among the functions of the School Governing Body (SGB) possibly the most important role is its commitment to promoting the best interests of the school through the provision of quality education for all learners at the school. The National Policy on HIV and AIDS for Learners, Students and Educators further explains the role of the SGB:

It is envisaged that the governing body of a school…should give operational effect to the national policy by developing and advocating an HIV and AIDS implementation plan that would reflect the needs, ethos and values of a specific school or institution and its community within the framework of the national policy (Department of Education, 1999, p. 6)[[21]](#footnote-21).

The policy also states that working with School Management Team (SMT), the SGB:

…should establish its own Health Advisory Committee as a committee of the governing body or council. Where it is not possible to establish such a committee, the school should draw on expertise available to it within the education and health systems. The Health Advisory Committee may as far as it is possible, use the assistance of community health workers led by a nurse, or local clinics (ibid, 16).

These leadership requirements have implications for this research. School governors are expected to ensure that the responses they make to the HIV and AIDS problem are contextually relevant to the schools and the communities that they serve. They also need to understand that it is imperative to draw the community into the school in order to address these problems. These stipulations also require the SMT and SGB to know and understand national policy; they also need to be able to give effect to that policy in a manner that is contextually appropriate. In addition, the SGB has to assume financial responsibility for school funds, help create a sense of trust among parents and give practical support to the SMT. This research showed that many of these tasks were not within the ability of even the most ‘active’[[22]](#footnote-22) SGBs.

Third, the conceptualization of schools as centres of community life which deal ‘urgently and purposefully with the HIV and AIDS emergency in and through the education system’ (Department of Education, 2000 a, pp 7 & 8) was originally set out in the Tirisano Implementation Plan for 2000 to 2004[[23]](#footnote-23). This notion is detailed in the Norms and Standards for Educators (Department of Education, 2000 b)[[24]](#footnote-24) where the roles and competences required for the development of teachers are listed. A ‘community, citizenship and pastoral role’ (Department of Education, 2000 b, p. 10) is included as the teacher is required to act beyond the limits of the classroom and school grounds and expand his/her reach into the community. This role requires that teachers be able to:

…respond to current social and educational problems with particular emphasis on the issues of violence, drug abuse, poverty…HIV and AIDS…Accessing and working in partnership with professional services to deal with these issues (Ibid, p. 10).

This suggests that school leaders cannot work in isolation and that they need to interact with a range of stakeholders to develop their schools. This development is best done through establishing a broad care and support system around schools. Schools are also required to source professional partnerships to become centres of care and support. This research has found examples of these partnerships in practice with specific reference to nutrition, aftercare and counselling.

|  |
| --- |
| **CASE TWO: Proactive…insightful…involved** |
| Oxford Girls Primary School is situated less than 5 km from Johannesburg’s city centre. Established 90 years ago, it is one of the oldest schools in Johannesburg. Over the years, the community that the school serves has changed considerably from the children of what was largely a middle class, Jewish community to the children of a predominantly black African community. This contemporary community is comprised mainly of immigrants and refugees from neighbouring African countries, in particular, French speaking refugees from the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC).  Mrs Smit, the principal, has identified that 90% of the 500 learners are orphaned and vulnerable children (OVCs). This means that the majority of children in the school require some kind of socio–economic or psycho-social support. About 200 children (40% of the total enrolment) are from refugee families and, as such, have a range of psycho-socio and economic needs that require special attention. This high percentage of OVCs at the school means that there is a great need for care and support in a range of spheres within the school community. As a quintile four school, Oxford Girls Primary School does not receive food from the provincial nutrition programme, despite serving a predominantly poor community with high rates of unemployment. Applications to the Gauteng Department of Education for learners to be considered for the nutrition programme have been turned down without reasons being provided. Thus the school has taken responsibility for feeding between 100 and 150 learners daily. To do this the school has to rely on monetary donations and food provided by the successful vegetable garden.  In lieu of fees, parents are asked to volunteer their services to programmes run in the school. The principal assesses the parents’ skills and language levels and deploys them in the school accordingly. Some parents help with cleaning, some look after the vegetable garden, some work as teachers’ assistants in the classrooms and one parent assists with the school’s aftercare programme. In addition, Mrs Smit has integrated a school/homework support system in the daily programme to offer learners academic support. The aftercare facility at the school runs during school time and in the holidays. This facility is run by the Grade R teacher who also makes it available to some young children who attend an Early Childhood Development (ECD) Centre situated across the road from the school and whose parents are unable to fetch them when the centre closes at around midday. The aftercare offers a meal, a set period for the children to do their homework and a programme of ‘fun’ activities. The Grade R teacher liaises with her colleagues if she picks up a need for remediation in any particular area, thus forming a useful feedback loop.  The proactive leadership of the principal has made a huge difference in this school. Through her commitment, insight and values-based leadership she has invested in training and motivating her staff to be part of an integrated and systematized approach to supporting learners and enabling them to access quality education. Included in this is a contractual agreement between the school and the Johannesburg Parent and Child Counselling Centre (JPCCC). This contract involves identifying vulnerable learners and following through with the necessary support actions. The principal is required to keep records regarding vulnerable learners and home visits.  Because the school actively supports vulnerable children itenjoys a positive relationship with the community in terms of support and respect. This can be seen through the high level of parental participation in school activities and functions. |

### Research Project

This qualitative research study began in late 2006 with SAIDE setting out to investigate ways of strengthening management of schools in the environment of HIV and AIDS.

From an overview of various interventions aimed at supporting schools to mitigate the impact of HIV and AIDS in schools, it soon became apparent that there were many initiatives in this field. However, a considerable number of these did not appear to continue beyond the pilot stage and many of the pilot projects were also never evaluated. While doing this overview, SAIDE came across the Soul City pilot on the brink of being implementated.

SAIDE decided to link its first round of field work to the Soul City pilot initiative ‘Schools as Nodes of Caring’. The focus of this initiative was on building the capacity of principals and School Governing Bodies (SGBs) to provide leadership in creating caring and supportive environments for learners rendered vulnerable by HIV and AIDS. SAIDE’s intention had been to access the value of this approach and to distil examples of good practice.

In preparation for this project, Soul City collected data in six schools to develop case studies which described examples of good practice in mitigating the impact of HIV and AIDS on vulnerable learners. These cases revealed a number of common features including strong leadership by the principal, high levels of community involvement and trust, and targeted interventions by external agencies. In addition, the cases also revealed a range of supportive practices like establishing school-based vegetable gardens, uniform ‘banks’, after school care with supervised homework, and home visits. But the cases also showed that these interventions were often uneven in their implementation and generally unsystematic.

Based on the examples documented in the case studies, Soul City developed a training guide[[25]](#footnote-25) which they used in two-day workshop sessions for SGB members. It was intended that the principal, a teacher and a parent representative from each of the selected schools would attend these training sessions. SAIDE attended six of these workshops which were held with a number of quintile one and two schools and visited 18 schools across three provinces (Mpumalanga, Free State and the Western Cape). This participation led SAIDE to think critically about the role that school leaders need to play in mitigating the impact of HIV and AIDS in the lives of their learners and educators. And given the context of these schools and the capacity of the SGBs, SAIDE also realized that the in-depth involvement of the School Management Team (SMT) was crucially important.

This shift to include the SMT as well as the SGB led SAIDE to concentrate its attention on school-wide interventions rather than on *ad hoc* initiatives implemented by individual teachers which SAIDE researches observed in many of the schools visited. This shift was not meant to diminish the impact of these individual teacher’s actions, but rather to seek out interventions that could be systematized and had the potential of making a difference on a larger, school-wide scale. Issues pertaining to sustainability also needed to be high lighted. SAIDE acknowledged that to successfully implement and sustain care and support programmes, school leaders needed to be adept at identifying and harnessing resources – human and material – that would best assist them in setting up and running these programmes. Thus the issue of leadership is central to this research which ultimately recommends an enhanced set of skills for school leaders.

At this point SAIDE moved into Phase Two of the project which began with two key activities. First, through their workshop observations and consideration of the case study data, SAIDE concentrated on five school-wide interventions which seemed to have a positive impact on learners and teachers who were affected or infected by HIV and AIDS. These interventions were:

1. Creating networks of support for learners and teachers;
2. Running effective nutrition programmes for learners;
3. Providing school-based aftercare for learners;
4. Supplying psycho-socio support in the form of counselling for learners; and
5. Establishing support for teachers.

Second, SAIDE began the process of selecting a more purposive sample of schools where several of these interventions were already successfully occurring. The aim was to document examples of good practice that could eventually be shared and replicated. In order to source this more purposive sample, various stakeholder groups were approached to assist in the identification of schools. The following organizations were involved in sourcing schools that already had effective programmes in place for orphans and vulnerable children (OVCs): provincial HIV and AIDS Life Skills Coordinators; the head of the South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU) HIV and AIDS desk; and representatives of Media in Education Trust’s (MiET) ‘Schools as Centres of Care and Support’ (SCCC) programme. Finally a sample of 18 schools across seven provinces was selected in the project.

A set of extensive and specialized data collection tools was developed including in-depth interview schedules for each of the five targeted areas and a detailed school profile questionnaire. To begin, the research team conducted telephonic interviews with school principals to ascertain which schools would provide the richest data for each intervention. After these conversations, decisions were made as to which intervention would be focused on in which school(s). At this point the sample was reduced to 16 schools as the telephone interviews revealed that two of the schools were not actually implementing any of the support interventions identified. The research team then conducted their directed interview(s) in each of the 16 schools and completed the profile questionnaire. See Table 1 below for details.

**TABLE ONE: DETAILS OF SCHOOLS**[[26]](#footnote-26) **SELECTED**

| **Province** | **School** | **Rural (R)**  **Urban (U)**  **Township (T)** | **Quintile** | **Case Studies** |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Limpopo | Skosana Primary School | R | 2 | Nutrition  Counselling |
| Vista Primary School | R | 3 | Networks |
| Phalime Secondary School | R | 2 | Networks |
| Eastern Cape | Leshabane Primary School | R | 4 | Nutrition |
| Mbedzi Primary School | T | 5 | Nutrition  Counselling |
| Gauteng | Oxford Girls Primary School | U | 4 | Aftercare  Counselling |
| Naledi Primary School | T | 3 | Nutrition  Aftercare |
| Hlophe Secondary School | T | 3 | Nutrition  Counselling  Networks |
| North West | Baropodi Primary School | R | 2 | Nutrition |
| Mashamba Primary School | R | 2 | Nutrition  Networks |
| Dlamini Primary Shool | R | 1 | Counselling |
| Mpumalanga | Tshabalala Primary School | T | 3 | Teacher Support |
| Ulundi Primary School | R | UNKNOWN | Teacher Support |
| Free State | Zuma | T | 1 | Nutrition  Aftercare  Network |
| Kwa-Zulu Natal | Ndlovu Primary School | R | 1 | Nutrition  Aftercare  Networks |
| Radebe Secondary School | T | 4 | Nutrition  Counselling |

Researchers used their interview data to develop case studies on each of the interventions contained in the table above. In total, nearly 30 school-based case studies were developed. The case studies were used to write up a detailed synthesis document for each of the five intervention areas. These synthesis documents and the case studies were analyzed to ascertain the range of leadership skills demonstrated across the sample. The analysis revealed a particular manner in which school leaders established support networks. The case studies presented in this paper are pen sketches drawn from the school-based cases and the synthesis documents to distill the leadership characteristics demonstrated by school leaders.

Four interconnected challenges emerged out of conducting research in this context all of which led to it being difficult to hold a tight focus on supporting learners and teachers infected or affected by HIV and AIDS. First, the deep silence and stigma around HIV and AIDS meant that much of the information gathered during school­-based site visits was often rather opaque and that the identification of vulnerable children requiring specific assistance proved to be vague, understated, unsystematic and largely unrecorded. The process for identifying orphaned and vulnerable children (OVCs) is highly complex as it involves screening, identification, assessment and support, and the necessary follow-on into curriculum adaptation. It also requires a level of management from leaders that is often absent in South African schools.

