

**THE ROLE OF THE EDUCATOR IN ADDRESSING THE NEEDS OF ORPHANS AND  
VULNERABLE CHILDREN**

**by**

**LOGANATHAN NAIDOO**

B. Paed (UDW); B. Com (Hons) (UNISA); M. COM (Rhodes)

Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of

**DOCTOR OF EDUCATION**

in the Department of Educational Psychology

at the

**UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND**

**Promoter: Professor D.R. Nzima**

**Co-promoter: Dr. S. Govender**

KwaDlangezwa

2010

## DECLARATION

I declare that 'The role of the educator in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children' is my own work in conception and execution and that all relevant sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

*L. Naidoo*

-----

LOGANATHAN NAIDOO

## DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to:

- my mother who reveres every child as her own,
- all the educators who play the role of 'surrogate mothers' to orphans and vulnerable children under their care – our silent heroes, and
- all orphans and vulnerable children – you are not the 'lost children'.

*Ad Majorem Dei Gloriam*

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I wish to express my sincere thanks and appreciation to the following people for their support, encouragement, assistance and contribution in the completion of my study:

- The Almighty God for granting me the wisdom, understanding and patience to undertake and complete this study.
- Professor D.R. Nzima for his expert guidance and assistance in completing this study, and Dr. S. Govender for her expert guidance and assistance in completing this thesis.
- Professor E.M. Stack of Rhodes University for her expert guidance on research methodology.
- Shamim Ganee, Julius and Zollie of the University of KwaZulu-Natal Health Economics and AIDS Department for their invaluable assistance.
- The Department of Education and the principals of the schools for granting me permission to undertake this research project, as well as all educators for their time in completing the questionnaire, and Mr. S.A. Ngongoma and educators at his school for allowing me to conduct the pretest-post evaluation.
- My wife, Logasperie Naidoo, my daughters, Miss Shavina Naidoo and Miss Jayisha Naidoo, and my sisters, nieces and nephew.
- My colleagues, Dr. N. Naidu and the staff of Umkomaas Secondary School.

## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore an intervention programme that could be used by class teachers to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. The goals of the study were: (i), to explore the educator's perceptions regarding the role that the class teacher could play in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children and (ii) to stress the impact of the proposed intervention.

The sample in the first phase of the research consisted of 120 rural primary school educators from the Dududu Circuit in Southern KwaZulu-Natal. These educators completed a survey in the form of a structured questionnaire. The descriptive method of research was used to collect data, and inferential statistics were used to test the null hypotheses using the Chi-squared test.

The results of the study indicated, among other things, that educators had generally agreed that the form teacher was best positioned to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. Educators were in agreement that the form teacher should facilitate life-skills training and organise peer-support programmes for orphans and vulnerable children. Gender and age group did not influence the views of educators. Educators also expressed a strong desire to be trained in programmes relating to the care and support of orphans and vulnerable children.

The quasi-experimental-comparison group pretest-posttest design was used in the second phase of the research to determine the success of the intervention strategy. This phase of the research entailed the following: distribution of questionnaires to 20 educators in the comparison school and 20 educators in the experimental school; presenting the intervention strategy via a workshop to educators in the experimental school; and conducting a posttest survey using the same set of questionnaires to educators in both the schools.

The intervention entailed the presentation of the following: a life-skills model, a peer-support programme, and the asset-based approach.

The outcome of the intervention was then gauged through the use of self-constructed questionnaires.

The posttest survey showed that 60% of educators in the experimental school had implemented all three models and had accordingly noted the direct benefits to orphans and vulnerable children. This implied that the intervention was successful. Being successful, the intervention creates a gateway for much desired relief for orphans and vulnerable children. The intervention holds the key for similar applications in areas such as substance abuse, physically challenged children and children who display various psychological problems.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>DECLARATION</b>	<b>ii</b>
<b>DEDICATION</b>	<b>III</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b>	<b>iv</b>
<b>ABSTRACT</b>	<b>v</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES</b>	<b>xv</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES</b>	<b>xvi</b>
<b>LIST OF APPENDICES</b>	<b>xvi</b>
<b>ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS</b>	<b>xvii</b>
<b>CHAPTER 1. ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1.1. Motivation for the study</b> .....	<b>1</b>
<b>1.2. Formulation of the research problem</b> .....	<b>4</b>
<b>1.3. Research questions</b> .....	<b>6</b>
<b>1.4. Research hypothesis</b> .....	<b>7</b>
<b>1.5. Aims of the study</b> .....	<b>8</b>
<b>1.6. Research assumptions</b> .....	<b>8</b>
<b>1.7. Preparation for the research</b> .....	<b>9</b>
<b>1.8. Research design</b> .....	<b>9</b>
<b>1.8.1 First phase</b> .....	<b>9</b>
<b>1.8.2 Second phase</b> .....	<b>10</b>
<b>1.9. Target population</b> .....	<b>10</b>
<b>1.10. Sampling of respondents</b> .....	<b>11</b>
<b>1.11. The research instrument</b> .....	<b>11</b>
<b>1.11.1 The questionnaire</b> .....	<b>11</b>
<b>1.12. Research procedures</b> .....	<b>12</b>
<b>1.12.1 Data collection</b> .....	<b>12</b>
<b>1.12.2 First phase (quantitative survey)</b> .....	<b>12</b>
<b>1.12.3 Second phase</b> .....	<b>12</b>
<b>1.12.4 Pilot study</b> .....	<b>13</b>
<b>1.13. Data analysis techniques</b> .....	<b>13</b>
<b>1.14. Ethical considerations</b> .....	<b>13</b>
<b>1.15. Validity and reliability of the instrument</b> .....	<b>14</b>
<b>1.15.1 Validity</b> .....	<b>14</b>
<b>1.15.2 Reliability</b> .....	<b>14</b>

1.16.	Contribution of the study.....	15
1.17.	Conceptual background.....	16
1.17.1	Orphan.....	16
1.17.2	Child-headed household .....	18
1.17.3	Vulnerability .....	19
1.17.4	The rights-based approach .....	20
1.17.5	The asset-based approach.....	21
1.17.6	Class teacher .....	22
1.18.	Summary.....	22
 <b>CHAPTER 2. IMPACT OF ORPHANS ON EDUCATION</b>		<b>24</b>
2.1.	Introduction .....	24
2.2.	Incidence of HIV and AIDS and orphans in South Africa.....	24
2.3.	Impact of OVC and HIV/AIDS on the supply and demand for education	26
2.3.1	Supply of educators .....	27
2.3.1.1	Non-attendance at schools and drop-out of OVC .....	27
2.3.1.2	Impact of HIV/AIDS on supply of educators.....	31
2.3.2	Demand for educators.....	33
2.4.	Factors which impact on the OVC's quest for education .....	35
2.4.1	Factors within the OVC's household/institution.....	39
2.4.1.1	Household circumstances .....	39
2.4.1.2	Teenage pregnancy .....	41
2.4.1.3	Child-headed households .....	42
2.4.1.4	Social addresses of OVC .....	43
2.4.1.5	Extended household chores .....	45
2.4.1.6	Death and bereavement .....	46
2.4.1.7	Positive household interventions.....	47
2.4.2	Factors within the OVC's community.....	49
2.4.2.1	Community factors acting against the OVC's quest for education.....	49
2.4.2.2	Community initiatives that promote the OVC's quest for education .....	50
2.4.3	Factors within the schooling system .....	52
2.4.4	Peers.....	52
2.4.5	Physical resources .....	54
2.4.5.1	Educators .....	56

2.4.5.2	School initiatives that promote the OVC's quest for education.	57
2.5.	Conclusion.....	60

**CHAPTER 3. ROLE OF THE CLASS EDUCATOR IN ADDRESSING THE  
NEEDS OF ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN**

		62
3.1.	Introduction .....	62
3.2.	Factors that impact on the role function of the class educator in addressing the needs of OVC .....	63
3.2.1	Job description of the educator and educator workload.....	63
3.2.2	Non-existence of guidance counsellors.....	65
3.2.3	Educator workload .....	67
3.3.	Impact of OVC on the role function of the class educator .....	68
3.3.1	Increased OVC enrolment .....	68
3.3.1.1	Material and psychosocial needs of orphans and vulnerable children .....	68
3.3.1.2	Non-attendance at schools and drop-out of OVC from the schooling system .....	71
3.3.2	Impact of OVC related policies .....	72
3.3.2.1	Norms and standards for school funding, the school fee policy and the no-fee paying school policy.....	72
3.3.2.2	Redefining the role of the class educator in addressing the needs of OVC.....	74
3.4.	Broad policies aimed at redefining the role of class educator in respect of OVC care and support .....	76
3.5.	Educator training within the context of OVC care and support .....	76
3.6.	Curriculum reorientation.....	79
3.6.1	Rights-based approach.....	79
3.6.2	Human-rights perspective.....	83
3.6.3	Core curriculum topics.....	84
3.6.4	Asset-based approach .....	86
3.6.5	Choice theory.....	87
3.6.6	Fundamentals of the asset-based approach.....	88
3.6.6.1	How can the asset-based approach be utilised in schools? .....	90
3.6.6.2	An asset-based plan for the class teacher.....	91
3.6.6.3	Schools as local institutions and assets of the community .....	92
3.6.6.4	Asset mobilisation .....	97
3.6.6.5	Asset management .....	98
3.6.6.6	Attachment theory .....	98

3.7.	Provision of a life-skills programme for OVC.....	99
3.7.1	Basics steps involved in the implementation of a life-skillsprogramme.....	100
3.7.1.1	The year plan (management).....	100
3.7.1.2	The contents of the life-skills programme .....	101
3.8.	Peer counselling.....	102
3.8.1	Peer counselling models.....	103
3.8.1.1	Truax and Carkuff's model .....	103
3.8.1.2	Gazda's model .....	103
3.8.1.3	Ivey's model (1971-1973).....	103
3.8.1.4	Danish and Hauer's Helping Skills Model of 1973.....	104
3.8.1.5	The Alateen Model .....	104
3.8.2	Training .....	104
3.8.3	Supervision .....	105
3.8.4	The envisaged peer counselling programme .....	105
3.9.	Extended administrative functions of the class teacher .....	106
3.9.1.1	Improving record keeping .....	107
3.9.1.2	Marking of the attendance register on a daily basis .....	107
3.9.1.3	Compiling learner profiles.....	107
3.9.1.4	Collection of school fees and other monies .....	108
3.9.1.5	Issuing of stationery and textbooks .....	108
3.10.	Conclusion.....	109
<b>CHAPTER 4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN</b>		<b>110</b>
4.1.	Introduction .....	110
4.2.	Paradigmatic perspective .....	111
4.3.	Towards a positivist epistemology .....	111
4.4.	The research design.....	112
4.4.1	Quantitative methodology.....	113
4.4.2	A mixed approach? .....	114
4.4.3	Strategies of enquiry .....	114
4.5.	First phase of the study – survey strategy .....	115
4.5.1	Survey instruments .....	115
4.5.2	Advantages and disadvantages of the survey strategy of inquiry.....	115
4.5.3	Use of questionnaires as a survey instrument.....	116
4.5.3.1	Characteristics of a good questionnaire.....	116
4.5.3.2	Advantages and disadvantages of the written questionnaire .....	117