Second, researchers found that it was almost impossible to probe learner and teacher needs exclusively in the context of HIV and AIDS. There are a number of reasons for this, the first being the approach taken to research HIV and AIDS which is generally holistic or integrated (Giese, 2003[[27]](#footnote-27); Badcock-Walters & Whiteside, 2000[[28]](#footnote-28); Coombe, 2000).[[29]](#footnote-29) This is generally suggested in acknowledgement of the multifaceted nature of the HIV and AIDS crisis in South Africa. This approach led researchers to consider a wide range of initiatives that schools implemented to address the broad socio-economic problems experienced by teachers and learners in the schools sampled. These initiatives ranged from strategies for collaboration with various agencies through the provision of meals and supervised homework to the need for psycho-social counselling to assist traumatized learners. A particular definition of the notion of ‘vulnerability’ was used to guide the research. The definition emerged over time and takes into account work done by UNICEF (2006)[[30]](#footnote-30) and the National Plans of Action for Orphans and Vulnerable Children in sub-Saharan Africa (Engle 2008)[[31]](#footnote-31). In addition, the definition was also informed by work done by many South African institutions and organizations concerning the provision of support and care to vulnerable children in South Africa (Children’s Institute, Soul City, Save the Children, MIET). Embedded in the resulting definition is the notion of children orphaned by HIV and AIDS, and the notion of children made vulnerable by a wider range of socio-economic issues resulting from varying degrees of poverty. In this study, vulnerable children are those that:

* Are orphaned (one or both parents have died)
* Are hungry and do not bring food to eat at school resulting in an inability to pay attention in class
* Are living on their own, or with grandparents or other family
* Have parents who are sick
* Are care givers to others who may be sick
* Are not properly cared for at home
* Are physically or sexually abused
* Do not attend school
* Are visibly neglected (not clean, need clothes and school uniforms)
* Have emotional problems (they bully others, cry a lot, are quick to get angry, are sad)
* Are unable to pay attention in class
* Are unable to manage their school work (their work is not up to standard and/or their work is often behind)
* Are physically sick/have no one to take care of them when they are sick
* Appear abused
* Lack confidence

This type of broad definition was also used at the 17th International HIV and AIDS Conference recently held in Mexico City where Penelope Campbell (2008) argued that broader targeting is appropriate in high prevalence settings. All of these issues resulted in it being very difficult to hold a tight focus on HIV and AIDS during the research.

Third, while schools made an attempt to support orphans and vulnerable children (OVCs) at school, nothing was done when such learners did not present themselves at school. Given that absenteeism is one of the most common problems associated with OVCs, there is need for schools to provide academic compensatory support in order to enhance the academic achievement of these vulnerable learners. It is important to note that academic achievement is in itself an important factor that motivates learners to remain in school, but where learners do not achieve academically their chances of dropping out of school are very high. Various models can be used to support learners who frequently miss lessons. For example, the notion of ‘a school in a bag’, where absent learners are constantly kept engaged with academic work is a useful approach to take. (Reference here). As is the approach where learners are in contact with their teachers through the medium of a ‘buddy’. In this model, teachers send reading materials and homework to absentee learners through the buddy. The absent learners do their work and give it back to the buddy to take to the teacher at school, who in turn marks the work and provides feedback. Within the community, additional support can be provided through a ‘catch-up club’ where a group of absent learners meet and receive assistance with their academic work from an advisor. The advisor works closely with the school, and is supplied with support learning and counselling guides that are used to afford maximum help to the learners. Apart from organizing the work progamme, the class teacher also needs to keep a register of children ‘at risk’ of repetition due to poor attendance. The teacher must also note who could drop out of school due to poor test results. School leaders have a role to play in that they must ensure that the ‘at risk’ register kept by the class teacher is kept up to date. They also need to follow up on each child in the register by visiting the home to provide support for living and encouragement for learning.

And fourth, very little support directed at the specific needs of school teachers was discovered. Only two schools had any initiatives for teachers; and even in these schools there was a lack of clarity concerning the ‘Prevention Care Treatment and Access’ (PCTA) programme. The PCTA was aimed at educating and informing teachers about the HIV and AIDS pandemic and what teachers affected and infected could do about their situation. Peer counsellors were expected to support teachers by listening to their problems and ensuring that they had time to go for consultation and treatment when necessary. The SMT had a role to play in that they had to ensure that school policies were compatible with these arrangements. Despite the lack of clarity in certain instances and contradictions in others, what is clear is that this programme allowed for the dissemination of further information on HIV and AIDS to teachers.

In conclusion, this research set out to directly investigate school leadership in the context of HIV and AIDS. But due to the circumstances raised above, it became impossible to hold such a tight focus as broader socio-economic problems began to impact on the school leadership actions observed in the schools.

|  |
| --- |
| **CASE THREE: Charismatic, organic leadership** |
| Ndlovu Primary School is in a rural area of KwaZulu-Natal. The school serves a very poor community where water is scarce and agricultural activity is limited to small scale cattle and goat rearing. Ndlovu relies on the local council to deliver water to its tanks. While the main road is in good condition, the road leading to the school is a dusty trail overgrown with grass. The principal, Mrs Zami, has been the main driving force in this school for the last ten years. When she came to the school there were many out-of-school children in this community. Mrs Zami had a vision of bringing education to the community, but there were no school buildings. She describes how in 1998 she started the school with 200 learners under four trees – one for each of the first three grades and a tree that served as an office. She reports, *“I was alone by that time. I was the only teacher, the principal, the teacher, everything”* Mrs Zami talks passionately about how the school developed from being under a tree in 1998 to now having three classroom blocks and an administration block to support learners from Grade One to Grade Seven.  Mrs Zami has the ability to harness support from different organizations and from the local community. Through networking she has been able to raise funds to get support for orphaned and vulnerable children (OVCs) in her school. Phinda Game Reserve was responsible for building three classroom blocks so that teaching and learning did not have to take place under trees. The community had already started building one block on its own; an event that impressed Phinda and encouraged them to commit their financial resources. Instead of asking the game reserve for additional money for food and uniforms, Mrs Zami and some of her learners provided hospitality support to overseas tourists at Phinda. For this they were paid R 14 000. Some tourists, impressed by the efforts of the principal and touched by the plight of the school, donated an additional R 8 000. This fundraising continues with the principal having been overseas to raise funds, and with tourists continuing to visit the school and offer donations. All finances that the principal receives are deposited in the school account by the SGB treasurer. The principal makes it a point to call on the SGB treasurer as soon as she receives any funds.  Ndlovu Noah Phinda Ark started in 2007 as a joint venture between Phinda Game Reserve, NOAH (Nurturing Orphans of AIDS for Humanity), Media in Education Trust (MiET) and the school. As well as running its own programme, Schools as Centres of Care and Support (SCCS), MiET also provides funding for community volunteers. As NOAH runs a programme directly aimed at assisting OVCs, they provide the bulk of the funds for additional activities like aftercare, extra nutrition and other support including home care visits as well as training care givers. The ark programme also operates in a local secondary school. Mrs Zami argues that you cannot help a learner in her school but not her sister in the secondary school when they are both parentless and in need. Also, you cannot ignore Ndlovu learners as soon as they move on to secondary schools.  The principal has drawn on a range of other networks, for example local businesses in the community, the Nelson Mandela Children’s Fund, Drama Aide, the New Zealand Embassy, a school in Sweden and the Lotto. Some of this support has been once off assistance that was secured through persistent requests, through referrals from contacts or through chance meetings; but much of it has been sustained and provides ongoing aid to the school.  The passion, strong will, community actions and persistent personality of the principal has resulted in the school enjoying a circle of support for OVCs. There are state of the art classrooms, there is support for OVCs in terms of food, uniform, aftercare, and clothes; and the school is now able to attract trained teachers. Through support the school obtains from its web of networks, a culture of care and caring for needy learners is cultivated in the school and this is likely to continue should Mrs Zami leave the school. The teachers, learners, and the community at large associate the school with that culture and perceive it as a home for learners. |

#### Establishing Supportive Networks: Nutrition, Aftercare and Counselling

This study confirmed what other reports have conveyed regarding the majority of schools in South Africa, and indeed in developing Africa; that they are in communities that are too poor to support themselves in a meaningful way, and as a result, operate under severe resource constraints.[[32]](#footnote-32) This has led to schools being overwhelmed by the problem of increasing numbers of learners at risk, commonly referred to as orphaned and vulnerable children (OVCs). In the 16 schools visited for this research an average of 20% of all learners were deemed to be vulnerable, though many principals believed the number to be much higher. Two key concerns are raised from this scenario; the first relates to the scale of the problem. With such large numbers of learners coming to school in traumatized states, no meaningful learning can occur unless measures are taken to mitigate the effects of their social conditions. The second relates to the extent that school leaders can manage this extensive problem. Even though the situation is desperate, schools have little capacity to support the psycho-social needs of their learners. This study showed that as a response schools with limited resources drew in some of the additional help their learners needed through establishing supportive networks around their schools. It also demonstrated that creating a culture of care for OVCs resulted in many schools institutionalizing nutrition programmes, aftercare facilities, and counselling opportunities for learners.

Two key issues are probed in this section: first, the form that the nutrition, aftercare and counselling programmes took are described; and second, the manner in which school leaders established support networks around their schools is analyzed.

#### Describing the Programmes

Good *nutrition* is a key factor contributing to learner attendance and performance at school, especially for OVCs and children living with HIV and AIDS. This was clearly demonstrated in cases one, two, three, four and five provided throughout this paper. The Department of Education Report prepared by the Community Agency for Social Enquiry (CASE) on Absenteeism (2007)[[33]](#footnote-33) confirms the benefits of school nutrition programmes and cites food as a key motivating factor in school attendance. Teachers in several schools noted that learners looked more alert and participated better in class after a meal. This realization lends credence to Maslow’s (1970)[[34]](#footnote-34) theory of human motivation being based on a hierarchy of needs. The needs at the lowest level of the hierarchy are physiological, including hunger and thirst, and must be satisfied before a person can realize safety, emotional and self-actualizing needs. Thus nutrition, which meets a primary human need, is a foundation for ensuring development and learning.

This basic need for food has been acknowledged by the Department of Education which funds a largely decentralized provincial feeding programme. The minimum norms set by the national Department of Education require that primary school learners in quintiles one, two and three be fed a cooked meal every week day of the school term. Provinces receive their grants based on the number of learners registered in schools. National guidelines set in 2004 allocate R1.50 per learner per day with 93% of the grant being allocated to food and 7% to administration. So while R 1.50 is allocated for each learner, 80c is spent on food, 30c on administration and a further 40c on preparation and cooking by community ‘volunteers’ who are paid a stipend. Schools in quintiles four and five with learners requiring the nutrition programme have to apply to the provincial Department of Education, documenting the number of vulnerable or ‘needy’ children in the school. But as Case Two illustrates this process is not clear cut and an equitable solution cannot be guaranteed.

Problems have been experienced with this national programme, most notably in terms of provincial variations to the norm. For example, in Kwa-Zulu Natal it was reported that per child spending on the nutrition programme is R 1.30 and not R 1.50; and in North West, only schools in quintiles one and two receive food from the nutrition programme. Another challenging issue relates to the responsibility for implementation being delegated to the school who have to identify the number of OVCs requiring the feeding scheme. They also have to identify people in the community who will be responsible for supplying food and preparing meals for these learners on a daily basis. The school must also provide the facilities and storage space needed to run the nutrition programme. A senior teacher has to be nominated by the principal to oversee the programme. Members of the School Governing Body (SGB) also play active roles in the nutrition programme, for example by identifying vulnerable children in the broader community, by nominating cooks and by being signatories for payments. Schools are required to keep records of invoices from suppliers, payments made and the number of learners fed daily. Payment systems vary between the Department paying the service provider directly and the Department making a grant available to the school which then pays the service provider. Case Three and Six reflect on the financial roles played by their SGBs in relation to programmes implemented in the schools.

Ten out of the total number of schools included in the sample had this type of nutrition programme. In summary, the following problems were identified in relation to the implementation of the school nutrition programme:

* Nutrition programmes do not operate over weekends and school holidays.
* Nutrition programmes do not serve secondary schools.
* Nutrition programmes in some provinces or districts are *ad hoc* and diminishing.
* There are no set criteria for deciding how many children are eligible to receive food in any given school.
* It is difficult for schools to update the information they provide to the Department of Education concerning the growing number of children who require food.
* The Department of Education stipulates administrative procedures but rarely inspects files and records kept at schools.
* The quintiles in which schools are placed are inaccurate.
* The food provided in the programme is repetitive and often of poor quality.
* Quintile four and five schools have to look for funds to implement their own nutrition programmes for needy learners.

But the nutrition programmes observed at many of the schools went beyond the official feeding scheme offered by the Department of Education. School leaders recognized that the levels of hunger and poverty among learners in their schools required that they had to supplement the provincial nutrition programme. The most common enhancing activities initiated by school managers included raising additional funds from local businesses to feed more learners, establishing vegetable gardens on school property and networking with Community Based Organizations (CBOs) and Faith Based Organizations (FBOs) in their communities to augment the programme. These actions are clearly seen in Cases Two, Four and Five. Many schools have enough vacant land on the school property to allocate space for a vegetable garden which creates a source of food to supplement the nutrition programme and benefits others in the local community. In communities where many are poor and unemployed and have no access to land, and where rates of HIV and AIDS are high, establishing vegetable gardens is an important way of maintaining the health and strength of families.

*Aftercare* facilities were established in four of the schools visited in acknowledgement of the lack of a safe place for learners to spend their afternoons. Across the four schools included for the original case studies, three different approaches emerged to set-up and manage aftercare programmes. In the first approach the school, under the leadership of the principal, made the necessary arrangements to set-up and manage homework support and an aftercare facility. Case Two is an example of this approach. Second, an approach was observed where a group of concerned adults in the community approached the school with the idea of setting up and running an aftercare facility on its behalf. And in the third approach, the aftercare facility was the initiative of an external agency (see Cases Three and Six). In this third approach some of the external programmes were in collaboration with the provincial Department of Education – for example MiET’s Schools as Centres of Care and Support Progamme – and some were introduced independently of the department – for example NOAH (Nurturing Orphans of AIDS for Humanity). But a common trend was little or no involvement from school leaders.

Aftercare arrangements for learners played a key role in supporting orphaned and vulnerable children (OVCs) in a number of ways across the schools. Typically most aftercare facilities offered a meal, and for many children this was the only proper meal they received for the day. Some aftercare facilities functioned only as safe places for children to stay after school, while others extended this service to offer structured homework support, programmes of extramural activities and opportunities for psycho–social counselling and a referral system for accessing social security grants.

Various forms of *counselling* services were introduced in six of the schools to address the psycho-social needs of traumatized learners. Generally, the common responses identified through this study included setting up systems for identifying learners at risk and providing them with some first-level counselling at school level, in most cases on an *ad hoc* basis. This type of counselling was mostly provided by teachers who were not trained and who offered the service out of their own sense of care and responsibility, as was the situation in Case Five. In a few instances more systematized counselling systems were identified, where counselling was provided at school level by a designated teacher who had undergone some form of psycho-social training. In such cases, there was also a referral system where learners were sent to external professional counsellors. Some of these counsellors were interns who came to the school under the supervision of their lecturers. But if the problem was serious enough, the intern referred the child to more experienced help. In these few instances, the counselling service was systematized and professional as well as being dependent on a substantial investment of resources from the school. See Case Two for a description of this form of counselling.

The actual choices that school leaders made in terms of aftercare and counselling in particular were often based on what organizations and agencies were to be found in the vicinity of the school. An example of this can be found in Case Two where the principal entered into a formal partnership with the Johannesburg Parent and Child Counselling Centre (JPCCC) as this organization is situated close to the school. While other schools may also have benefitted from this type of partnership, they could not access it due to their geographical location.

|  |
| --- |
| **CASE FOUR: Prioritizes needs according to context** |
| Mashamba Primary School is found in the North West Province surrounded by commercial farms. The school largely serves the nearby informal settlement with a large community made up of farm labourers who have lost their jobs as well as immigrants from other countries and provinces. As many of the learners come from neighbouring countries, they are officially un-documented. Most of the parents are unemployed with alcohol and substance abuse being rife. It is reported that consequently, abuse against women and children is also high. The community has been badly affected by HIV and AIDS; impacting on the number of orphans and/or infected learners at Mashamba. As is the case in many communities, the silence around HIV AND AIDS makes it difficult to ascertain the exact number of people affected or infected by the virus.  Mashamba has 14 Department of Education teachers in the school including a Grade R practitioner. The School Governing Body (SGB) is described as ‘active and enthusiastic’ by the principal, Mrs Ramusliei who does acknowledge that even though they attend meetings, they do not have the capability to be proactive and assume leadership in governance issues. There are 402 learners with 206 being identified as vulnerable. Mrs Ramusliei is unsure how many of these orphaned and vulnerable children (OVCs) suffer from HIV AND AIDS as this is still a stigmatized condition. Mashamba has running water, electricity, one computer but no e-mail connectivity. A range of extra mural activities are offered including soccer, netball, volleyball and gymnastics.  Mrs Ramusliei acknowledges this context and has responded to it by first looking to the Department of Education for support. In 2007 Mashamba became a ‘no fee school’ meaning that it received additional funds from the Department. Some of this money was used to erect a fence to secure the school. Other departmental sponsored initiatives include a school nutrition programme and a garden which supplements the food supply. The Department of Education also supports a transport scheme for learners to and from the school as well as a referral system for OVCs.  But this type of official assistance is not sufficient and Mrs Ramusliei has identified other organizations that help her improve the school and the care it can offer to OVCs. One of these organizations, Media in Education Trust (MiET), was brought to the school by the Department. MiET’s project, ‘Schools as Centres of Care and Support (SCCS)’, built on pre-existing school initiatives but in a more systematic and structured manner. The project helped link Mashamba to a Cluster Child Care Coordinator (CCC) and the local AIDS Council. These structures coordinate their activities to share resources and reduce duplication.  Through this networking the principal has introduced other organizations and government departments to the school. These include social workers, the Department of Home Affairs, the South African Police Services (SAPS), the Department of Agriculture and the Department of Health. Other organizations that have assisted the school include local businesses and Soul City. |

#### Analyzing Networking

After analyzing the data collected, a particular framework emerged from the schools in terms of how networks were established across the sample and how this framework impacted on the manner in which the three selected support programmes of nutrition, aftercare and counselling were implemented and managed. This framework is based on two distinct approaches that school leaders used to set up and manage these networks of support. The first approach, the proactive approach, is characterized by school leaders who took the initiative in terms of how care and support interventions were implemented in their schools; and the second approach, the passive approach, involves leaders who played a limited role in the external care and support projects implemented in their schools. Given that this paper aims to provide examples of good practice, it concentrates on school leaders that used a proactive rather than a passive approach.

Evidence suggests that the proactive approach in this study is defined by the following leadership characteristics in school leaders. For example, proactive school leaders:

* 1. Openly acknowledged the challenges their learners faced on a daily basis.
  2. Used their knowledge of the context to direct their networking attention to specific organizations and institutions.
  3. Established webs of interconnected activities to support learners.
  4. Took ownership of external programmes though their direct involvement in managing, administering and implementing projects.
  5. Built on developments that had already begun in their schools.
  6. Included the role of community activist in their official roles.

School leaders who were able to *openly acknowledge the challenges their learners faced* were more likely to proactively source appropriate supportive networks to address these problems. As has already been explained, little or no mention was made concerning the problems associated with HIV and AIDS in particular. In fact it was only the principal in Case Six who was able to be fairly open concerning HIV and AIDS in his school. Thus the most constraining challenge generally identified was that of poverty and its associated social and emotional problems. Case One typifies this. Some of the related problems included learning under trees because of lack of classrooms, hungry and de-motivated learners, abused and traumatized learners, and the problem of learners ridiculed by their peers because they had no uniform. But the school leaders who acknowledged this context did not become paralyzed by the magnitude of the problem; rather they concentrated on addressing some of its constitutive parts, like nutrition, aftercare and counselling. And by doing this they made enormous differences in the lives of their learners and indirectly began to mitigate the impact of HIV AND AIDS in their schools and communities.

In a ministerial review of what makes schools work, Christie, Butler and Potterton (2007)[[35]](#footnote-35) define quality leadership as principals who ‘demonstrate an understanding of the history and identity of the school and deep commitment to the community in which the school was located’ (p. 78). The examples of school leadership provided here are similar to this and to what Hall and Hord (1987)[[36]](#footnote-36) call the school leader as responder and diagnostician (Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson, 1996)[[37]](#footnote-37). Useful concepts for understanding this type of leadership are distributed leadership and contingency leadership which both have interactive natures where value is placed on the ability to take cognizance of the particular situation in a school (Diamond, 2007)[[38]](#footnote-38). Several examples taken from the data collected reflect this style of leadership where responsibilities for networking were shared as ‘varieties of expertise [which] are distributed across the many and not the few (Bennet, Wise, Woods & Harvey, 2003[[39]](#footnote-39), p. 7). For example, the principal of Zuma (Case Six) became aware of the growing number of child-headed households in his area and realized that there was a need to enhance the nutrition programme that the department offered to some of his learners. A local business man and the owner of the biggest football club in the region were approached by the principal for assistance with food donations and the purchase of a stove and gas. The ability of the principal to acknowledge the problems his learners faced led to not only the provincial feeding programme being enhanced but also led to the beginnings of a comprehensive aftercare programme in his school. And the principal of Oxford Girls Primary School (Case Two) acknowledged the fact that many of the learners in her school required psycho-social assistance. She was also sensitive to the fact that neither she nor her teachers were equipped to offer this support. So through her knowledge of the context and her initiative, suitable professional counselling services were introduced and institutionalized in the school.

In a related issue, proactive school leaders used their understanding of the challenges their learners faced to *direct their attention to specific networks*. This relates to how school leaders mapped community resources with a view to entering partnerships. While these partnerships seemed to focus on helping schools create a caring and supportive environment for orphaned and vulnerable children (OVCs), learners and teachers, ultimately they could also serve to mitigate the impact of HIV and AIDS. The examples cited here are illustrated through a continuum of possibilities related to the school leaders’ roles in community mapping and entering partnerships. At one end of the continuum are school leaders who first establish supportive and caring environments in their schools and then seek out particular partnerships to enhance the culture of care that already exists. And at the other end of the continuum are schools that have externally initiated projects implemented by outside agencies, with little or no support from the school leaders. Drawing on examples from the data collected cases are situated along this continuum with a view to considering which have the greatest chance of experiencing sustainability.

For example, the principals of Hlophe (Case Five) and Vista (Case One) both established school-based committees aimed at supporting OVCs; the committees were comprised, and run by, teachers under the leadership of the principal. The principal of Oxford Girls Primary School (Case Two) also looked inward to provide learners support with their school work. She did this through implementing a very simple strategy that could be replicated in any school. Every teacher is required to stay in her/his classroom for an hour at the end of the school day to make themselves available to support learners with their school work. The principal also established an aftercare programme which runs both during the school term and school holidays for approximately 30 children. Blase and Anderson’s (1995)[[40]](#footnote-40) conception of the facilitative role of school leaders and Leithwood, Chapman, Corson, Hallinger and Hart’s (1999)[[41]](#footnote-41) notion of participative leadership are evoked by these actions. And Lambert (1995)[[42]](#footnote-42) theorizes about reciprocal processes where leaders:

…enable participants in a community to evoke potential within a trusting environment, to reconstruct or break set with old assumptions, to focus on the construction of meaning, or to frame actions based on new behaviour and purposeful intentions (p. 47).

The principal of Mbedzi also drew on in-school expertise to provide counselling support for her learners. A support team made up of teachers was established to take care of learners’ counselling needs. The team’s main role was to work with teachers to identify learners in need of special care, including counselling. This identification process was systematized in the school and teachers saw it as one of their official roles. The school principal documented the process and invited learner’s parents / guardians to explain the problems being faced and the measures the school proposed to take to mitigate the effects of the problems. Essentially Mbedzi School assumed a new role not found in many schools in the country; that of caring and supporting learners in emotional and psycho-social stress through a well-planned system of counselling. This support encouraged vulnerable learners to remain in school, and research has shown that access to schooling is an important ‘social vaccine’ that can help reduce the spread of HIV[[43]](#footnote-43). The actions of this principal are demonstrative of Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson’s (2005)[[44]](#footnote-44) work with leaders who adapt through changing human behaviour to meet the demands of the situation. These types of leaders also learn to operate differently to suit the situation; they call for change and manage it.