4.5.3.3	Validity of the questionnaire .....	117
4.5.3.4	Reliability of the questionnaire.....	118
4.5.4	Structure of the questionnaire used in the first stage of the study .....	119
4.6.	Second phase of the study – experimental strategy.....	120
4.6.1	The quasi-experimental instrument.....	120
4.6.2	Quasi-experimental pretest-posttest non-equivalent control group design .....	121
4.7.	Research procedures.....	122
4.7.1	Permission .....	122
4.8.	Sampling.....	122
4.8.1	Selection of respondents .....	122
4.9.	Data collection.....	123
4.9.1	First phase .....	123
4.9.2	Second phase .....	124
4.10.	Data analysis techniques.....	126
4.10.1	Descriptive statistics.....	126
4.11.	Inferential statistics.....	126
4.12.	Conclusion.....	127

## **CHAPTER 5. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA –**

	<b>SECTION A</b>	<b>128</b>
5.1.	Introduction .....	128
5.2.	Section A (quantitative findings – first phase).....	129
5.3.	Objective of questionnaire.....	129
5.4.	Analytical techniques and interpretation guidelines .....	130
5.4.1	Agreement by educators.....	130
5.4.2	Associations between variables (supportive associations) .....	130
5.4.2.1	Biographical data.....	131
5.5.	Responses of educators with regard to their general understanding of HIV/AIDS and the orphan phenomenon in South Africa.....	132
5.5.1	Interpretation of results.....	133
5.5.1.1	The performance of orphans at school was poor .....	134
5.5.1.2	Late coming and high absenteeism is prevalent among orphans .....	135
5.5.1.3	Orphans display behavioural problems at school .....	135

5.6. Responses of educators with regard to the their view on the role school best positioned to address the needsof orphans and vulnerable children.....	135
5.6.1 Interpretation of results.....	136
5.7. Response of the educator with regard to the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children	138
5.7.1 Interpretation and discussion of results .....	141
5.7.1.1 Administrative duties of the educator and workload of the educator .....	142
5.7.1.2 Formulating realistic policies and procedures to guide the class teacher in performing duties relating to OVC care and support .	143
5.7.1.3 Knowledge base of the class teacher with regard to OVC .....	143
5.7.1.4 Training of educators.....	143
5.7.1.5 Provision of support services to orphans and vulnerable children .....	144
5.8. Responses by educators regarding the role of the class teacher as a facilitator of a life skills programme for orphans and vulnerable children under the management of the class teacher .....	146
5.8.1 Interpretation of results.....	146
5.8.1.1 Class teachers are not adequately trained in administering life- skills programmes for OVC in his/her class .....	148
5.8.1.2 Life-skills programmes conducted by class teachers for orphans and vulnerable children will work if additional time during normal school hours is made available to class teachers	149
5.8.1.3 The best time for the class teacher to administer life-skills programmes for orphans and vulnerable children is in the morning immediately after registration.....	150
5.9. Responses of educators regarding the role of the class teacher as a facilitator of a model aimed at providing peer counselling services(moral support) for orphans and vulnerable children.....	150
<b>CHAPTER 6. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA – SECTION B</b>	<b>153</b>
6.1. Quasi-experimental pretest-posttest survey (quantitative findings) ...	153
6.2. Implementation of procedure .....	153
6.3. External and internal assets .....	154
6.3.1 Interpretation and discussion of results.....	156
6.4. Pretest/posttest YES follow-up questions relating to external and internal assets (educators who had made contact/enlisted aid) .....	156

6.4.1	Whether it was easy to make contacts with the external organisation and whether the educator had enlisted the aid of internal resources .....	157
6.4.2	Interpretation and discussion of results .....	157
6.5.	Mode of contact – external assets .....	159
6.5.1	Interpretation and discussion of results .....	159
6.6.	Response to the question: What type of assistance was this body/role player willing to render to OVCs at your school? .....	160
6.6.1	External assets .....	160
6.6.2	Internal assets.....	161
6.6.3	Interpretation and discussion of results .....	162
6.7.	Pretest/posttest NO follow-up questions relating to external and internal assets (educators who had not contacted or who had not enlisted aid).....	165
6.7.1	External organisations .....	166
6.7.2	Interpretation and discussion of results .....	167
6.7.3	Internal role players.....	169
6.7.4	Interpretation and discussion of results .....	169
6.8.	Pre/post test analysis of response with regard to the implementation of the life-skills programme.....	170
6.8.1	Implementation .....	170
6.8.2	Interpretation and discussion of findings.....	171
6.9.	Follow-up questions.....	171
6.10.	YES follow-up responses (educators who had implemented the life-skills programme) .....	172
6.10.1	Interpretation and discussion of results .....	173
6.10.1.1	Prior to intervention .....	173
6.10.1.2	The posttest phase .....	173
6.11.	NO follow-up responses (educators who had not implemented the programme) .....	176
6.11.1	Interpretation and discussion of results .....	176
6.12.	Pre/post test analysis of response with regard to the facilitation of peer-counselling sessions.....	178
6.12.1	Implementation .....	178
6.12.2	Interpretation and discussion of result.....	178
6.13.	Follow-up questions.....	179
6.13.1	YES follow-up responses (educators who had facilitated peer counselling sessions).....	180

6.13.2	Interpretation and discussion of results .....	181
6.13.2.1	The posttest phase .....	181
6.14.	NO follow-up responses (educators who had not implemented the programme) .....	185
6.14.1	Interpretation and discussion of results .....	185
6.15.	Summary of the results of the survey .....	186
6.15.1	First phase .....	186
6.15.2	Second phase .....	187
6.16.	Conclusion.....	189
 <b>CHAPTER 7. LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS</b>		<b>190</b>
7.1.	Introduction .....	190
7.2.	Limitations associated with this study .....	190
7.3.	Recommendations .....	190
7.3.1	Guidance counsellors and life-skills curriculum for the class teacher.....	190
7.3.2	Peers and friends.....	192
7.3.3	The asset-based approach (the school as a hub in the community and within internal role players) .....	193
7.4.	Conclusion.....	195
 <b>CHAPTER 8. CONCLUSIONS</b>		<b>196</b>
8.1.	Introduction .....	196
8.2.	Implications for future research as revealed by findings of this study.....	196
8.3.	Concluding remarks.....	197
 <b>REFERENCES</b>		<b>199</b>
<b>APPENDICES</b>		<b>232</b>

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 Asset-based trends in sustainable programmes that support vulnerable children	89
Table 2 The social capital, associations, and institutions in a typical rural community assets in the community	96
Table 3 Life-skills programme – Year plan	101
Table 4 Overview of the chapter	110
Table 5 Group administered questionnaire used with comparison group Pretest-posttest design...	125
Table 6 Frequency and distribution according to gender.....	131
Table 7 Frequency and distribution according to age group (completed years)	131
Table 8 Mean agreements in general questions	132
Table 9 Mean agreements on the views of educators regarding the role players at school involved in addressing the needs of OVC	136
Table 10 Mean agreements on the views of the educator regarding the role of the teacher in addressing the needs of OVC	139
Table 11 Mean agreements on the views of educators regarding the role of the class teacher as a facilitator of a life-skills programmes for OVC under the management of the class teacher	146
Table 12 Mean agreements on the views of educators regarding the role of the class teacher as a facilitator of a peer counselling services (moral support) for orphans and vulnerable children	151
Table 13 Group administered questionnaire used with comparison group pretest-posttest design	154
Table 14 Making contacts with external and internal assets	155
Table 15 Was it easy for you to contact this organisation?	157
Table 16 Did you enlist the aid of the internal resources at your school?	157
Table 17 How did you contact this body?	159
Table 18 What type of assistance was this body (external assets) willing to render to OVC at your school?	160
Table 19 What type of assistance was this role player (internal assets) willing to render to OVC at your school?	161
Table 20 Response to various questions – external organisations	166
Table 21 Response to various questions – internal role players	169
Table 22 Implementing life-skills programme for orphans and vulnerable children	170

Table 23 Life-skills programme YES follow-up questions	172
Table 24 Life-skills programme NO follow-up questions	176
Table 25 Implementing peer counselling sessions for orphans and vulnerable children	177
Table 26 Peer counselling model questions YES follow-up questions	180
Table 27 Peer counselling model NO follow-up questions	185

### **LIST OF FIGURES**

Figure 1 Bronfenbrenner's ecological settings	36
Figure 2 Bronfenbrenner's ecological model of child development	37
Figure 3 Average time spent (in hours) on school activities	65

### **LIST OF APPENDICES**

Appendix 1 Letter to Superintendent of Education (Management) <u>2322</u>	
Appendix 2 Questionnaire on Educator Perspective	233
Appendix 3 Pretest-Posttest Questionnaires	250
Appendix 4 Life Skills Programme	277
Appendix 5 PowerPoint presentation	309

## ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AA	Alcoholics Anonymous
AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
ARV	Antiretroviral
ASSA	Actuarial Society of South Africa
CBO	Community-based organisation
CHH	Child-headed household
CINDI	Children in Distress
CRC	Convention on the Rights for Children
EFA	Education For All
FBO	Faith-based organisation
HEARD	Health Economics and HIV/AIDS Research Division of KwaZulu-Natal
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
LO	Life Orientation
MDG	Millennium Developmental Goals
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
OVC	Orphans and vulnerable children
RCL	Representative Council of Learners
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SEM	Superintendent of Education - Management
SGB	School Governing Body
SMT	School Management Team

UKZN	University of KwaZulu-Natal
UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNGASS	United Nations General Assembly Special Session
USAID	US Agency of International Development
WP	White paper

# CHAPTER 1.

## ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

### 1.1. Motivation for the study

*Listen, I have got a future*

*Why do you abuse us orphans?*

*Who stole the sugar, it is me?*

*Who stole the money, it is me?*

*Why do you always put the blame on*

*The orphan? But Why?*

*Relatives treat us badly, we are*

*Sent to school bare footed and half naked.*

*We are exposed to horrible things. But why?*

*Have you lost the sense of parental love,*

*Guidance and support.*

*We need your love, care and support, like your own children*

*Because listen – I have got a future.*

*(Poem by Roderick, an 11 year old, in 1998 at Masiye Camp)*

*(Extracted from Germann, 2005:52)*

The above poem crystallises the yearnings of each and every orphan. The future, which every orphan child pines to realise, is often shadowed by a fragile support structure and a lack of cohesive bonding mechanisms.

AIDS increased the total number of children orphaned in sub Saharan Africa from 30.9 million in 1990 to 48.3 million by the end of 2005 (UNAIDS, 2006). The AIDS epidemic statistics in South Africa are amongst the worst in the world with an estimated 5.5 million people (18% of adults) living with HIV in 2005.

The total number of orphans in South Africa in 2007 was 2.4 million, and of these 1.2 million were due to AIDS (UNICEF, 2006; Statistics South Africa, 2007).

AIDS is generating orphans so quickly that conventional orphan care systems can no longer cope. In order to escape the burden of being adopted by relatives in households where resources are already overstretched, or being institutionalised; many orphans leave for urban areas; either to become street children or to provide cheap labour (Kelly, 2005). Others, especially girls, are lured into early marriages and some are exposed to sexual exploitation as child prostitutes. Increasingly however, rather than choosing the above options, more and more orphans are choosing to stay behind in their communities and run their own households (Luzze, 2002).

According to a report by Avert (2001), the effect of AIDS on education has become so serious that it now threatens the coverage and quality of education. According to this report, HIV/AIDS is reducing the numbers of children attending school, while HIV-infected mothers have fewer babies because they die young, and they leave a third of their orphaned children to die before they reach school going age. Moreover, many children are orphaned by AIDS, or live in households offering shelter to AIDS orphans. These children are often forced to drop-out of school mainly because of financial reasons. Those that do go to school are often so traumatised by the effects of HIV and AIDS on their environment that they are incapable of using the opportunity to learn optimally(Avert,2001).

Problems of orphans include, inter alia; poverty, discrimination, stunting and hunger, lack of supervision and care, child labour, exploitation, educational failure, psychological problems, lack of adequate medical care, poor housing, early marriage, and disruption of normal childhood and adolescence (Nelson Mandela Children's Fund Report, 2001).

The Nelson Mandela Children's Fund Report (2001) highlights the following needs of orphans: physical and material needs (food and food security, housing, clothing and proper health care), schooling needs (books, school fees, uniforms, shoes, trip funds and income generating skills) and emotional needs (such as parental attention, guidance, love and care).

The growing number of orphans in the country creates numerous challenges for educators and the general management of the school. Buchel and Hoberg (2006) argue that this is probably due to an increase in the number of emotionally vulnerable, malnourished and maladjusted learners in the school system; an increase in disciplinary problems; the impact of poverty and despair on the child's self-actualisation potential; social instability; and the inability of learners to utilise educational opportunities.

For various reasons, the education system has failed to address the needs of orphans (Giese, Meintjes, Croke & Chamberlain, 2003) and the problems caused by orphans (Buchel & Hoberg, 2006). Giese *et al.* (2003) report that many schools do not have a structured programme to deal effectively with orphans and vulnerable children and that many educators indicate that they do not have the time and/or skills to deal with this problem.

A study by the Department of Education on the implementation of a life-skills programme in the Free State concluded that after 16 years of democracy most South African schools located within the rural communities in the Free State are still under-resourced and reflect numerous complex educational problems.(Department of Education, 2005a).

While Maphumulo (2003) argues that the provision of quality public education in the rural schools is currently a serious challenge to South Africans, Tager (2003) argues that the challenge is to enhance sustainable development in the rural communities and that there should be a departure in South African rural education from a narrower classroom and deficiency-based model to a broader, capacity building and asset-based model in teaching and learning. This study therefore seeks to explore the use of the asset-based approach in addressing the needs of OVC.

Studies by Hartley, Visser & Sheppard and De Beer and Swanepoel cited in Maphutha, (2006) indicate that educational problems encountered in South African rural schools, especially in KwaZulu-Natal, Limpopo Province and Eastern Cape, revolve around the scarcity and poverty in terms of educational resources. Such educational problems include inadequate and poor infrastructure, high illiteracy rate among parents, small

budgets, poor attendance of both educators and learners, teenage pregnancy, vandalism, gangsterism, rape and drug abuse, poor school results, weak leadership, management and administration skills, apathy among educators, demotivation and low morale of educators, lack of clear directives on how to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children, shortage of educators, poor parental participation, shortage of textbooks, malnutrition, lack of support from the district office, poor family lives, high drop-out rate, poor health services, HIV and AIDS, shortage of school furniture, inadequate scientific and technological apparatus, and poor performance.

The challenges faced by orphans, as indicated by Boler and Carroll (2003) have seriously undermined the ability of orphans to effectively cope with the rudiments of life *let alone* being prepared for the future. It is indispensable to identify the educational needs and assets of South African rural schools in order to improve the deteriorating educational conditions rural people, especially orphans, are faced with.

Over and above their normal duties, educators are also expected to identify the needs of each orphan and make the necessary arrangements to address areas that require attention. The researcher, being an educator for almost 28 years, has noticed that there are no clear directives specifically outlining the role of the educator in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. Some educators are generally apathetic towards the plight of orphans and there are those educators who do not know how to deal with this problem. However, there are some educators who work tirelessly 'behind the scenes' to assist orphans.

The researcher is of the view that the class teacher is best positioned to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children because the class teacher knows the attendance pattern of her children, has an in-depth knowledge of the general academic performance of the learners, and is aware of the general well-being of the learners.

## **1.2. Formulation of the research problem**

A research problem is an issue or concern that needs to be addressed (Creswell, 2009:18) and is the first phase of any research project (Mouton, 2009:48). The research problem involves transforming an interesting research idea into a feasible,

researchable research problem (Mouton, 2009).

In Mouton's Three Worlds Framework, the research problem is 'not resolved' through action in World 1 (where real life problems exist), but through 'action' in World 2; namely, the practice of research (Mouton, 2009:53).

Whilst dealing with orphans and vulnerable children at school, the researcher has noticed that the needs and challenges faced by OVC are not adequately addressed by the school. He has also noticed that class teachers offer very little support to OVC and are impartial to OVC under their supervision. Although there are international as well as national policies and guidelines in place that provide the guiding principles to address the needs of OVC, policies specific for intervention at school level are seriously lacking (Pendlebury, Lake & Smith, 2009). Most educators and more especially, class teachers (in the school where the researcher is an educator) are not aware of appropriate intervention strategies that could be used to address the needs of OVC.

The first part of this study relates to educators' views on the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of OVC. In terms of the South African Schools Act no. 84 of 1996 (Department of Education, 1996), educators are expected to provide pastoral care and support services to all learners under their care.

Clarke (2008) argues that in some cases educators are the only adults that orphans look up to for fulfilment of their needs. Furthermore, in terms of the new National Curriculum Statement (NCS) (Department of Education, 2004), educators are expected to identify the needs of all learners and to develop programmes in response to these needs.

However, this particular role function of educators is overshadowed by numerous educational problems such as inadequate and poor infrastructure, small budgets, irregular attendance patterns of educators and learners, teenage pregnancy, social problems, poor school results, and weak leadership (Hartley, Visser and Sheppard, cited in Maphutha, 2006). Many schools and educators view their boundaries of responsibility as ending in the classroom. Furthermore, the rigid timetables of schools

make no provision for programmes tailored specifically for OVC (Boler & Carroll, 2003).

Teachers in the Dududu area have also identified numerous concerns related to curriculum implementation, challenges within the schooling environment, and the lack of continued education and training and are similar to the findings by Hepburn (2001). They are therefore unable to provide support services to orphans who experience emotional distress, trauma and other psychosocial challenges.

Against the myriad of challenges faced by the educator in providing holistic support for OVC, it becomes imperative to ascertain the views of educators with regard to the role and function of class teachers in providing support for OVC.

The second part of the study relates to testing the implementation of a holistic intervention programme (namely, a life-skills programme, an asset-based approach and a peer counselling approach) for OVC at school. Whilst there are studies which have focused on specific interventions, the researcher understands that there are no studies which embraces all three aspects. A study by Kumakech , Cantor-Graae, Maling and Bajunirwe (2009) focused on a peer counselling intervention for OVC and recommended that the peer counselling programme be incorporated into the school curriculum but does not provide the mechanics and logistics of such intervention. Ebersöhn and Eloff (2006) focused on an asset-based intervention to sustain programmes which support OVC, whilst Motepe (2006) focused on a life-skills programme for early adolescents.

Studies relating to the testing of all three areas in a singular intervention were not found in the literature search, and in this regard, this study will test the outcome of an intervention which embraces the asset-based approach, the life-skills approach, and the peer counselling approach.

### **1.3. Research questions**

According to Nachmias and Nachmias (1981), research questions are a set of questions which the researcher wants to explore. According to Mouton (2009) the

wording of the question determines the scope and focus of the study. Mouton (2009:53) further indicates that the empirical question should aim at addressing a real life problem.

The first part of the research, being quantitative and exploratory in nature, was guided by the following research questions:

What are the views of educators with regards to:

- The role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children (OVC)?
- The use of a life-skills programme for OVC?
- The use of a peer support programme for OVC?
- The use of the asset-based approach to aid and support OVC?

The researcher then proceeded from the exploratory section of the research to the second part of the research which entailed the testing of the hypothesis.

#### **1.4. Research hypothesis**

Hypotheses are tentative answers to research problems and are expressed in the form of a relation between independent and dependent variables (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1981). This implies that the relationship can be tested (Anderson, 2003).

According to Nachmias and Nachmias (1981), research hypotheses share four common characteristics; they are clear, value-free, specific and amenable to empirical testing. When a researcher suggests a hypothesis, he or she has no idea or assurance that it will be verified. Nachmias and Nachmias (1981) and Bless and Higson-Smith (2000) indicate that if the hypothesis is rejected, then another one is put forward; if it is accepted, it is incorporated into the scientific body of knowledge.

This study therefore adopted the following hypothesis.

**If class teachers are trained to use a life-skills, peer counselling and asset-based approach to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children, they will then be able to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.**

## **1.5. Objectives of the study**

This study has a twofold objective, namely,

Firstly, to explore the educators' perspectives regarding the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children (first phase of the study), and secondly, to assess the impact of the proposed intervention aimed at assisting class teachers to offer holistic support for orphans and vulnerable children (second phase of the study).

The study also aims to seek answers to the following:

- To explore and describe the challenges faced by orphans and vulnerable children.
- To determine if there are any guidelines and policies aimed at addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.
- To ascertain whether there are any models and programmes specifically designed to assist orphans and vulnerable children.

## **1.6. Research assumptions**

The researcher approached this study with the following assumptions:

- The class teacher is currently providing some sort of support services for OVC by relying on available knowledge and resources.
- Respondents would be open and willing to respond to questions in the questionnaire and provide information with regard to their school's method of supporting OVC.