School leaders also looked externally for support from official structures or from more informal organizations outside the school. For example, Vista (Case One) formed partnerships with a range of provincial departments; whereas the principals in both Ndlovu (Case Three) and Mashamba (Case Four) sourced help from local businesses and non-governmental organizations. Some of their fundraising efforts resulted in once off support for specific projects or events, while other funding provided sustained support. Examples of the more sustainable initiatives are Ndlovu Primary School which developed a link with Phinda Game Reserve, and Naledi Primary School which has a long term relationship with the East Rand Trust to support aftercare and nutrition programmes. The principal of Oxford Girls Primary School carefully investigated organizations that offered counselling services in her area and identified the Johannesburg Parent and Child Counselling Centre (JPCCC) – a nonprofit organization located within the vicinity of the school – as a key partner. The principal then negotiated with this organization so that it would offer counselling to learners at her school. The school entered into a contractual arrangement with the JPCCC which included practical arrangements made by the counsellor and very importantly, the role the school was expected to play in the partnership. Hayward (2008)[[45]](#footnote-45) writes of the invitational leader who helps the schools through including the community in its key activities.

But no matter whether school leaders looked inwards and/or outwards for support, they all drew on their understanding of the context to prioritize areas of need. In other words it was not *ad hoc* support that they sourced, but rather assistance directed at specific individuals, institutions and/or organizations that could address acknowledged challenges. In all these examples it is important to note that the principal took the initiative to approach the individuals or organizations based on a clear vision of what s/he wanted in her/his school. This part of the framework is best understood in terms of Fullan’s (2000)[[46]](#footnote-46) three stories of educational reform. The ‘inside story’ (p. 581) shows that there is no substitute for internal development, while the ‘inside-out’ (p. 582) story demonstrates that schools cannot develop on their own and that they need assistance for parents, the community, corporate connections and government policies. Fullan cautions that these external forces do not come in helpful packages and that the role of school leaders is to work out how to make its relationship with them a productive one. And finally, Fullan’s outside-in story is strongly suggestive of assistance from the Department of Education in general and the district office in particular.

Successful support networks functioned as *webs of interconnected initiatives* where one initiative led almost seamlessly to the next. The data presents many examples of this, for example successfully involving the South African Police Services (SAPS) in creating a safe and stable environment around Hlophe School as Case Five showed led to the network expanding to include the Community Police Forum (CPF) and the Justice Forum. And the Woman’s Project established in partnership with the Centre for Community Development (CDC) and Vista School as Case One showed led to interest from the National Development Agency (NDA). The NDA started off by supporting the existing initiative but soon branched out into other areas like literacy, management and governance training. Another example is that of the combined efforts of NOAH (Nurturing Orphans of AIDS for Humanity), Media in Education Trust (MiET), Phinda Game Reserve and Ndlovu School who worked together in an interconnected manner to implement a successful aftercare programme. This concerted effort is detailed in Case Three which shows how these different initiatives helped to maximize limited resources and minimize the deep rural location of the school.

It is tribute to the networking efforts of these school leaders that many organizations worked towards the same goal and were able to pool resources to meet these common purposes. The contribution made by actors in the networks complemented each other in various ways in achieving the final objective, supporting orphaned and vulnerable children (OVCs) to be able to fully participate in achieving a quality education. Support networks of this nature also helped to promote sustainability as the burden of support was spread and did not all hinge on one organization, which if it were to withdraw its support could signal the end of the intervention. It is evident that assertive and proactive leadership in these schools led to the establishment of strong networks of organizations that supported the schools in their areas of need. Many of the organizations that the school leaders worked with led them from one organization to another, thus creating webs of support networks that all contributed towards the welfare of needy learners in the schools. Networking is vital if schools are to succeed in offering sustainable support to their learners. Where schools try to operate in isolation and neglect the social capital in their communities, they fail to mobilize enough resources to develop sound support programmes. All of the cases set out in this paper are illustrative of support networks of one form or another.

Even when the Department of Education brings a caring and support project to a school, it has much more chance of success if school leaders *take ownership of the external programme.* There is need for support programmes to be initiated within schools, which in turn should seek external support, but still remain at the core of their implementation. This ensures ownership of the external initiatives. This was the case in both Mashamba (Case Four) and Zuma (Case Six) where the principals internally managed, coordinated and reported on projects implemented by MiET and Save the Children (UK) respectively. But the case of Zuma and Save the Children (UK)’s ‘Caring Schools’ project is of particular interest here as a contractual agreement which served to enhance notions of school leadership with respect to external projects was entered. The agreement stipulated the actions and responsibilities of school structures like the School Management Team (SMT) and the School-Based Support Team (SBST). The SMT was expected to take ownership and responsibility in providing leadership for the programme and ensuring that it succeeded in creating a caring school for learners. It was also expected to ensure that the school integrated all other support initiatives that it might have into the Caring Schools programme. The SBST was responsible for day-to-day liaison, support and guidance provided to the programme’s Youth Facilitators. The school reported a drop in absenteeism since the introduction of the nutrition and aftercare programmes in the project. They also reported that the children were in better health and that there was a noticeable improvement in learner performance. The fact that the Save the Children (UK) programme is underpinned by a contractual agreement seems to be a useful device for trying to promote a systematized approach to this type of care and support programme; an approach that almost forces the school to assume ownership and responsibility.

A similar example is that of Oxford Girls Primary School (Case Two) who entered into a contractual agreement with the Johannesburg Parent and Child Counselling Centre (JPCCC). Ongoing communication between the counselling service and the school was built into the contract and roles and responsibilities were clearly defined. The principal was responsible for contacting parents and preparing written referrals detailing the personal information pertaining to the learner and his/her home circumstances. The principal also briefed counsellors on new referrals and received feedback from them on progress of learners undergoing counselling. In this respect the role of the principal was central in enabling, coordinating and managing this external support intervention.

A characteristic of school leaders who have been proactive in establishing support networks is that of *building on what they already have* in their schools*.* For example, the principal of Ndlovu (Case Three) had already started building a classroom block which assisted her in securing local business funds for additional blocks. And the principal of Mashamba (Case Four) had already started support initiatives for orphaned and vulnerable children (OVCs) before the Department of Education introduced the ‘Schools as Centres of Care and Support’ (SCCS) programme. The SCCS, run by Media in Education Trust (MiET), built on pre-existing initiatives in the school but in a more systematic and structured manner. Its objectives included empowering the school so that it was better able to address HIV and AIDS and to provide care and support for OVCs and teachers. It also aimed to ensure that the initiative was managed and sustained through school-based leadership structures. In another example of building on what already exists, the principal of Mbedzi realized that her deputy principal was already skilled in counselling care. The deputy holds a Bachelor of Education (Honours) degree in Guidance and Counselling; she has also attended several departmental workshops on counselling. These skills made the deputy an invaluable asset in the school in terms of providing counselling support to learners. Through the deputy’s assistance, the principal built additional systems to support needy learners at school and forged links with relevant external agencies. The principal used skills that already existed in her school to initiate first level counselling in response to the identified needs of learners in the school.

|  |
| --- |
| In all of the examples presented above and in the cases provided throughout this paper, supportive networks were established as a result of *school leaders being community activists.* As well as fulfilling the more traditional requirements of school development and the implementation of policy, these school leaders brought their role of community activists into their professional lives. They used their community contacts to mobilize support for their schools in a range of successful ways. These individuals broadened the notion of what it means to be a school leader and the roles schools play in the communities they serve. **CASE FIVE: Task-driven management and leadership** |
| Hlophe, a township secondary school in Gauteng, is surrounded on all sides by houses. The double storey classroom block is well maintained and a fence secures the school. Hlophe is a quintile three school with 1 762 learners, 30% of whom are designated orphans or vulnerable Children (OVCs) by the principal, Mr Mokoena. The 56 teachers at the school have access to four computers for administrative purposes as well as e-mail. The school runs a range of extra mural activities including sports, chess and music.  Mr Mokoena, who has been at the school for many years, is a strict disciplinarian. The manner in which he manages punctuality is evidence of this. For learner punctuality he locks all latecomers out as soon as the early morning bell rings. For teacher punctuality he has implemented compulsory daily early morning meetings. This has been met with acceptance as a cordial relationship appears to exist between Mr Mokoena and his staff. They are close knit team who have the well-being of the school at heart.  Mr Mokoena is a member of the HIV AND AIDS committee established at Hlophe. This committee coordinates all efforts to assist the OVCs including a vegetable garden, bereavement activities and home visits for learners. Individual teachers offer limited counselling services and school nutrition.  The principal acknowledges the challenges his school faces and believes that taking on the role of community activist will help his school succeed. He has been very successful at securing outside support for his school and in establishing supportive networks especially around the issue of safety and security. This came about from his involvement with the police which led to interactions with the Community Police Forum (CPF) and the Justice Forum. Many positive benefits have been experienced as a result of these networks. For example the school is respected and feared by criminals, and good communication strategies exist internally as the principal keeps his staff aware and informed about networking activities. |

### Findings

A key finding of this research has been the recognition of the importance of the care and support role played by schools and the formal acknowledgment that, while teaching and learning is the core business of any school, for many vulnerable learners, the care and support offered by the school is a pre-requisite for their participation in the schooling system.

The schools in the sample used in this study were stratified across all quintiles in seven provinces and represents a range of primary and secondary schools in rural, township and urban settings. However, as the schools were purposively sampled, the information collected on learners rendered vulnerable as a result of HIV or a range of other socio-economic factors is indicative of the sampled schools onlyand is not representativeof the wider population**.**  However, using abroad definition of vulnerable, the percentages of OVCs in the schools range from 4% to around 90%, highlighting the scale of this problem. In a separate study commissioned by the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) the prevalence of HIV infection among teachers was found to be 12.7 nationally (Shisana, 2005)[[47]](#footnote-47). This is higher than the 11% national average figure. The ELRC study also reflects marked provincial variation[[48]](#footnote-48) (Hall et al, 2005, p. 23)[[49]](#footnote-49). Strategies for better supporting teachers and managing teacher absenteeism are therefore also imperative. Several lessons emerged from this study regarding how establishing supportive networks in schools could help to put well-systematized programmes in place. These programmes could serve, even in some small way, to mitigate the impact of HIV and AIDS on learners and teachers. The lessons learnt have been distilled into key findings which are described below. The concluding section ends with a proposed approach suggesting some basic and, what are believed to be, manageable interventions. Some of the important skills school leaders need to acquire in order to establish supportive networks around their schools are focused on, as well as the implementation of specific school-based initiatives. The enabling role that the Department of Education needs to play in supporting schools is also sign posted.

|  |
| --- |
| **FINDING ONE:**  In the sample selected, it was found that it was only through changing what the schools stood for and how they were led that these schools were enabled to support teachers infected or affected by HIV and AIDS and learners made vulnerable by the impact of HIV and AIDS and a range of socio-economically related concerns. The lesson learnt is that schools have to undergo a paradigm shift to become centres of care and concern. Making this shift is a precondition for successful learning and teaching to take place. |

Equipping schools with the resources and capacity to deal with HIV and AIDS related issues is not simply a matter of equipment, furniture and buildings – for which additional money can be arranged – rather it is a radical paradigm shift. The necessity for this shift is noted by Jansen (2007)[[50]](#footnote-50) when he writes:

One thing is clear, if the education system was designed for responsiveness to the pandemic, the organization, content, delivery and outcome of schooling would be very different from the standard arrangements (p. 67).