- The intervention; namely, the life-skills theory, the asset-based theory and the peer counselling theory, could successfully be applied within in the context of the school curriculum.

## **1.7. Preparation for the research**

Permission was required from the Superintendent of Education (Management) to administer the questionnaire to educators at schools in the Dududu Circuit, which is part of the Ugu District of KwaZulu-Natal.

## **1.8. Research design**

The research was conducted in two stages; namely, the exploratory stage and the quasi-experimental pretest-posttest stage.

### ***1.8.1 First phase***

Guba and Lincoln (1994) state that the basic beliefs that define a particular research paradigm may be summarised by the responses given by fundamental questions; the ontological question, i.e. what is the form and nature of reality; the epistemological question, i.e. what is the basic belief about knowledge (what can be known), and the methodological question, i.e. how can the researcher go about finding out whatever she/he believes can be known.

Being in the teaching profession for almost 29 years, the researcher had acquired a unique set of values, beliefs and perceptions regarding the schooling scenario and more especially, the role function of educators in providing support for OVC (ontological question). Within the ontological framework, he had to decide on the best research paradigm to best serve the purpose of this study. He then proceeded to acquire knowledge regarding the role function of class teachers in providing support for OVC (epistemological question). He worked from the positivist paradigm (selected meta theory), following a quantitative approach.

The quantitative approach involved the use of a questionnaire to collect data regarding the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. All respondents were rural primary school educators. The principals of the various schools monitored the completion of the questionnaires and collected the questionnaires immediately after they were completed.

### **1.8.2 Second phase**

In order to empirically test the effectiveness of the intervention strategy that could be used by class teachers to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children, the researcher used the quasi-experimental comparison group pretest-posttest design. This stage entailed the administration of a pretest questionnaire, the presentation of an intervention strategy that could be used by class teachers to effectively address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children, and the administration of a posttest questionnaire to evaluate the effectiveness of the model.

Subjects or respondents are not randomly allocated in the quasi-experimental pretest-posttest approach (DeVos, 1998). In this design although the two groups receive both the pretest and posttest at the same time, only the first group (experimental group) receive treatment (Fouche & Delpont, 2002). The criteria used to select the comparison school and the experimental school are outlined in Chapter 4.

Following the intervention both groups (comparison and experimental) were evaluated again (posttest). This enabled the researcher to measure the effectiveness of the intervention programme. The study was also successfully implemented within the time allocated for the project. The design enabled the researcher to reach the goals and objectives of the study.

## **1.9. Target population**

Rural primary school educators in the Dududu Circuit were targeted in this research. There are approximately 200 educators who are employed in rural primary schools in the Dududu circuit.

## **1.10. Sampling of respondents**

For the purposes of this research, the researcher had identified educators in rural primary schools for the sample population. He selected the Dududu Circuit, which has approximately 300 primary school educators. Owing to the small sample population, the researcher sought to select 40% of the educators; hence 120 educators formed the sample and answered the questionnaire.

Each primary school in the Dududu circuit was given a number. This number was written on a piece of paper together with the number of educators based at that school. Each of these pieces of paper was folded and placed in a container. The contents were shuffled and the researcher took out the pieces of paper one by one, recording the number of the school and the number of educators that would form the sample. The process continued until 120 respondents were obtained.

## **1.11. The research instrument**

### ***1.11.1 The questionnaire***

A questionnaire (see Appendix 2) was used to obtain data on the role of the educator in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. Vockell and Asher (1995) indicate that a questionnaire is a data collection instrument other than an achievement or ability test on which respondents directly supply their own answers to a set of questions. Van Rensburg, Landman and Bodenstein (1994) define a questionnaire as a set of questions dealing with some topic or related group of topics given to individuals for the purpose of gathering data on a problem under consideration.

A literature study of available and relevant literature was carried out in order to base this study on a firm theoretical base. Educators in the Dududu Circuit completed a survey comprising a structured questionnaire.

A Likert type scale questionnaire with five response categories, namely, Strongly Agree, Agree, Uncertain, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree as well as open-ended questions were constructed. The five response categories enabled the measuring of the responses.

## **1.12. Research procedures**

### ***1.12.1 Data collection***

The collection of data is probably the most crucial phase in the implementation of a research project. According to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999), it is the basic material with which researchers work. Based on the nature of the study, data were collected in two phases:

#### ***1.12.2 First phase (quantitative survey)***

The researcher used a questionnaire to collect data regarding the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. All respondents were rural primary school educators. The principals of various schools monitored the completion of the questionnaires and collected the questionnaires immediately after the questionnaires were completed.

#### ***1.12.3 Second phase***

During the second phase of the study, the quasi-experimental pretest-posttest design was used to evaluate the effectiveness of the programme.

The researcher used a self-constructed group-administered questionnaire to collect data from the 40 educators who comprised the sample in this study. The same questionnaire that was used in the pre-test, i.e. before implementation of the intervention model, was used in the post-test phase for the experimental and comparison schools.

According to Oppenheim (1992), the group-administered questionnaire is given to groups of respondents assembled together; such as school children or an invited audience.

#### **1.12.4 Pilot study**

A pilot study, which is a mini version of a research study, was pre-tested by using a sample of 20 respondents, consisting of educators from another Ward and District. The test was conducted under research conditions similar to that of the real research. The objective of the exercise was to determine how the design of the questionnaire could be improved and to identify possible flaws in the measuring instrument. No quantitative analysis was carried out. Feedback from respondents in the form of comments and suggestions were taken into consideration when the final questionnaire was constructed. Through the utilisation of the pilot study as a 'pretest', the researcher was satisfied that the questions asked complied adequately with the requirements of the study. The sample in the pilot study was not incorporated into the sample of the main study.

### **1.13. Data analysis techniques**

The collected data was captured in a format, which would allow analysis and interpretation. This involved the careful coding of the questionnaires completed by educators. The coded data were subsequently transferred to a computer spreadsheet using the SPSS Version 15 statistics computer programme.

Data were converted into frequency tables to analyse the findings by means of descriptive statistics.

### **1.14. Ethical considerations**

For ethical reasons the survey sought to preserve the anonymity of all respondents affected and infected by HIV/AIDS, including those institutions which interact with HIV/AIDS orphans.

Research assistants took an oath of secrecy and confidentiality and responses from respondents will be stored in a safe place. The confidential nature of the survey was made known to respondents prior to the administration of the survey and they were given the opportunity to withdraw at any stage. All ethical issues were cleared by the University of Zululand prior to the administration of the questionnaires.

In instances where specific principles have been extracted from models and programmes for use in this research, due acknowledgements were given to the author of the model or the programme. It was not necessary to obtain permission from the author of the programme or the model as these models or programmes were not used in their entirety in this thesis.

## **1.15. Validity and reliability of the instrument**

There are two concepts that are of critical importance in understanding issues of measurement in research; namely, validity and reliability (Huysamen, 1989).

### ***1.15.1 Validity***

Validity is a judgement of the appropriateness of a measure for the specific inferences or decisions that result from the scores generated (Schumacher & McMillan, 1983). Hence the researcher has to provide adequate evidence to verify that validity exists.

The researcher used the questionnaire as a method for the following purposes: to explore the views of educators on the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children, and for the pretest and the posttest evaluation. Due to the complexity of the of the respondents' attributes, one can never be certain that the questionnaire will actually measure what it purports to measure.

### ***1.15.2 Reliability***

Reliability, according to Schumacher and McMillan (1983), refers to the consistency of measurement and the extent to which the results are similar or different from the same

instrument on different occasions of data collections.

The researcher used the questionnaire to ascertain the views of educators on the role that the class teacher could play in addressing the needs of OVC. These questionnaires were distributed to the respondents as stated above. The respondents were requested to complete the questionnaire under controlled conditions (under the guidance of the principal of the respective school) thus reducing the chance of error and maintaining the level of reliability of the questionnaire. The reliability of the instrument was judged by estimating how well the items that reflected the same construct yielded similar results.

The researcher is of the firm belief that the respondents were honest and sincere in responding to the questionnaire, hence maximising the reliability. Further frankness in responding to the questions was made possible by the anonymity of the questionnaire. The measuring instrument has sufficient content validity, i.e. the questionnaire was able to capture the entire meaning of the nature of responses and activities being investigated. A comprehensive literature survey was undertaken to ensure that all relevant factors were included in the construction of the questionnaire to protect the content validity.

With regard to the reliability of the research, every attempt was made to avoid bias by allowing every respondent to voice his/her own opinion and describe his/her circumstances. The research assistant's interaction with participants did not unduly influence their responses as they clearly identified their role and status.

### **1.16. Contribution of the study**

The researcher believes the unique contribution of this study is its innovative nature in terms of the manner and procedure in which he integrated existing knowledge, research and intervention. In planning and conducting the study, the researcher had to firstly conceptualize the framework of the study which related to the following approaches and guidelines: the asset-based approach, the life-skills approach, the peer counselling approach, the attachment theory, and guidelines relating to the extended role function of the class teacher.

The researcher focused this body of knowledge in terms of the role and function of the class teacher in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. He combined the various approaches in terms of the guidelines advocated by the International Institute of Educational Planning (IIEP) (2007) in order to develop an experimental strategy. This was effected with the primary goal of researching the perspectives of educators with regard to the role of class teachers in addressing the needs of OVC. Based on the outcomes of this survey, the researcher devised an intervention which employed the life-skills approach, the peer counselling approach and the asset-based approach, and undertook a training programme with class teachers and tested the effectiveness of the intervention.

The intervention approach the researcher elected therefore provided him with a research process which resulted in a change in the school where he conducted this research. By involving class teachers in a workshop and by providing class teachers with guidelines and management plans, class teachers were able to implement a strategy to assist orphans and vulnerable children. The researcher is of the firm belief that this study will provide education officials with a useful tool to assist OVC.

## **1.17. Conceptual background**

The following definitions are discussed in this section: class teacher, orphan, child-headed household, and vulnerability.

### ***1.17.1 Orphan***

An orphan is defined by the World Health Organisation (WHO) as a child under 15 years of age who has lost their mother (maternal orphan) or father (paternal orphan) or both parents (double orphans) (IIEP, 2007).

Some research does increase the age to 18 years, but most appear to use the WHO definition (Skinner, Tsheko, Metro-Munyati, Segwabwe, Chibatamoto, Mfecane, Chandiwana, Nkomo, Tlou & Chitiyo, 2004). There do appear to be some implicit classification systems for orphans and these classification systems vary from country to

country. The main variables relate to the age of the child and the exact nature of parental loss - that is, whether the mother, father, or both parents are deceased. For example, in Ethiopia, an orphan is defined as a child below 18 years of age who has lost both parents, regardless of how they died. In Rwanda an orphan is defined as a child who has lost one or both parents, while in Uganda an orphan is defined as a child under the age of 18 years who has lost one or both parents (IIEP, 2007; Nyambedha, Wandiba, Agaard-Hansen, 2003).

Some countries include the loss of the caregiver as a criterion to define an orphan (Bhargava & Bigombe, 2003). In Botswana, an orphan is defined as a child under 18 years of age who has lost one (single parents) or two (married couple) biological or adoptive parents.

Some countries extend the criteria to include the loss of a custodian; for example in Namibia an orphan is defined as a child under the age of 18 who has lost either a mother, a father, or both parents – or a primary caregiver – due to death, or a child who is in need of care (IIEP, 2007).

Tolfree's (2004) definition of an orphan, i.e. a child who has lost one or both parents is used in this study. Tolfree (2004) argues that the distinction between a double and single orphan is not always useful. In many cultures the term for orphan does not necessarily mean parental death. In some contexts an orphan is a child living in an irregular or unsatisfactory situation, regardless of the status of the parents. The term can also be stigmatising to children.

Meintjes and Giese (2006) insist in an article concerning language use in relation to the construction of orphanhood in South Africa, that in a context where many of South African children are marginalised due to poverty, the circumstances of poor, non-orphaned children may not be that different from those of children who have lost one or both parents.

Variations relating to the classification of orphans have led the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) to research the definition of 'orphan'. The importance of a clear definition of orphans lies in the implications of this definition on the provision of

support services, on legal issues and on educational matters. The study by the HSRC (Skinner *et al.*, 2004) indicated that there appeared to be agreement that the age limit for the definition of a child should be 18 years.

The overall response around orphanhood appeared to support the construct that the loss of either or both the parents would indicate a situation of likely vulnerability. The remainder of the definition needs to centre around three core areas of dependence: material problems - including access to money, food, clothing, shelter, health care and education; emotional problems - including experience of caring, love, support, space to grieve and containment of emotions; and social problems - including lack of supportive peer group of role models to follow, or of guidance in difficult situations and risks in the immediate environment.

With regard to a child who has lost his/her parent or parents through HIV/AIDS, the biennial report Children on the brink (COB) – a joint publication of UNAIDS, UNICEF, and USAID – has become the standard reference for definitions and estimates related to OVC (IIEP, 2007).

This report defines a child orphaned by AIDS as a child under 18 years of age who has lost at least one parent to AIDS (Skinner *et al.*, 2004). The recent trend is to define orphans due to HIV and AIDS in terms of the death of one or both parents. It was also found that it is more detrimental, in terms of educational attainment, for an orphan to lose a mother rather than a father (Boler & Carroll, 2003; Bennell, Hyde & Swainson, 2002; Subbarao, Mattimore & Plangemann, 2001).

### **1.17.2 Child-headed household**

For the purpose of this study the following definition will be used for child-headed household: a child-headed household will refer to children who occupy or share a home which is controlled by one or more children who assume(s) the role of the parent, caregiver or income earner since the adult who was vested with the responsibility of heading the home is too ill (due to HIV or other causes) or has passed away as a result of HIV and AIDS or for other reasons. The child who heads the household could therefore be an orphan or one whose parent is too ill to support the family.

### **1.17.3 Vulnerability**

Vulnerability is a complex concept to define, as is illustrated in local/community definitions of vulnerability, which often include disabled or destitute children; in policy and support provision definitions, which list categories of children; and in working definitions, which are used in various documents (Alwang, Siegel & Jorgensen, 2001; IIEP, 2007; Smart, 2003). There rarely is consensus about, and certainly no universal definition, of vulnerability. A major concern is that the orphan estimates do not reflect children who are vulnerable but still living with parents, or children vulnerable due to other causes in addition to AIDS (IIEP, 2007).

Countries seeking to quantify the current and future burden of OVC may need to supplement their data on orphans with information from a situation analysis that covers all vulnerable children. According to IIEP (2007), there is a body of evidence that challenges the assumption that orphans are the most vulnerable children; however, using non-enrolment and non-attendance rates in schools as proxies for vulnerability, Ainsworth and Filmier (2002) and Huber and Gould (2003) showed that in many countries poor children (rather than orphans) were most likely not to be enrolled in school. This means that not all orphans are vulnerable, and it would appear that poverty is a likely benchmark to determine vulnerability.

Though generalisations across countries (28 countries in four regions in the Ainsworth and Filmier study) can be challenged, the link between poverty and vulnerability seems well established, suggesting that policies to raise enrolment among the poor will also have a positive impact on the disadvantaged OVC (IIEP, 2007; Smart, 2003). These findings seem to suggest that poverty at the community level is a main factor driving the conditions in which vulnerable children find themselves, and that if poverty is addressed, the quality of many children's lives would be improved.

Vulnerability in this study is used to refer to a state of being that is defenceless to threats to one's well-being and includes children who are poor. Vulnerability and insecurity are often used interchangeably to describe situations in which people are not able to cope with threats to their well-being without damaging loss (Dercon, 2005). People are vulnerable when they are at a tipping point; when a shock that they would

otherwise recover from with relative ease causes a catastrophic and is hard to reverse for their well-being or access to resources (Deveraux, 2002).

An important contribution has been made by the study of ecological vulnerability, which emphasises that vulnerability is a property of systems, and focuses on how systems respond to shocks. Vulnerability is often defined as a function of two properties of a system; its sensitivity (how heavily it is impacted by a shock or event) and its resilience (the ease and speed with which it recovers). People are vulnerable when the systems on which they depend for their livelihoods are highly sensitive but not very resilient (Du Toit & Ziervogel, 2004).

#### ***1.17.4 The rights-based approach***

The needs-based approach, which is also known as the deficit model, focuses on problems, deficits and needs (Jonsson, 2004). The rights-based approach which was laid out by the United Nations in 2003 (United Nations, 2003) advocates that in a human rights-based approach, human rights determine the relationship between individuals and groups with valid claims (rights-holders) and State and non-State actors with correlative obligations (duty-bearers). It identifies rights-holders (and their entitlements) and corresponding duty-bearers (and their obligations) and works towards strengthening the capacities of rights-holders to make their claims and duty-bearers to meet their obligations.

Jonsson (2003) argues that whilst the needs based-approach advocates the fulfilment of basic needs through acts of charity and other intervention mechanisms, in the rights-based approach needs are fulfilled by realising the rights of individuals. Piron and Watkins (2004) indicate that unlike the needs-based approach, the human-rights-based approach has universal application. Needs do not imply duties or obligations and may generate only promises, while rights always imply correlative duties or obligations (Piron & Watkins, 2004).

The researcher is of the view that while policies and procedures adopted by the Department of Education are rights-based and are meant to be applied by all stakeholders in the Education Department, it is the class teacher who is ultimately

responsible for the implementation of the policy. The implementation of all rights-based policies by the class teacher is quite an onerous task for the teacher, and in the real world class, teachers act upon the needs of children (Clarke, 2008). The researcher is of the view that the needs-based approach and the rights-based approach should not be regarded as opposing approaches, but should be seen as two approaches on the same continuum, yet applied at different levels.

### ***1.17.5 The asset-based approach***

The asset-based approach relates to problem solving in terms of creating and rebuilding relationships between individuals, associations and institutions, emphasising ennoblement and empowerment (Ebersöhn and Eloff, 2006). The focus is on assets, possibilities, abilities, capacities and resources that already exist, but might not have been mobilised as yet. Working with that which exists in a given family or community, and focusing on the available assets (although not negating problems), inevitably results in individuals, families and communities feeling empowered and valuable (Ebersöhn & Eloff, 2006; Kretzmann & Mc Knight, 1993).

The asset-based approach has been referred to as the 'half-full glass' approach to intervention (as opposed to the 'half-empty glass' approach) (McDonald, cited in Ebersohn and Eloff, 2006), and as the capacity-focused alternative (Kretzmann and McKnight, 1993).

This strengths-based approach represents the notion that communities (regardless of ethnic culture, race or economic conditions) are able to cope with challenges by focusing on what they have, instead of what they are denied. The asset-based approach is not deficit-orientated. In this manner, so-called successful communities rely on their own assets instead of outside help in addressing challenges (Eloff, 2003; Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993).

Kretzmann and McKnight (1993) argue that the needs-based approach encourages individuals to think about themselves as fundamentally deficient and powerless victims of their circumstances. The alternative path, according to Kretzmann and McKnight (1993), is to focus on the capacities, skills and social resources of people and their

communities.

According to Kretzmann and McKnight (1993), the asset-based approach does not deny the external context of and constraints on individuals and/or communities; nor does it imply that these individuals and/or communities do not need additional resources from outside.

This means that external resources can be effectively utilised if individuals and/or the community set out well-defined programmes for the utilisation of external resources. The asset-based approach is 'internally-focused' meaning that it requires individuals and/or communities to look within themselves for resources and then explore the possibility of utilising external resources (Ebersöhn & Eloff, 2006). It means that the development strategy concentrates first of all on the agenda building and the problem solving capacities of the residents, local associations and institutions (e.g. learners, families, schools, NGOs) (Kretzmann and McKnight (1993). This internal focus is to stress the primacy of local definition, empowerment, creativity and hope - linking it with embedded knowledge systems (Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993).

#### ***1.17.6 Class teacher***

A class teacher is an educator who is assigned with the task of the management and administration of a class of learners specifically allocated to that educator. In terms of the Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998, the duties of the form teacher include inter alia, managing the attendance of learners in his/her charge, collection of monies, ensuring that his/her learners are well disciplined, and ensuring that his/her learners are fully acquainted with the general administration of the school. The class teacher is also referred to as the 'grade teacher' or 'form teacher', and in some instances the class teacher is regarded as the 'guardian teacher'.

### **1.18. Summary**

The impact of HIV and AIDS is likely to reshape societies in hard-hit countries in Africa over the next 30 years. Since HIV transmission in Africa is primarily through

heterosexual contact, HIV/AIDS presents itself as a family disease. Children in particular are severely affected by AIDS in their social context due to parallel illness and death.

This chapter provided a brief overview of the impact of HIV and AIDS on orphans and vulnerable children. The challenges and hardships facing these children were briefly mentioned in this chapter. It was noted that the capacity of the school in providing relief measures for AIDS orphans and vulnerable children is under tremendous pressure to the extent that schools have failed in addressing the needs of orphans. Chapter 2 reviews the literature on the HIV/AIDS pandemic, and the impact of OVC on the education system.

## **CHAPTER 2. IMPACT OF ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN ON EDUCATION**

### **2.1. Introduction**

In this chapter the researcher outlines the conceptual backdrop of the research. To do this he had to review numerous sources on HIV/AIDS and orphans, and the impact of orphans on education.