The second finding points to the fact that this paradigm shift has serious implications for schools and school leaders as they need to be equipped with skills that go beyond teaching and the ordinary range of school management and administrative issues.

|  |
| --- |
| **FINDING TWO:**  School leadership is very important in mitigating the impact of HIV and AIDS on vulnerable children and teachers infected or affected by HIV and AIDS. |

The third finding probes the issue of school leadership within such a paradigm shift – what does this shift really mean in terms of leadership style?

|  |
| --- |
| **FINDING THREE:**  This research found that a variety of leadership styles enabled schools, in a variety of contexts, to create supportive programmes for learners and teachers. |

The six case studies in this paper represent the range of skills leaders demonstrated.

Case One (Strategies for action) suggests that school leaders need to be skilled and creative in developing strategies to address specific challenges; they also must be able to develop and implement practical actions that give substance to these strategies. This is similar to Spillane, Halverson and Diamond’s (2004)[[51]](#footnote-51) notion of the school leader as strategic manager. In Case Two (Proactive… insightful… involved) the principal had a vision towards which she worked. This vision was created out of an insightful and critical understanding of her school community. Once the vision was clear, then practical steps were taken with other school leaders to work towards that vision. Good communication skills were required as were involvement and insight. These skills evoke Minzteberg’s (1975)[[52]](#footnote-52) notion of the leader’s role as disseminator of information and Fullan’s (1996)[[53]](#footnote-53) ‘action-based theory of leadership’ (p. 720).

Case Three (Charismatic, organic leadership) is possibly the only school whose successes rested on the individual personality traits of the principal herself. But while it may be impossible to teach someone to be charismatic, all school leaders can learn how to use every opportunity to access funds for support programmes. While we accept Christie, Butler and Potterton’s (2007)[[54]](#footnote-54) contention that there is need for a ‘more sophisticated understanding of leadership than that offered by…the ‘heroic’ principal’ (p. 75), this should not detract from the achievements of this particularly dynamic leader.

Case Four (Prioritizes needs according to the context) also demonstrated that school leaders need to properly understand their school’s context and work within it, much like the adapting component of leadership written about by Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (1996)[[55]](#footnote-55).

Case Five (Task driven management and leadership) illustrated that basic compliance issues which ensure functionality need to be addressed before networks can be established. Blake and McCanse (1991) cited in Hersey and his colleagues (ibid) write that task-oriented behaviour can be a form of impoverished management. But in the South African context, this task-driven style does have a role to play especially in the more dysfunctional schools. Additional implications of this type of leadership are detailed by Hayward (2008)[[56]](#footnote-56) who speaks of the assertive leader who focuses his/her teachers on tasks that need to be managed.

Case Six (Managing interventions) stresses the need for school leaders to initiate contact with external agencies and then actively participate in any project that is brought in as a result. This resonates with both Hall and Hord’s (1987)[[57]](#footnote-57) definition of the school leader as an initiator, and Minztberg’s (ibid) idea of the leader as an entrepreneur.

These cases demonstrate that apart for the accepted school leadership roles which Leithwood, Chapman, Corson, Hallinger and Hart (1999)[[58]](#footnote-58) list as instructional leadership, transformational leadership, moral leadership, participative leadership, managerial leadership and contingent leadership, the following skills are required by school leaders who aim to support learners and teachers in the school:

* Ensure school functionality as a pre-condition for other developments;
* Demonstrate a sound knowledge and understanding of the social context of the school;
* Use every opportunity to develop the school;
* Accurately identify problems learners and teachers face;
* Prioritize these problems;
* Develop critical strategies to address the problems;
* Put insightful but practical actions in place to solve these problems;
* Have good communication skills;
* Initiate contact with external agents; and
* Actively participate in external projects.

Kelly (2000)[[59]](#footnote-59) identified six preconditions that need to be in place for schooling to be provided and managed differently in the contexts of high HIV prevalence and poverty:

1. Greater flexibility.
2. Increased resourcefulness and openness to change.
3. Tolerance for diverse solutions and models.
4. Willingness to loosen up bureaucratic constraints and procedures.
5. Co-operation and collaboration with several partners.
6. Meaningful decentralization based upon school autonomy and effective participation of local stakeholders.

These preconditions can be used to enhance the framework of additional management and leadership competencies. If the school is to play a greater role in responding to the vast range of socio-economic and cultural factors that make children vulnerable, then it is vital that they be equipped to do so.

In summary, school leaders need to be knowledgeable and skilled at identifying and mobilizing resources (both human and material) within the school and beyond which enable them to set up and sustain programmes for vulnerable children. Once support programmes are in place the school leaders need to be fully involved in their management and implementation. All schools in South Africa need to do this as the impact of HIV and AIDS cannot be ignored by anyone. But the task is much harder for schools with limited financial resources as they have to engage the services of a range of government departments and forge links with external agencies. These school leaders must learn to network with Community-Based Organizations (CBOs) and Faith-Based Organizations (FBOs) to acquire food, training, funds and other forms of assistance. They also need to learn how to raise funds from local businesses, organizations and individuals to source a regular income stream to sustain their activities and projects over time. This raises the challenge of how support programmes can be maintained once the external funds and assistance are withdrawn. This study showed that school leaders who used every opportunity to establish support structures and programmes in their schools were both proactive and successful. These kinds of leaders put training to good use, for example they drew on funding proposal skills gained in workshops to successfully apply for funds, and they accurately prioritized school, learner and teacher needs. The more community standing the school leaders had the more likely it was that they were able to mobilize that community to assist the school. Irrespective of where support projects were initiated, those that were coordinated and managed by a school leader had the greatest chance of success and sustainability. Record keeping skills are very important in relation to HIV and AIDS, especially with reference to psycho-social counselling. But records were generally poorly kept as school leaders were reluctant to note information concerning HIV and AIDS on the grounds that this would not be confidential. School leaders need to be helped to keep systematic records as these are important in terms of planning and support. External projects need to actively encourage and model accurate record keeping as is illustrated in Case Two. It is crucially important that these enhanced leadership skills be included in the official set of competencies required by school leaders; it is equally important that school leaders receive training on these additional skills.

|  |
| --- |
| **FINDING FOUR:**  This research found that a discourse of vulnerability existed across the schools. This discourse embedded HIV and AIDS in a range of socio-economic issues including poverty. The tendency to subsume HIV and AIDS into a wider conception of vulnerability served to increase the silence and stigma associated with the pandemic and to marginalize it in practice. |

The schools in this study all operated under varying conditions of poverty. For example, unemployment was high, violence was rife, substance abuse and HIV and AIDS were prevalent. Given this context, the schools did need as much and as varied forms of support as possible. This resulted in support programmes that dealt with broad issues like nutrition, aftercare and psycho-social counselling being implemented in the schools. However, apart from the standard curriculum offerings that taught HIV and AIDS in the context of Life Orientation, the schools did not develop any programmes dealing directly with HIV and AIDS.

While the necessity for the nutrition, aftercare and counselling programmes is unquestionable, problems emerge when one considers the level of stigmatization and silence around HIV and AIDS. Basically HIV and AIDS issues become lost and the focus so diluted that very little real or directed impact is made. The problem is that as HIV and AIDS becomes marginalized in the face of other poverty-related issues, the silence and stigma continues and the challenges are never fully addressed. Christie, Butler and Potterton (2007)[[60]](#footnote-60) talk of the ‘enormous resistance’ (p. 95) to talking about HIV and AIDS resulting in what is everyone’s business becoming no-one’s business. Thus it becomes very important to consider the ways in which children affected by HIV and AIDS need specialized support. HIV and AIDS related suffering and vulnerability makes it harder for children – and indeed adults – to ask for help and to access support. This is largely due to the feelings of shame and alienation that result from the stigma around the disease. Possibly this could explain schools’ reluctance to 'name' the problem and to be pro-active in finding solutions. The stigma attached to HIV and AIDS possibly causes a mismatch with resources because while there may be a lot of help available for orphaned and vulnerable children (OVCs), it cannot be effectively used, as school communities shy away from the OVC label.[[61]](#footnote-61)

The need for the silences and stigma surrounding HIV and AIDS to be addressed was discussed at the ANC conference in Polokwane where – among other issues – a mass mobilization campaign to increase AIDS-awareness[[62]](#footnote-62) was suggested.

|  |
| --- |
| **FINDING FIVE:**  Teachers and principals interviewed reported that the nature of learner vulnerability required that the support concentrate on areas like nutrition, aftercare and psycho-social counselling. These programmes made a positive difference in the lives of these vulnerable children. This view was also corroborated by the researchers’ observations during school-based site visits. |

SAIDE’s research showed that these sorts of support programmes can be implemented in schools with limited resources. In particular, the following three programmes were reported to have positive influences on the lives of vulnerable children:

1. A *school nutrition programme* which ensured that the most vulnerable learners received at least one meal a day.
2. An *aftercare programme* which fed learners and provided a safe place in the afternoons. Some aftercare facilities also provided places for learners to do their homework under adult supervision and a range of other structured activities. Vulnerable children were provided with extended opportunities to interact with peers and ‘friendly’ adults in the aftercare. Social warmth, which was often lacking in the children’s homes, was experienced in the facility.
3. *Psycho-social programmes in the form of counselling* which provided traumatized learners with the emotional support they required to come to terms with issues such as bereavement and abuse.

|  |
| --- |
| **FINDING SIX:**  This research found that to implement support programmes for vulnerable children, school leaders looked for assistance first from within their own school communities. School leaders involved teachers, the School Governing Body (SGB), local businesses, local government services, and various non-governmental organizations involved in implementing support programmes for vulnerable learners. |

Many school leaders first looked within their own schools for assistance with vulnerable learners; and they did this successfully. Examples were cited in this paper where school leaders identified additional skills and interests in their teaching staff and built support programmes around them. Realistic ways in which School Governing Bodies (SGBs) could assist with learner support were also found. In many instances, while the SGBs could not fulfill their mandated functions concerning school governance, they did provide financial guidance and practical help with support programmes. In addition, many schools received a range of support from their local communities, which could be as basic as the parents collecting firewood for the feeding scheme, but none-the-less, demonstrating that even in the poorest areas, it is possible to enlist the assistance and support of communities. In other instances, long term partnerships with local business were established. Essentially a common-sense understanding and appreciation of the concept of vulnerability took root in the school communities, essentially manifesting a notion of community, originally propagated in the *Implementation Plan for Tirisano (DoE:2000-2004)[[63]](#footnote-63)* and now being endorsed as an approach to combating crime in South Africa by Cyril Ramaphosa and Graca Machel *et al* at the launch of the *Action for a Safer South Africa* Convention in Midrand at the end of August 2008.[[64]](#footnote-64)

This finding is best understood in the context of Fullan’s (2000)[[65]](#footnote-65) three stories of educational reform. In particular, the first story, ‘the inside story’ (p. 581) which shows that there is no substitute for internal development, and the second, ‘the inside-out’ (p. 582) story which demonstrates that schools cannot develop on their own and that they need assistance from parents and the community. But, Fullan cautions that these external forces do not necessarily come in helpful packages and that the role of school leaders is to work out how to make their relationships with them productive. This is a point well made in relation to this research where it was found that sustainable external help occurred where school leaders were actively involved in both the coordination and management of outside programmes.

|  |
| --- |
| **FINDING SEVEN:**  The research found that HIV and AIDS and the large range of socio-economic factors impacting on children’s lives was so complex that schools could not manage their responses to these alone. All of the schools in the study require additional assistance from the Department of Education, which they believe has a very important role to play. |

The Department of Education has a very important support role to play in assisting schools establish a culture of care and support. Even though some of the schools in the project were classified as quintile 4 or even 5, these socio-economic classification were not completely accurate and all schools required support to make the required paradigm shift. Fullan’s (ibid) third story, ‘the outside-in story’ strongly supports the notion of significant support, monitoring and provision of infrastructure by the Department of Education.