The incidence of orphans and vulnerable children has numerous challenges for the education system and as stated in chapter 1, the educator or the teacher is the one who is central to this challenge. This chapter therefore commences by reviewing the existing literature on HIV/AIDS and orphans, and is followed by a discussion on the impact of OVC on the education system and factors that impact on the OVC' quest for education. In reviewing the literature on the impact of OVC on the education system, the researcher had to be guided by the focus of his study which necessitated a continuous referral to his research questions and the purpose of the study.

Three main sections are presented in this chapter; namely, existing knowledge, limitations in the knowledge base, and how this study fits into the knowledge base. The chapter concludes with the conceptual framework for the study. Each author has his/her own preference when referring to the education practitioner. The education practitioner is often cited as an educator, or a teacher. For the purposes of this chapter the terms 'teacher' and 'educator' are used synonymously. However, in instances where reference is made to the class supervisor or class manager, the term 'class teacher' is used.

### **2.2. Incidence of HIV and AIDS and orphans in South Africa**

The literature reveals that the incidence of HIV/AIDS in South Africa is alarming. About 5,4 million people of a total of nearly 48 million South Africans were HIV positive in the middle of 2006, giving a total population prevalence rate of little over 11% (ASSA, 2003

as cited in Dorrington, Johnson, Bradshaw & Daniel, 2006). Almost half of South Africa's population are children, with the majority being African children.

With HIV prevalence increasing in the economically active population in South Africa, many families and children are being affected by HIV and AIDS. HIV and AIDS impact on the lives of children and make them vulnerable in a variety of ways (CINDI, 2006).

Of significance to this study is the alarming rate at which the number of orphans is increasing (assa, 2003). In 1990, there were fewer than 150 000 maternal orphans under the age of 18 years in KwaZulu-Natal and less than 100 of these children had lost their mothers as a result of AIDS; but by 2006, the number of orphans under the age of 18 had increased to over 400 000 in KwaZulu-Natal, with around 300 000 (about 75%) of the total being orphaned as a result of AIDS (ASSA,2003).

The number of non-AIDS orphans fell steadily from the year 2000, but the number of AIDS orphans is set to continue to increase throughout the period as a result of the ongoing increase in the number of deaths, expected to reach 652 000 by 2015. These statistics paint a bleak picture with regard to the future of AIDS orphans in KwaZulu-Natal and raise serious questions as to whether conventional care systems can cope with this phenomenon (ASSA, 2003 as cited in Dorrington, *et al.*, 2006). In the researcher's view, the alarming rate at which the number of orphans is increasing in South Africa once again emphasises the importance of various stakeholders and more especially the class teacher in addressing the needs of OVC. This chapter focuses on the impact of OVC on the supply and demand for education and the factors that impact on the OVC's demand for education.

The focus of this study is on the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. Being a school teacher for almost 29 years, the researcher fully understands how factors within and outside the schooling system impact on the overall role function of the class teacher. However, an area which the researcher needed to explore was the extent to which the class teacher's role function is affected by issues surrounding orphans and vulnerable children. Owing to the fact that literature on the specific role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of OVC is limited, the researcher obtained guidance from literature on broad-scale impacts of

OVC on education.

By relating the literature to the specific role function of the class teacher, the researcher had established an approach that provided him with the information needed to conceptualise the class teacher's role in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. The information presented in this chapter comprises the effects of the OVC crisis on the supply and demand of educators and the factors that impact on the OVC's quest for education.

### **2.3. Impact of OVC and HIV/AIDS on the supply and demand for education**

The literature reviewed revealed that challenges faced by orphans and vulnerable children, and HIV/AIDS policies aimed at mitigating these challenges, seriously impact on the supply, demand and quality of education. The task of equating the demand for educators with the supply of educators will continue to plague the Department of Education for many years to come.

The problem of equating the supply and demand of educators is complicated by a wide variety of factors such as the impact of HIV/AIDS on educators and learners, challenges faced by orphans and vulnerable children, policies aimed at mitigating the challenges faced by educators, resignations, retirements, educators on permanent incapacity leave, and the reluctance of individuals to join the teaching fraternity.

HIV/AIDS has a devastating effect on the ability of education systems to provide a quality and equitable education. The education sector is believed to be more vulnerable to the disruptive impacts of HIV/AIDS because it is person-intensive by nature (Kelly, 2000). Studies by Badcock-Walters, Heard and Wilson (2002) and Bennell (2003) suggest that sub-Saharan Africa appears to be experiencing a sharp increase in the mortality rate of educators. The impact of HIV/AIDS and the dynamics relating to orphans and vulnerable children, such as drop-out rates and increased enrolment due to the implementation of rights-based policies, is felt through its effects on the supply, demand and the provision of quality of education (Louw, Shisana, Peltzer & Zungu, 2009).

Within the context of this study, the potential impact of OVC on defining the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of OVC guided the researcher to explore the manner in which OVC has impacted on the supply of educators.

### **2.3.1 Supply of educators**

The literature reviewed highlighted the following key determinants on the supply of educators: non-attendance and drop-out of OVC from the schooling system, and the impact of HIV/AIDS on educators.

#### *2.3.1.1 Non-attendance at schools and drop-out of OVC*

In terms of the Post Provisioning Norms (PPN) of the Department of Education, as contained in the Employment of Educators Act, 1998 (Department of Education, 1998), the number of educators supplied by the Department of Education to a school is based on the number of learners enrolled at that institution. The PPN therefore determines the base upon which the Department of Education supplies educators to schools. A decline in learner enrolments will therefore mean a decline in PPN for that school, and where the PPN has declined, the principal is expected to identify surplus educators for redeployment at other schools.

As a school teacher the researcher has witnessed the negative effects of the PPN on educators, and a review of the literature on this topic shows clearly that educators are apprehensive about the implementation of the PPN. Repercussions arising from the implementation of the PPN are far reaching and for teachers, this means widespread instability because teachers who were placed on the excess or surplus list face redeployment at other schools (Douglas, 2005). According to Douglas (2005), some teachers opted to resign rather than be redeployed at other schools, and some teachers preferred employment at private schools. Educator preferences and contextual factors, such as geographical settings and demographic factors, also impact on the supply of educators.

With regard to educator perceptions and preferences, a report by Chisholm, Hoadley, WaKivulu, Brookes, Prinsloo, Kgobe, Mosia, Narsee & Rule (2005) brings forth a disturbing finding that mobility and deployment to rural areas are associated with high HIV prevalence. According Louw, *et al.* (2009), teachers are generally reluctant to teach in areas where the HIV/AIDS prevalence rate is high.

Educators who are redeployed to rural schools are apprehensive and cautious and are therefore reluctant to work with orphans and other children affected and/or infected by the HIV/AIDS virus (Louw, *et al.*, 2009). With regard to ontological assumptions and epistemological perspectives, the researcher's observations regarding educator reactions to the PPN are supported by Louw, *et al.* (2009). To understand the impact of OVC drop-out on the supply of educators, the researcher believes that it is necessary to highlight the incidence, magnitude and dynamics of learner drop-outs within the context of orphans and vulnerable children.

A Community Survey by Statistics South Africa (Statistics South Africa, 2008) showed that of 8 973 654 children who were expected to be at school, only 8 565 217 learners were enrolled at schools, meaning that 95.4% were in classes. Compared with figures for 2002 when the learner enrolment rate was 94% (Giese, *et al.* (2003), there has been a significant increase in the percentage of learners enrolled at schools. Giese *et al.* (2003) and Pendlebury *et al.* (2009) indicate that despite the encouraging enrolment trends, the prevalence of non-school attendance among children of school going age remains high.

In 1996, 16% of children aged 6-14 years were out of school, with the highest prevalence of non-school going learners found to be in rural schools. In 2007, however, just over 408 000 children (4.6%) aged 7-15 years were not at school (Pendlebury *et al.*, 2009). Despite these optimistic trends, learner enrolment of orphans continues to remain at a low rate. In 2007, non-attendance of orphans constituted 32% of the total number of children out of school; 5.5% of maternal orphans, 5.2% of paternal orphans and 7.2% of double orphans were out of school in 2007 (Pendlebury *et al.*, 2009). The non-enrolment of 408 000 children implies that almost 13 600 educators will be out of employment if an educator-learners ratio of 1:30 is applied (Chisholm *et al.*, 2005).

A joint study by UNICEF, UNAIDS and USAID (2003) showed that in sub-Saharan African countries, children aged 10 to 14 years who had lost one or both parents were less likely to be at school and more likely to be working more than 40 hours a week. The study showed that in South Africa, about 90% of orphans were less likely to be at school. Compared with other sub-Saharan countries, South Africa is ranked as a country which has one of the highest numbers of orphans who are less likely to attend school. In Senegal, Sierra Leone, the DRC and Somalia the respective statistics are 60%, 50%, 70% and 20% (UNICEF, 2002).

This study also showed that there is a significant gap in school attendance between orphans and non-orphans; for example, in South Africa, the probability of being at a proper education level was higher for non-orphans than for orphans. Similar trends were found in Burundi where the proportion of children in school who had lost both parents was significantly lower than the proportion of children with one or more parents alive (Deininger, Garcia & Subbarao, 2001). Ainsworth and Filmier (2002), on the other hand, showed that the degree of under-enrolment varied from country to country with orphans not always having lower enrolment numbers.

In South Africa, there are more double orphans than maternal orphans or paternal orphans who are out of school (Pendlebury *et al.*, 2009). Nyamukapa and Gregson (2004), however, showed that maternal orphans but not paternal or double orphans had lower primary school completion rates than non-orphans in rural settings. This study is supported by a study by Gregsoon, Nyamukapa, Garnett, Wambe, Lewis, Mason, Chandiwana and Anderson (2005) which showed that in comparison with all other orphans and vulnerable children, maternal orphans and young women with an infected parent were more likely to have received no secondary school education.

Whilst the above findings are suggestive of higher enrolment of learners at primary school, studies by Ainsworth, Beegle and Koda (2002) reflect delayed enrolment of OVC at entry level at schools. A survey conducted by Ainsworth *et al.* (2002) revealed a lower enrolment rate for children aged 7 to 10 than for those aged 11 to 14, regardless of the wealth status of the household. A possible reason for this trend is attributed to the fact that households may have delayed school enrolment to allow the young children, ages 7 to 10, to cope with the death (Clarke, 2009).

For those in the 11 to 14 age group, the enrolment rate was unchanged, although it is not known whether attendance may have been disrupted (Ainsworth *et al.*, 2002). Qulai and Carr-Hill (1993) found that in a household with a maternal death, the enrolment rate of children ages 7 to 10 is lower than that of children of this age group in a household with no female adult death. Case, Paxton and Ableidinger (2002) argue that based on Demographic Health Surveys (DHS) data, and contrary to findings of a few surveys, female orphans do not appear to be more disadvantaged than male orphans. This finding is supported by Giese *et al.* (2003) who indicate African boys in rural settings were more likely to be out of school. This finding is in contrast with a study done by the University of KwaZulu-Natal which showed that the enrolment of orphan girls at secondary school level is lower than that of orphan boys (Badcock-Walters, 2001).