The research showed that when the Department created an enabling environment around schools, then schools were in a better position to support vulnerable learners. And in very practical terms it was found that this support was enhanced in schools where the Department provided infrastructural development and where for example, the provincial nutrition programme were more consistently implemented. At the end of this section, some possible approaches to creating a more enabling environment are suggested.

|  |
| --- |
| **FINDING EIGHT:**  The research found that when collaboration took place between government departments the approach to learner support was more integrated and thus more successful. This suggests that the Department of Education needs to forge stronger links and partnerships with other governmental ministries as well as with civil organizations and importantly, with the schools themselves. |

This research demonstrated that much of the support that schools need to address the issue of HIV and AIDS and the range of socio-economically related challenges that face schools, fall outside the actual remit of the Department of Education. For example, it is important that the following departments also provide support – Health (access to clinics and health care), Water (access to drinking water), Social Development (access to social grants) and Welfare (access to social workers). Linking with the police services also serves to ensure the safety and security of the school. The Department of Education needs to forge links with these departments and services on behalf of schools.

In addition, the nature of inclusive education and HIV and AIDS policies require sophisticated matrix- style project management with a strong multi-sectoral component. It is important that this form of collaboration not only take place at a national level, but also at provincial and district levels in practical ways. But in practice multi-sectoral collaboration is not an easy task as departments tend to be organized hierarchically, and matrix-style management does not occur. Different government departments are not accustomed to working jointly on projects, and are not structured to do so as they are accountable for their own policies, rather than those of other departments. The nature of the partnerships need, instead to be focused on collapsing ‘defensive administrative and bureaucratic boundaries’ (Jansen, 2007, p. 69) for the sake of enabling schools to become centres of care and support. This need for departments to work together in an integrated manner to fight poverty has been acknowledged at the highest levels. For example, at national level, the former agricultural director-general, Masiphula Mbongwa has been put in charge of the government’s latest anti-poverty programme. Mbongwa put forward an integrated governmental approach when speaking of the need for departments and local authorities to work together in a coordinated way to fight poverty[[66]](#footnote-66). And the Deputy President, Mlambo-Ngcuka also recently spoke of an integrated approach in which government departments like Education, Health, Social Development and Home Affairs would collaborate as the government’s strategy for dealing with poverty[[67]](#footnote-67).

At provincial level, the Western Cape has for some while been implementing its *Social Transformation* *Programme,* an integrated approach to social service delivery coordinated by the office of the provincial premier. The programme involves a number of government departments including Social Services, Education (in particular the HIV and AIDS Deputy Chief Specialist, Care and Support), Health, Home Affairs, and the South African Police working together collaboratively.[[68]](#footnote-68)

|  |
| --- |
| **FINDING NINE:**  Existing policies pertaining to HIV and AIDS and Inclusive Education were not taken up robustly by the Education Department and as a result many implementation problems resulted. |

The research found that while national policies do exist to mandate schools as centres of care and support, the fact that they do not enjoy financial support for their implementation is profoundly problematic. Russell Wildeman (2007)[[69]](#footnote-69) of IDASA reflects on the financing of inclusive education at provincial education level. He talks of the policy modesty of Education White Paper 6[[70]](#footnote-70), which includes HIV and AIDS as a barrier to learning in arguing against a greater flow of resources to inclusive education initiatives. The only new funding that was promised would finance non-personnel aspects such as the mobilisation of excluded learners and assistive devices. He identified two financial issues, namely a lack of funds for the mobilisation of out-of-school youth and financial challenges around resourcing physical infrastructure and assistive devices.

The fact that provinces avoided aggressive campaigns to get ‘special needs’ learners into schools reveal the folly behind policy implementation without significant resource backing. A fragmented implementation reality results as what is achieved is still determined by capacity (financial and otherwise) and is not yet a function of policy.

|  |
| --- |
| **FINDING TEN:**  During the course of this study no instances were found of academic support for learners who were unable to attend school either due to their own illness or for any other reason. |

While the *National Policy on HIV/AIDS for Learners, Students and Educators*, is clear that if and when learners with HIV or AIDS become incapacitated through illness, the school should make work available to them for study at home and should support continued learning where possible… Or provide older learners with distance education (DoE, 1999 pp 9 -13)[[71]](#footnote-71) No school in this study had any system in place to support learners with school work missed due to illness or other reasons.

|  |
| --- |
| **FINDING ELEVEN:**  The research discovered that while varying levels of support existed for vulnerable children, little or no support was provided for teachers infected or affected by HIV and AIDS. |

Despite the high prevalence of HIV infection amongst teachers reflected in the ELRC study mentioned above, researchers on this project were met with silence on the issue of teachers infected or affected by HIV and AIDS and failed to gather information pertaining to teacher support initiatives, bar one. This was the Prevention Care Treatment and Access Programme (PCTA) a collaborative intervention set up by a number of teachers unions with the South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU) and the National Association for Professional Teachers of South Africa(NAPTOSA) playing the lead roles. The programme comprises a peer counselling system which is intended as a school – based support system and a privately sponsored programme which allows teachers to call a toll free number and be directed to a private doctor for free counseling, testing and treatment.

Only two of the schools sampled were aware of the PCTA programme.

The needs of infected and affected teachers are marginalised and are neither acknowledged nor addressed. Teachers are not in the socio-economic bracket of extreme poverty. This means that teachers do not present with the obvious problems of very poor children in that they do not come to school hungry or dirty; but many of them do come to school sick, in ill-health and very often depressed[[72]](#footnote-72). None of the schools had systems of substitution which could, at a very basic level, help to support ill teachers and the continuation of teaching and learning when teachers were absent.

Serious questions need to be asked about this lack of support for teachers and why school leaders and the Department of Education fail to nurture and support them. When teachers are seen as 'resources' or 'tools' to implement care and support, and where no acknowledgement is made of the traumas in their own lives, teachers may become objectified and depersonalize.

### Conclusions

In this section we put forward some preliminary ideas on how the findings from this study could be translated into achievable interventions to support vulnerable learners, especially those infected and affected by HIV and AIDS. Ideas on teacher substitution to mitigate the impact of teacher absenteeism are also proffered.

#### Schools conceptualized as centres of care and support

A new paradigm for schools needs to become entrenched, one in which schools are conceptualized as centres ofcareand support. This notion is not a new one as such, but one well rooted in existing policy, most notably, the*Implementation Plan for Tirisano* (Department of Education, 2000-2004) and the Education White Paper 6 *Special Needs Education: Building an Inclusive Education and Training System* (Department of Education, 2001) among others[[73]](#footnote-73). The need to make the shift from a narrow focus on what schools do and how they are led, to the notion of a school as a centre of care, becomes urgent when one takes cognizance of the number of orphaned and vulnerable children (OVCs) as evidenced in this research sample alone. The challenge is to give realizable, practical expression to this policy.

We propose that while retaining their emphasis on teaching and learning, schools need to focus on a few well chosen interventions. This study suggests that basic nutrition, psycho-socio support, aftercare and support with school work are preconditions for successful learning and teaching to take place. Schools will therefore be required to build supportive networks to:

* Better manage, strengthen and expand the current provincial nutrition programmes;
* Establish aftercare facilities; and to
* Manage psycho-socio support and referral services

While currently a number of large non-governmental organizations, notably NOAH (Nurturing Orphans of AIDS for Humanity), Save the Children UK and MiET (Media in Education Trust), are working with schools, engaging in a range of similar interventions to support vulnerable children, these interventions have been integrated in a context where the school has not been reconceptualised in the manner cited above by Jansen (2006)[[74]](#footnote-74).

For the notion of a school as a place of care and support to truly take hold, a shift in the way the role of schools is thought about needs to take place at all levels of the education system. For example, it is important to enable proactive school leadership as a necessary part of the very fabric of each school and district, to ensure buy-in and concerted effort from all key stakeholders in the immediate school community. Support from the provincial and national departments of education as well as other departments involved in social services is also required.

The education departments in Kwa-Zulu Natal and the North West province are already working collaboratively with MiET to implement a model of schools as centres of care and concern. Such initiatives deserve high level-support, careful planning and rigorous monitoring to ensure replicability.

#### The resulting expanded role of school leadership

The concept of the school being expanded to include notions of becoming a centre of care and support, inevitably results in a concomitant expansion of the role of the school leadership. New responsibilities will have to be assumed.

The leadership team will need to take on more explicit mentoring and management roles in relation to staff, as well as skillfully developing the buy-in and support of the school governing body (SGB) and the parent community at large. But most important, this study exemplifies the importance of establishing effective support networks. This approach to harnessing support is suggested as a mechanism for establishing the kinds of interventions suggested. Setting up these networks is likely to require school leadership to engage with a range of different target groups and organizations simultaneously. Although this may be achieved in a variety of different ways, it may be useful to visualize this process as a set of concentric circles of support. Starting by drawing on skills within their schools, leaders can then look beyond the school walls to the community to map and utilize available resources

However, it is important to remember Fullan’s (2000)[[75]](#footnote-75) cautionary message in his ‘inside-out’ story (p. 582) of educational reform. He says that while schools cannot develop on their own and need external assistance, the role of school leaders is to work out how best to manage these interventions to make relationships optimally productive and sustainable.

Added responsibility for the SMT requires additional resources the SMT has access to, for example, the need to extend the time that the SMT has at its disposal to perform its additional functions.

#### Necessary professional development

It is likely that many principals and SMT members will themselves lack these kinds of skills and require a different form of capacity building to that currently offered to school leaders. This has implications for the type of continuing professional development needed. While acknowledging the Department of Education for developing the Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) in Leadership and Management for school principals, the current content of this programme is not responsive to the type of needs described here. In fact, as it presently stands, the programme does not have a module dealing with vulnerable children nor with HIV and AIDS.

#### The role of the Department of Education

If schools are to become centres of care and support, they will require extensive support from the Department of Education.

* First and foremost, the school nutrition scheme needs to be fully functional and expanded wherever possible.
* Resources need to be made available to support auxillary activities.
* Large agencies like NOAH (Nurturing Orphans of AIDS for Humanity), Save the Children UK and MiET (Media in Education Trust) who are involved in school-based programmes for support of orphans and vulnerable children (OVCs), provide stipends to support auxiliary staff working in individual schools or within a cluster of schools. This study has found that the payment of stipends makes a significant difference to the sustainability of such interventions, as does the presence of additional staff to take responsibility for facilitating a number of support initiatives. The lesson learnt is that even very modest financial support to schools is enabling and can make the difference between such interventions succeeding or not. *Thus the proposed interventions such as the strengthening and expanding of the provincial nutrition programmes, with school food gardens, or the setting up of aftercare and homework support facilities and systems for grant referrals and psycho-socio support, do need to be resourced.* In making care and support a precondition to all else that happens in schools and districts, the Department of Education needs to include care and support as a budget line item, foregrounding it in all school and district development plans.
* **Numbers of OVC should inform the resource allocation.** This would enable the Department to take into account the actual number of OVCs per school when planning and implementing teacher and resource allocations to schools.
* **The Department can facilitate more accurate planning.** A systematic school-based process supported by the education district office for identifying OVCs is a necessary precondition for proper planning. A simple information management system is needed for capturing and processing information on OVCs that will help to facilitate planning and management of support interventions, per school and per district. Currently school data collected is sent to the provincial education department office for processing with very little or no feedback to district offices and schools.

The current quintile system needs to be revisited and updated in respect of determining the socio-economic position of schools (even in the small sample frame used in this study, examples of incorrectly classified schools were encountered).

* **District offices have roles to play in supporting and monitoring.** Dedicated district officials need to be identified to help schools fulfill the mandated obligation of implementing support programmes for learners and teachers. This responsibility needs to be viewed as a core function of these officials and not just an additional task added to an already over-stretched day.
* **The Department can work collaboratively with other stakeholders.** The national and provincial departments of education as well as the district offices need to mobilize and play a coordinating role in involving other departments, especially from the support services cluster to enable effective support programmes in schools. Departments to consider a multi-sectoral collaborative approach that could include Transport, Health, Social Development, Home Affairs, and Justice.