A study by Hallman and Grant (2004) shows that poor females fare far worse than those in richer households. Among 14 to 15-year-olds, 40% of girls in poor households have not advanced beyond primary school. Educational attainment of males also shows very strong wealth patterns. Among 14 to 15-year-olds, just over one-half of boys in the poor households have not advanced past primary school. Chisholm (2005) indicates that drop-out rates in secondary school grades climb steadily to Grade 11, with 14,1% of the learners dropping out by the end of Grade 11. However, Dieltiens and Meny-Gilbert (2009) highlight that high gross enrolment rates in the basic education phase (up until grade 9) indicate that most learners go to school and attribute this trend to compulsory education from Grade 1 to Grade 9.

The above findings clearly show that whilst there is an overall improvement of learner numbers at schools, and whilst this augurs well for sustaining the PPN at schools, the under-enrolment of OVC will continue to downsize the supply of educators, especially in rural schools. The Department of Education makes no provision for utilising the services of surplus or excess educators within the school system. Instead of redeploying surplus educators to other schools, the Department of Education should allow schools to retain such educators for the purposes of providing much needed services, such as guidance and counselling and physical education. The supply of educators at rural primary schools is further threatened by the impact of HIV/AIDS. HIV/AIDS not only impacts on the supply of educators to primary schools but affects the role function of the educator as well.

The focus now turns to the impact of HIV/AIDS on the supply of educators.

### 2.3.1.2 *Impact of HIV/AIDS on supply of educators*

The literature reviewed shows that HIV/AIDS has the most devastating effect on human resources, namely teachers and administrators. Increased morbidity and mortality are reported throughout all regions in Africa, and schools in rural areas are especially hard hit (Gunderson, Kelly & Jemison, 2004) as 12, 7% of all educators are HIV-positive with the highest prevalence in the 25-34 age cohort (21, 4%), followed by 12, 8% in the 35 to 44 age group (Chisholm *et al.*, 2005).

The heavy loss of educators in key age cohort of 30-44, who are in their most productive years, is especially damaging (UNICEF, 2003a). The Educator School Survey (Shisana, Peltzer, Zungu-Dirwayi & Louw, 2005) found that educators residing in rural areas and those teaching in rural schools had a higher HIV prevalence than educators residing in urban areas and teaching in urban schools. Almost half (48.7%) of the estimated 3 976 AIDS-associated deaths in educators were concentrated in the 35-44 age cohort, and nearly 1,15 of the total educator workforce had died of AIDS in 2004 (ELRC, 2005).

The HIV/AIDS morbidity and mortality statistics for South African educators is exceptionally high compared with other Sub-Saharan countries (Louw *et al.*, 2009). HIV/AIDS morbidity and mortality has numerous implications for the educational system. According to the World Bank (2002), financial budgets have to be tailored to accommodate the recruitment of more educators and provide for higher training costs. Ministries of Education (MOE) bear the burden of incurring additional costs by paying full salaries to educators who are officially absent, whilst simultaneously incurring costs to train additional educators and paying salaries to substitute educators (World Bank, 2002).

Cohen (2002) argues that high rates of absenteeism lead to a lower teaching quality, extensive disruption of school activities, and a negative influence on the morale of colleagues. In terms of the South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996 (Department of Education, 1996), South African schools are allowed to employ temporary educators to

substitute for those educators who are on sick leave.

Boler (2003), however, argues that many of these educators are ineffective, or poorly qualified. However, in terms of initiatives taken by the Department of Education to provide in-service, site-based training programmes and qualifications upgrade programmes, the number of unqualified educators has been significantly reduced from 36% in 1994 to 18% in 2004 (Department of Education, 2005b; Peltzer, Shisana, Udjo, Wilson, Rehle, Connolly, Zuma, Letlape, Louw, Simbayi, Zungu-Dirwayi, Ramlagan, Magome, Hall & Phurutse, 2005). Rehle and Shisana (2003) estimate that the HIV prevalence rate among teachers will decline very gradually to 11.5% by 2015 from a peak of 13.5% in 2004 and 2005.

Despite this, there are still a large number of unqualified educators in the education system (Louw *et al.*, 2009). HIV/AIDS affects educators at all levels, impedes the educational process, negatively affects the quality of education, and heightens the risk of illiteracy (ILO, 2004). The effects of HIV on teachers do not only end with an educator's death, but begin with the increasing level of morbidity and mortality. High rates of absenteeism can lead to a lower teaching quality, extensive disruption of school activities, have a negative influence on the morale of colleagues, and promote internal disharmony of the whole school system (ELRC, 2005). In this regard, the Mobile Task Team (MTT) (2003) found that repetitive temporary absence reduces the educator's contact time with learners, thus compromising continuity and quality, and may be equally costly to the system both in terms of teaching and output.

According to Crouch and Perry (2003) at least 30 000 new educators will need to be trained each year by the end of the decade. In South Africa, AIDS-related mortality among educators is estimated to range between 3.5% per year in the best case scenario to 4,6 %in the worst case by 2015. According to the ELRC report (2005), AIDS will add to the existing high level of attrition and the accumulative attrition rate may require replacement of as many as 60 000 educators in 2010.

Whilst the Department of Education has succeeded in increasing the enrolment rate of orphans and vulnerable children at school, the Department of Education per se has, however, done very little to supply these children with permanently placed educators

(Boyer, 2003). Orphans and vulnerable children are therefore denied a sustained supply of qualified educators - which inevitably impacts on the quality of education received by OVC. In trying to provide a steady supply of educators, the Department of Education faces many challenges.

Challenges facing the Department of Education in providing an adequate supply of educators are compounded by the fact that there is a critical shortage of qualified educators in rural areas, particularly those experienced in scarce skills areas (Department of Education, 2006). The situation is further exacerbated by the reluctance by individuals to join the teaching fraternity and the loss of newly qualified educators due to the high HIV/AIDS prevalence in rural communities (Louw *et al.*, 2009). The incidence of HIV/AIDS and OVC has created a dual problem with regard to the supply and demand of educators - on the one hand reducing the supply of educators, and on the other hand creating an increased demand for educators and educational services.

### **2.3.2 Demand for educators**

The distinction between the demand for educators and the demand for specific services of educators needs to be clarified. The demand for educators is based on the number of learners requiring the services of educators, whilst the demand for specific services of educators relates to the demands for specific skills (ELRC, 2005). An overview of general factors leading to a decline in the demand for educators is presented next.

Statistics relating to the drop-out rate of OVC, non-attendance of OVC at schools, and the high absenteeism rate of OVC could indicate a decreased demand for educators. However, the statistics relating to non-enrolment of OVC at schools and drop-out rate of OVC from the schooling system should be seen within the broader context of general factors that impact on the demand for educators.

In absolute terms, there are likely to be fewer children needing education in the next few decades. In areas of high prevalence, rising deaths among adults of reproductive age and lower fertility rates mean that fewer children are being born (ELRC, 2005).

Combined with increased mortality of children infected around the time of birth, this implies that there will be fewer potential school goers than there would be in the absence of the HIV/AIDS pandemic (Coombe, 2002). According to Kelly (2000), there are distinct signs of a decline in absolute enrolments in Zimbabwe and it is estimated that the country will experience more than a 20% reduction in primary school age population by 2010 (World Bank, 2000). Over time, these declining enrolments in primary school will translate into fewer qualified candidates for secondary and tertiary education, and according to the MTT (2003) a similar scenario is emerging in South Africa.

One of the more interesting findings emerging from the 2007 Community Survey is the uneven distribution of out-of-school children between provinces (Pendlebury, *et al.*, 2009). The three wealthiest provinces (Gauteng, Northern and Western Cape) have the highest proportion of children out of school. Poorer provinces such as Limpopo, Free State and Mpumalanga record very low numbers of children out of school (Pendlebury, *et al.*, 2009). A similar pattern can be seen in the cities. The proportion of compulsory school-age children out of school in the six metropolitan municipalities is consistently higher than the national average (5.2% compared with 4.5%), with Johannesburg and Cape Town each showing almost 6% of children not in school (Pendlebury, *et al.*, 2009). An analysis of the 25 municipalities with the highest percentages of children out of school surveyed in the General Household Survey (Statistics South Africa, 2008) reveals some surprising results. More than a third of these municipalities are located in rural parts of the Western Cape, either along the Southern Cape coast or in the Karoo. Six municipalities are located in the Eastern Cape and three in the Northern Cape - all in similar rural farming areas (Pendlebury, *et al.*, 2009).

While more research is needed to identify the specific reasons for the high drop-out rate in these municipalities, a Human Rights Watch report pointed to child labour and the closure of farm schools as contributing factors (Human Rights Watch, 2004). The Human Rights Watch (2004) also reports that orphans who migrate to urban areas tend to enrol at schools in these areas, but later drop-out of school in search of employment. An interesting finding is found in studies done by Adams, Koditukwaku, Hay, Molteno, Viljoen and May as cited in Pendlebury, *et al.*, 2009) which found that high rates of foetal alcohol syndrome may also account for children dropping out of school.

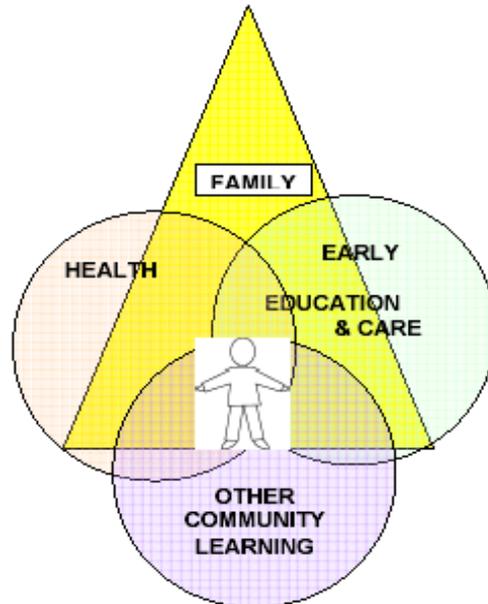
Contrary to some research findings which show that orphan children drop-out of school to fend for the siblings (Foster, Makufa, Drew & Krahe, 1997; Giese, *et al.*, 2003), recent studies have shown that orphan children who are heads of households do not necessarily drop-out of school but display erratic attendance patterns or delayed schooling (Hallman & Grant, 2004; Pendlebury *et al.*, 2009; CALS, 2007). Not only is there instability with regard to OVC's demand for education, the challenges faced by orphans compounds the problem by creating extraordinary demands on the educator's role function. It could therefore be argued that the incidence of OVC does not necessarily reduce the demand for education, but creates an erratic demand for education. Owing to the interwoven relationship between the demand for education and the demand for educators, an overview of the factors that impact on the OVC's quest for education are noted next.