#### Teachers

Urgent attention needs to be given to identifying, examining and expanding inititiatives to support teachers. For example:

* The teacher union scheme to provide confidential testing and treatment of teachers with HIV and AIDS needs attention, support and expansion
* Embryonic initiatives to establish system for teacher substitution to mitigate the impact of teacher absenteeism on children’s learning and teaching, need to be carefully explored and appropriately budgeted for and then managed by the Department of Education.

|  |
| --- |
| **CASE SIX: Managing interventions** |
| Zuma Intermediate School is located in a semi-urban area with the atmosphere of both rural village and urban township. The school is neat and well maintained with a good fence. Two large gardens dominate the grounds at both ends of the school. The school has running water, electricity and a number of computers for administration, but no e-mail. While the school has a library, it does not have a computer laboratory. Extra mural activities like soccer, netball and volley ball are run on the fairly good sports grounds. The principal describes the SGB as being ‘very good and active’. They run the school finances with a vigilant eye and oversee the maintenance of the school buildings.  The school has a total of 34 teachers with two of them being paid for by the School Governing Body (SGB). Zuma is a quintile one no fee school with 1 223 learners; but only 192 of these learners are officially considered to be orphaned and vulnerable children (OVCs). The principal, Mr Molefe estimates that there are about 72 learners who are affected or infected by HIV AND AIDS. A School Based Support Team – including learner representatives - looks after the interests of OVCs in the school. The team identifies problems that learners face outside the classroom and conducts some home visits.  When Mr Molefe became principal ten years ago he acknowledged the challenges faced by the community and his learners. For example, many learners came to school hungry, many were unhealthy and quite a number demonstrated behavioural problems consistent with abusive backgrounds. In addition, a great number of learners lived in child-headed households. The principal felt that he needed to assist the learners to lead healthier lives. He also wanted to feed learners who were always hungry and to source assistance from government departments. This led Mr Molefe to look outside the school and the Department for help.  Mr Molefe initiated several contacts for assistance resulting in a number of organisations and local businesses now working with the school to offer a range of different services to the learners. Save the Children (UK) run a programme called ‘Caring Schools’ which requires the school to sign a contract for each year securing the support of the organisation. The contract is quite explicit about what each of the partners must do to create a school that cares for its learners by offering them certain services. Mr Molefe also initiated contact with Thusanang in 2007. The organisation began working with the school in 2008 on rights and responsibilities. The principal is responsible for maintaining liaison with the organisation through the School Based Support Team (SBST). The Roman Catholic Services were also approached and they offer money for food, train kitchen staff and maintain a food garden. This organisation was brought on board by the principal to supplement the nutrition programme offered by the Department of Education. Another organisation that has offered its services to the school is the Soul Buddies programme. This partnership, initiated by an teacher, runs the aftercare programme.  Apart from making the initial contact with the external organisation, Mr Molefe’s leadership style is evidenced though the way he manages these external projects. As part of Save the Children (UK’s) programme, READ became involved in Zuma as one in a cluster of three schools. The programme provides literacy resources, science and sports equipment. It also trains teachers. The principal is mainly responsible for the liaison in the programme.  This is one of the only schools in which the impact of HIV and AIDS was fairly openly acknowledged. The principal acknowledged the role of the life skills programme as being crucial to addressing stigma and discrimination. |

#### To sum up

This paper presented research conducted by the South African Institute for Distance Education (SAIDE). The research focused on sourcing examples of good practice where school leaders were able, even in some small way, to mitigate the impact of HIV and AIDS on the lives of their learners and teachers. Set within the broad parameters of school leadership theories, this research was framed by three policy issues – human rights and inclusivity; official leadership structures in schools; and schools as centres of care and concern. This frame resulted in a tension that was never completely resolved either during the actual research or during the writing of this paper. Essentially the tension was between following an integrated and multi-layered approach to working with learners made vulnerable by a range of socio-economic issues and teachers infected or affected by HIV and AIDS, while struggling to hold a tight focus on HIV and AIDS.

Research findings showed that while many school leaders were able to engage with support programmes for learners, there was little support, baring the union instituted Prevention Care Treatment and Access (PCTA) programme forteachers. It also showed that support programmes for learners concentrated on implementing school nutrition, aftercare and counselling progammes Two key recommendations are made as a result of these findings: first, that a more extensive range of school leadership competencies needs to be acknowledged and institutionalized in South Africa; and second, that the Department of Education has a pivotal role to play in helping schools mitigate the impact of HIV and AIDS on communities.

### References

Badcock-Walters, P. and Whiteside, A. (2000) *Planning for Practical HIV/AIDS Interventions in Education.* Paper presented at the IIEP HIV/AIDS Impact on Education Workshop Paris.

Barron, C. (2008) *Fresh onslaught against poverty*, Sunday Times, 24 August 2008.

Bennet, N., Wise, C., Woods, p. & Harvey, J. (2003) *Distributed leadership*, Nottingham: National College for School Leadership.

Blase, J. & Anderson, G. (1995) *The micropolitics of educational leadership: from control to empowerment.* London: Cassell.

Brown, K. and Musgrave, A. (2008) *Mlambo-Ngcuka’s antipoverty launch ‘not rich in specifics’.* Business Day, 15 August 2008.

Butler, A. (2008) *Mending the two cracked pillars on which renewal must lean.* Business Day, 18 August 2008.

Christie, P., Butler, D. & Potterton, M. (2007) Ministerial CommitteeReport: *Schools that work.* 13 October 2007.

Coombe, C. (2000) *Managing the impact of HIV and AIDS on the education sector in South* Africa. Pretoria (Briefing paper commissioned by the UN Economic Commission for Africa).

Department of Education (1999), *National Policy on HIV/AIDS for Learners and Educators in Public Schools, and Students and Educators in Further Education and Training Institutions*. Department of Education: Pretoria

Department of Education (2000 a) *Implementation Plan for Tirisano 2000-2004* Department of Education: Pretoria

Department of Education (2000 b) *Norms and Standards for Educators* Department of Education, Republic of South Africa: Pretoria Government Gazette Vol 415, No 20844

Department of Education (2001) Education White Paper 6 *Special Needs Education: Building an Inclusive Education and Training System*. Department of Education: Pretoria

Department of Education *National Education Policy Act* (1996 b). Department of Education: Pretoria

Department of Education *South African Schools Act* (1996 a). Department of Education: Pretoria

Department of Education (1998) *Admissions policy for ordinary public schools.* Department of Education: Pretoria.

Diamond, J. (2007) cited in Henry, S. (2008) *A new view: Distributed leadership*, Harvard Graduate School of Education, p. 2.

Fullan, M. (1996) Leadership for change. In: Leithwood, K., Chapman, J., Corson, D., Hallinger, P. and Hart, A. (Eds.) (1999) *International handbook of educational leadership and administration, Part 2,* Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers, pp. 701-722.

Fullan, M. (2000) Three stories of education reform. *Phi Delta Kappa,* 81(8), pp. 581-584.

Fullan, M. (2007) *The new meaning of educational change.* Fourth Ed. New York: Teachers College Press.

Giese, S. et al (2003) *The Role of Schools in Addressing the Needs of Children Made Vulnerable in the Context of HIV and AIDS.* Document distributed in preparation for the Education Policy Round Table July 2003. Children’s Institute, University of Cape Town.

Hall, G.E. & Hord, S. (1987) *Change in schools: facilitating the process.* Albany: State University of New York Press.

Hargreaves, A. (1994) *Changing teachers, changing times: Teachers’ work and culture in the postmodern age.* London: Cassell.

Hayward, R. (2008) Quality in leadership. *The Teacher,* March 2008.

Heneveld, W. & Craig, H. (1996) *Schools Count: World Bank project designs and the quality of primary education in sub-Saharan Africa.* World Bank: Washington DC.

Hersey, P., Blanchard, K.H. & Johnson, D.E. (Eds) (1996) *Management of Organizational Behaviour: Utilizing human resources.* Seventh Edition. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Hopkins, D. (2001) *Improving the quality of education for all.* London: David Fulton Publishers.

Jansen, D. (2001) Explaining the non-change in education reform after apartheid: political symbolism and the problem of policy implementation. In: Jansen, D. & Sayed, Y. (Eds.) (2001) *Implementing education policies: the South African experience,* Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press, pp 271-289.

Jansen, J (2007) *Bodies Count: AIDS Review 2006*. University of Pretoria.

Lambert, L. (1995) Towards a theory of constructivist leadership. In: L. Lambert, D. Walker, D.P. Zimmerman, J.E. Cooper, M.D. Lambert, M.E. Gardiner & P.J.F Slack (Eds.) *The constructivist leader,* New York: Teachers College Press, pp. 28-51.

Leithwood, K., Chapman, J., Corson, D., Hallinger, P. and Hart, A. (Eds.) (1999) *International handbook of educational leadership and administration, Part 2,* Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

MacBeath, J. & Mortimore, P. (Eds.) (2001) *Improving school effectiveness.* Philadelphia: Open University Press

Malcolm, C., Keane, M., Hoohlo, L., Kgaka, M. & Ovens, J. (2000) *Why some ‘disadvantaged’ schools succeed in mathematics and science: A study of ‘feeder’ schools.* Research Report by RADMASTE Centre, University of the Witwatersrand.

McLaughlin, M.W. (1986) Learning from experience: Lessons from policy implementation. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis,* 9(2), 171-8.

Mintzberg, H. (1975) The manager’s job: Folklore and fact. *Harvard Business Review*, 53(4), pp. 49-61.

Mortimore, P. (1993) School effectiveness and the management of effective learning and teaching. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 4(4), 290-310.

Nkinyangi, S. (2003) *HIV/AIDS and education.* Report of a UNESCO Nairobi Cluster Consultation, Kigali, Rwanda, 4-6 March 2003.

Republic of South Africa (1996) *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa,* Act 108 of 1996.

Sammons, P., Hillman, J. & Mortimore, P. (1995) *Key characteristics of effective schools: A review of school effectiveness and research*. London: Office for Standards in Education.

Samodien, L. (2008) *300 more teaching posts for the Cape,* (www.iol.co.za, 21 August 2008).

Scheerens, J. (2000) Improving school effectiveness. Fundamentals of Education Planning No. 68 Paris: UNESCO/International Institute for Educational Planning.

Shisana, O. et al (eds) ( 2005) *The Health of our Educators - A focus on HIV/AIDS in South African Public Schools* Report prepared by the Human Sciences Research Council and the Medical Research Council of South Africa. Funded by and prepared for the Education Labour Relations Council: Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Spillane, J.P., Halverson, R. & Diamond, J. (2004) Towards a theory of leadership practice: A distributive perspective. *Journal of Curriculum Studies,* 36(1), pp. 3-34.

Townsend, T. (2001) Satan or Saviour? An analysis of two decades of school effectiveness. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 12(1), 115-129.

1. Mortimore, P. (1993) School effectiveness and the management of effective learning and teaching. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 4(4), 290-310. [↑](#footnote-ref-1)
2. Sammons, P., Hillman, J. & Mortimore, P. (1995) Key characteristics of effective schools: A review of school effectiveness and research. London: Office for Standards in Education. [↑](#footnote-ref-2)
3. Scheerens, J. (2000) Improving school effectiveness. Fundamentals of Education Planning No. 68 Paris: UNESCO/International Institute for Educational Planning. [↑](#footnote-ref-3)
4. Townsend, T. (2001) Satan or Saviour? An analysis of two decades of school effectiveness. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 12(1), 115-129. [↑](#footnote-ref-4)
5. Heneveld, W. & Craig, H. (1996) *Schools Count: World Bank project designs and the quality of primary education in sub-Saharan Africa.* World Bank: Washington DC. [↑](#footnote-ref-5)
6. Hargreaves, A. (1994) *Changing teachers, changing times: Teachers’ work and culture in the postmodern age.* London: Cassell. [↑](#footnote-ref-6)
7. Hopkins, D. (2001) *Improving the quality of education for all.* London: David Fulton Publishers. [↑](#footnote-ref-7)
8. Fullan, M. (2007) *The new meaning of educational change.* Fourth Ed. New York: Teachers College Press. [↑](#footnote-ref-8)
9. Nkinyangi, S. (2003) *HIV/AIDS and education.* Report of a UNESCO Nairobi Cluster Consultation, Kigali, Rwanda, 4-6 March 2003. [↑](#footnote-ref-9)
10. Jansen, J (2007) Bodies Count: AIDS Review 2006. University of Pretoria. [↑](#footnote-ref-10)
11. McLaughlin, M.W. (1986) Learning from experience: Lessons from policy implementation. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis,* 9(2), 171-8. [↑](#footnote-ref-11)
12. While based on the actual case studies undertaken as part of this study, school names and the names of school

    principals have been changed. [↑](#footnote-ref-12)
13. Republic of South Africa (1996) *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa,* Act 108 of 1996. [↑](#footnote-ref-13)
14. Department of Education (1996 a) *South African Schools Act* Department of Education: Pretoria [↑](#footnote-ref-14)
15. Department of Education. (1998) *Admissions policy for ordinary public schools.* Department of Education: Pretoria. [↑](#footnote-ref-15)
16. Department of Education. (1996 b) *National Education Policy Act* Department of Education: Pretoria. [↑](#footnote-ref-16)
17. Department of Education. (1999),*National Policy on HIV/AIDS for Learners and Educators in Public Schools, and Students and Educators in Further Education and Training Institutions*. Department of Education: Pretoria. [↑](#footnote-ref-17)
18. Department of Education. (2001) *Education White Paper 6*: *Special Needs Education: Building an Inclusive Education and Training System*, Department of Education: Pretoria. [↑](#footnote-ref-18)
19. Jansen, D. (2001) Explaining the non-change in education reform after apartheid: political symbolism and the problem of policy implementation. In: Jansen, D. & Sayed, Y. (Eds.) (2001) *Implementing education policies: the South African experience,* Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press, pp 271-289. [↑](#footnote-ref-19)
20. Jansen, J (2007) Bodies Count: AIDS Review 2006. University of Pretoria. [↑](#footnote-ref-20)
21. Department of Education (1999), *National Policy on HIV/AIDS for Learners and Educators in Public Schools, and Students and Educators in Further Education and Training Institutions*. Department of Education: Pretoria. [↑](#footnote-ref-21)
22. A term used by many school leaders in this research when asked to describe the role the SGB played in their schools. [↑](#footnote-ref-22)
23. Department of Education (2000 a) *Implementation Plan for Tirisano 2000-2004* Department of Education: Pretoria. [↑](#footnote-ref-23)
24. Department of Education (2000 b) *Norms and Standards for Educators* Department of Education, Republic of South Africa: Pretoria Government Gazette Vol 415, No 20844 [↑](#footnote-ref-24)
25. Supporting Vulnerable Children:A Guide for SGBs (2006). [↑](#footnote-ref-25)
26. The names of schools and people have been changed. [↑](#footnote-ref-26)
27. Giese, S. et al (2003) *The Role of Schools in Addressing the Needs of Children Made Vulnerable in the Context of HIV and AIDS.* Document distributed in preparation for the Education Policy Round Table July 2003. Children’s Institute, University of Cape Town. [↑](#footnote-ref-27)
28. Badcock-Walters, P. and Whiteside, A. (2000) *Planning for Practical HIV/AIDS Interventions in Education.* Paper presented at the IIEP HIV/AIDS Impact on Education Workshop Paris. [↑](#footnote-ref-28)
29. Coombe, C. (2000) *Managing the impact of HIV and AIDS on the education sector in South* Africa. Pretoria (Briefing paper commissioned by the UN Economic Commission for Africa). [↑](#footnote-ref-29)
30. UNICEF (2006) *Africa’s Orphaned and Vulnerable Generations: Children Affected by AIDS.* New York, NY: UNICEF. [↑](#footnote-ref-30)
31. Engle, P. (2008) National plans of action for orphans and vulnerable children in sub-Saharan Africa: Where are the youngest children? Working Paper No. 50. The Hague, The Netherlands: Bernard van Leer Foundation. [↑](#footnote-ref-31)
32. See: Soul City report (2006) [↑](#footnote-ref-32)
33. CASE (2007) Learner Absenteeism in the South African Schooling System researched for the Department of Education by the Community Agency for Social Enquiry ( CASE) and the Joint Education Trust ( JET) 2007. [↑](#footnote-ref-33)
34. Maslow, A.H. (1970) *Motivation and Personality*. New York: Harper and Row. [↑](#footnote-ref-34)
35. Christie, P., Butler, D. & Potterton, M. (2007)*.* Ministerial Committee Report: *Schools that Work.* 13 October 2007. [↑](#footnote-ref-35)
36. Hall, G.E. & Hord, S. (1987) *Change in schools: facilitating the process.* Albany: State University of New York Press. [↑](#footnote-ref-36)
37. Hersey, P., Blanchard, K.H. & Johnson, D.E. (Eds) (1996) *Management of Organizational Behaviour: Utilizing human resources,* Seventh Edition, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall. [↑](#footnote-ref-37)
38. Diamond, J. (2007) cited in Henry, S. (2008) A new view: distributed leadership, Harvard Graduate School of Education, p. 2. [↑](#footnote-ref-38)
39. Bennet, N., Wise, C., Woods, p. & Harvey, J. (2003*) Distributed leadership*, Nottingham: National College for School Leadership. [↑](#footnote-ref-39)
40. Blase, J. & Anderson, G. (1995) *The micropolitics of educational leadership: from control to empowerment.* London: Cassell. [↑](#footnote-ref-40)
41. Leithwood, K., Chapman, J., Corson, D., Hallinger, P. and Hart, A. (Eds.) (1999) *International handbook of educational leadership and administration, Part 2,* Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers. [↑](#footnote-ref-41)
42. Lambert, L. (1995) Towards a theory of constructivist leadership. In: L. Lambert, D. Walker, D.P. Zimmerman, J.E. Cooper, M.D. Lambert, M.E. Gardiner & P.J.F Slack (Eds.) *The constructivist leader,* New York: Teachers College Press, pp. 28-51. [↑](#footnote-ref-42)
43. Coombe, C. & Kelly, M. (2001) Education and a Vehicle for Combating HIV AND AIDS. Prospects, Vol. 31, 435-446.

    Richter, L. (2004)The impact of HIV AND AIDS on the development of children. In Pharoah, R. (Ed.) *A generation at risk: HIV AND* *AIDS, vulnerable children and security on Southern Africa*. Pretoria, Institute of Security Studies [↑](#footnote-ref-43)
44. Hersey, P., Blanchard, K.H. & Johnson, D.E. (Eds) (1996) *Management of Organizational Behaviour: Utilizing human resources,* Seventh Edition, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall. [↑](#footnote-ref-44)
45. Hayward, R. (2008) Quality in leadership. *The Teacher,* March 2008. [↑](#footnote-ref-45)
46. Fullan, M. (2000) Three stories of education reform. *Phi Delta Kappa,* 81(8), pp. 581-584. [↑](#footnote-ref-46)
47. Shisana, O. et al (eds) ( 2005) *The Health of our Educators- A focus on HIV/AIDS in South African Public Schools.* Report prepared by the Human Sciences Research Council and the Medical Research Council of South Africa. Funded by and prepared for the Education Labour Relations Council: Cape Town: HSRC Press. [↑](#footnote-ref-47)
48. Provincial prevalence rates are reported as follows: Mpumalanga (19.1%), KwaZulu Natal (21.8), E Cape (13.8%) Free State (12.4%), N West (10.4%), Limpopo (8.6%), Gauteng (6.4), N Cape (4.3%) and W Cape (1.1%) (Shisana et al, 2005: 59). [↑](#footnote-ref-48)
49. Hall, E. et al (2005) *Potential Attrition in Education.* Report prepared by the Human Sciences Research Council and the Medical Research Council of South Africa. Funded by and prepared for the Education Labour Relations Council: Cape Town: HSRC Press. [↑](#footnote-ref-49)
50. Jansen, J (2007) *Bodies Count:* *AIDS Review 2006*. University of Pretoria. [↑](#footnote-ref-50)
51. Spillane, J.P., Halverson, R. & Diamond, J. (2004) Towards a theory of leadership practice: A distributive perspective. *Journal of Curriculum Studies,* 36(1), pp. 3-34. [↑](#footnote-ref-51)
52. Mintzberg, H. (1975) The manager’s job: Folklore and fact. *Harvard Business Review*, 53(4), pp. 49-61. [↑](#footnote-ref-52)
53. Fullan, M. (1996) Leadership for change. In: Leithwood, K., Chapman, J., Corson, D., Hallinger, P. and Hart, A. (Eds.) (1999) *International handbook of educational leadership and administration, Part 2,* Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers, pp. 701-722. [↑](#footnote-ref-53)
54. Christie, P., Butler, D. & Potterton, M. (2007)*.* Ministerial Committee Report: *Schools that Work*. 13 October 2007. [↑](#footnote-ref-54)
55. Hersey, P., Blanchard, K.H. & Johnson, D.E. (Eds) (1996) *Management of Organizational Behaviour: Utilizing human resources,* Seventh Edition, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall. [↑](#footnote-ref-55)
56. Hayward, R. (2008) Quality in leadership. *The Teacher,* March 2008. [↑](#footnote-ref-56)
57. Hall, G.E. & Hord, S. (1987) *Change in schools: facilitating the process.* Albany: State University of New York Press. [↑](#footnote-ref-57)
58. Leithwood, K., Chapman, J., Corson, D., Hallinger, P. and Hart, A. (Eds.) (1999) *International handbook of educational leadership and administration, Part ,* Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers. [↑](#footnote-ref-58)
59. Kelly, M. (2000) Planning for education in the context of HIV AND AIDS. *Fundamentals of Education Planning.* Paris, UNESCO/IIEP. [↑](#footnote-ref-59)
60. Christie, P., Butler, D. & Potterton, M. (2007) Ministerial Committee Report: *Schools that work.* 13 October 2007. [↑](#footnote-ref-60)
61. Thanks to Dr Gisela Winkler for sharing these points with SAIDE. [↑](#footnote-ref-61)
62. Butler, A. (2008) *Mending the two cracked pillars on which renewal must lean,* Business Day, 18 August 2008. [↑](#footnote-ref-62)
63. Department of Education, (2000) *Implementation Plan for Tirisano 2000-2004* Department of Education: Pretoria [↑](#footnote-ref-63)
64. The Sowetan, 29 August 2008, accessed electronically on 1 September 2008. [↑](#footnote-ref-64)
65. Fullan, M. (2000) Three stories of education reform. *Phi Delta Kappa,* 81(8), pp. 581-584. [↑](#footnote-ref-65)
66. Barron, C. (2008) *Fresh onslaught against poverty*, Sunday Times, 24 August 2008. [↑](#footnote-ref-66)
67. Brown, K. and Musgrave, A. (2008) *Mlambo-Ngcuka’s anti-poverty launch ‘not rich in specifics’.* Business Day, 15 August 2008. [↑](#footnote-ref-67)
68. B A Mangcu Deputy Chief HIV/AIDS Specialist HIV/AIDS Care and Support Manager WCED (Email dated 18.9.2008) [↑](#footnote-ref-68)
69. Wildeman, R. (2007) *Financing inclusive education,* A presentation to SAIDE, 6 August 2007. [↑](#footnote-ref-69)
70. Department of Education (2001) Education White Paper 6 *Special Needs Education: Building an Inclusive Education and Training System*. Department of Education: Pretoria [↑](#footnote-ref-70)
71. Department of Education, (1999) *National Policy on HIV/AIDS for Learners, Students and Educators.* Pretoria: Department of Education. [↑](#footnote-ref-71)
72. Shisana, O. et al (eds) ( 2005) *The Health of our Educators - A focus on HIV/AIDS in South African Public Schools.* Report prepared by the Human Sciences Research Council and the Medical Research Council of South Africa. Funded by and prepared for the Education Labour Relations Council: Cape Town: HSRC Press. [↑](#footnote-ref-72)
73. Department of Education (2000 a) *Implementation Plan for Tirisano 2000-2004* Department of Education: Pretoria

    Department of Education (2001 b) Education White Paper 6 *Special Needs Education: Building an Inclusive Education and Training System*, Pretoria: Department of Education.

    Department of Education, (2007) *National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development in South Africa*: Pretoria [↑](#footnote-ref-73)
74. Jansen, J (2007) *Bodies Count: AIDS Review 2006*. University of Pretoria. [↑](#footnote-ref-74)
75. Fullan, M. (2000) Three stories of education reform. *Phi Delta Kappa,* 81(8), pp. 581-584. [↑](#footnote-ref-75)