## **2.4. Factors which impact on the OVC's quest for education**

The literature reviewed shows that there is a wide variety of views on how to understand the ways institutions and stakeholders promote or hinder a child's quest for education (Gunderson, Kelly & Jemison, 2004). Interactions within the various settings of OVC, be it the household, the community or the school, will not only determine how OVC develop in life but have a vital role to play in tailoring specific demands the OVC may need in terms of education (Gunderson *et al.*, 2004).

The demand for education does not only mean the need to enrol at school for the purposes of acquiring fundamental skills in the various learning areas, but extends to the acquisition of specific knowledge, skills and values necessary for the holistic development of the child. Bronfenbrenner's ecological model (1979) is used in this study as a point of departure to discuss the demands of OVC on the education system. In Bronfenbrenner's ecological model of child development (1979), child development takes place through processes of progressively more complex interactions between an active child and the persons, objects and symbols in its immediate environment. To be effective, the interaction must occur on a fairly regular basis over extended periods of time. The child is at the centre of this model (See Figure 1 and Figure 2).

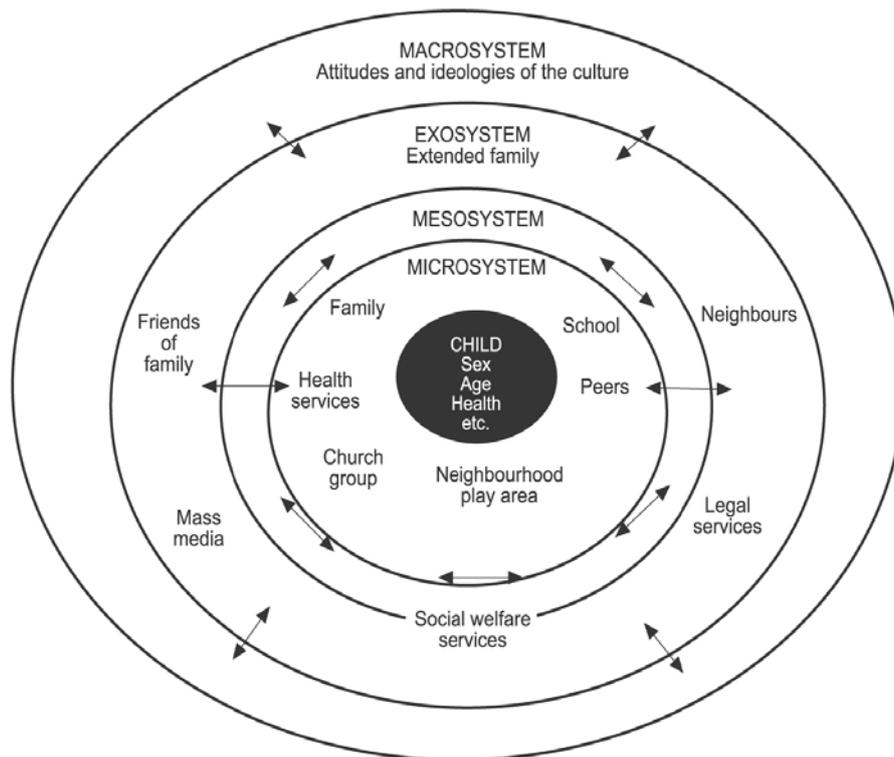
Figure 1 Bronfenbrenner's ecological settings



Source: Bronfenbrenner (1979)

The model acknowledges that a child affects, and is affected by, the settings in which it spends time. Bronfenbrenner (1979) indicates that the child's family constitutes the most important setting for two reasons; firstly, the family is the setting where the child spends the most time, and secondly, the family exerts a tremendous amount of emotional influence on the child. Other important settings may include the child's extended family, early care and education programmes, health care settings, and other community learning sites such as neighbourhoods, libraries and playgrounds (Thomas, 1992).

Figure 2 Bronfenbrenner's ecological model of child development



Source: Dockrell & Messer (1999)

Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Theory (1979) holds that development reflects the influence of several environmental systems. The theory identifies five environmental systems, namely the micro-system, the meso-system, the exo-system, the macro-system and the chrono-system (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The micro-system refers to the setting in which the individual lives. These contexts include the person's family, peers, school, and neighbourhoods.

The meso-system refers to relations between micro-systems or connections between contexts. Examples are the relation of family experiences to school experiences, school experiences to church experiences, and family experiences to peer experiences. For example, children whose parents have rejected them may have difficulty in developing positive relations with teachers. The exo-system involves links between a social setting in which the individual does not have an active role and the individual's immediate context.

For example, a husband's or child's experience at home may be influenced by a mother's experiences at work. The mother might receive a promotion that requires more travel, which might increase conflict with the husband and change patterns of interaction with the child.

The macro-system describes the culture in which individuals live. Cultural contexts include developing and industrialised countries, socio-economic status, poverty, and ethnicity. The chrono-system refers to the patterning of environmental events and transitions over the life course, as well as socio-historical circumstances. For example, divorce is one such transition. Lovell (1967) indicates that researchers have found that the negative effects of divorce on children often peak in the first year after the divorce and by two years after the divorce, family interaction is less chaotic and more stable.

Reasons for using Bronfenbrenner's (1979) model to evaluate the psychosocial as well as the educational issues relating to OVC, are the following: an orphan or vulnerable child fits perfectly into the centre of the model; the development of orphans and vulnerable children is contingent on a number of interactive processes and settings; the type of relationships that exist within the OVC's household is contingent on the efficiency of support structures; and policies, ideologies and culture have a direct impact on the child.

HIV/AIDS was not prevalent at the time when Bronfenbrenner (1979) postulated his ecological model of childhood development. Many psychosocial issues associated with HIV/AIDS transcend economic, political, micro-systemic and other macro-systemic boundaries as children made vulnerable by the epidemic become embroiled in a downward spiral of distress and difficulties that affect multiple aspects of their lives (Killian, 2004) and accordingly affect the demand for education. Because of erratic attendance patterns, re-enrolments, failure, and long periods of absence, the demand for education by orphans and vulnerable children will not always be stable (Pendlebury, *et al.*, 2009; Dieltiens & Meny-Gibert, 2009).

Most of the factors that impact on the OVC's need for schooling are to be found in the micro-system. With regard to specifics relating to the demand for education, the ensuing section will focus on the following: the OVC's household, the community in

which the OVC lives, peers, the schooling situation, and ideologies.

#### **2.4.1 Factors within the OVC's household/institution**

This section focuses on the factors within the OVC's household that impact on the OVC's quest for education. The household is a setting, or a system, in the micro-system in Bronfenbrenner's (1979) model. Interactions and circumstances within the household could either encourage the orphan or vulnerable to be at school, or discourage the OVC from attending school.

The household, whether or not affected by HIV/AIDS, face a number of direct costs such as user fees, transport, school supplies and school fees. According to Gunderson *et al.* (2004), the household also faces indirect costs; the most important of which is the opportunity cost of the time a child spends in school. These costs must be compared with the expected benefits of education as either a consumption or investment good, or some combination of the two (Gunderson *et al.*, 2004). The demand for education should also be seen against a background of poverty, the importance that households place on education, and demands of the household.

##### **2.4.1.1 Household circumstances**

In a study by Vermaak, Mavimbela, Chege & Esu-Williams cited in Pendlebury, *et al.* (2009), it was found that orphanhood and parental illness affect school enrolment and attendance. Seven percent of children in the study, aged 7-18 years, were not enrolled in school, mainly due to financial difficulties (50%), disability (14%), personal illness (10%) and pregnancy (8%). Orphans were more likely to have dropped out of school compared with non-orphans with financial difficulties as the main reason.

Children with seriously ill parents were more likely to have dropped out of school (8%) compared with children with healthy parents (6%). Similarly, children affected by parental illness were more likely to have stopped attending school because of care giving (5%), poor behaviour (14%) and poor school performance (12%) compared with children whose parents were healthy (3%, 4% and 7% respectively) (Pendlebury, *et al.*, 2009).

Cross tabulations of education by age shows many children lagging behind their education cohort, suggesting either late onset of education or high failure rates.

The above findings are supported by Giese *et al.* (2003) and Ainsworth and Filmier (2002) who have cited poverty as one of the most important reasons why orphans and vulnerable children do not attend school or drop-out of school. It is taken for granted that the costs of school fees, uniforms, transport and stationery, and the loss of child labour, strain limited household resources to push children out of school. In studies in other sub-Saharan countries such as West Africa (Ainsworth & Filmier, 2002) and Zimbabwe (Boler & Carroll, 2003) it was shown that poverty was a major contributory factor for the high drop-out rate of orphans from the schooling system. But this explanation does not necessarily hold true in South Africa, where most children enrol in school despite high levels of poverty. Although 70% of children lived in poverty in 2006, South Africa had a high gross enrolment rate of 96% for grades R – 9 and 86% for grades 10 – 12 in 2006 (Pendlebury *et al.*, 2009).

Dieltiens and Meny-Gibert (2009) introduce the concept of school delays, which is defined as a year of non-advancement because of either not having enrolled at all during a particular year (but eventually returning to school), or withdrawal during the year, or repeating a grade because of poor performance the previous year. Dieltiens and Meny-Gibert (2009) have shown that absolute poverty does not necessarily cause orphans and vulnerable children to stay at home or drop-out of the schooling system, but may be influential in causing learners to enrol late at school, have irregular attendance patterns during the year, and perform poorly at school - causing learners to repeat the grade. This finding is supported by Hallman and Grant (2004) who observed that most young people had attained at least a primary education by age 20, but poor children are more likely to have had 'school delays'.

Hallman and Grant (2004) found that even in situations where households experienced unexpected socio-economic shocks, children's schooling was rarely disrupted. This study showed that only 3% of those households that had experienced economic shocks had removed one or more of their children from school.

The concept of 'non-continuous demand' for education simply means that the demand for schooling is dependent on the circumstance of the OVC at any given point in time. Conceptualisation of the term 'non-continuous demand' emanates from the school delays concept introduced by Dieltiens and Meny-Gibert (2009) and Pendlebury *et al.* (2009). The demand for continuous education may be there all the time but circumstances such as teenage pregnancy, death in the family, HIV/AIDS illnesses and other opportunistic diseases, drug and alcohol abuse and fending for siblings, may warrant OVC to stay out of the schooling system for protracted periods of time and return to school only when the demands of the household are met.

#### 2.4.1.2 *Teenage pregnancy*

With regard to teenage pregnancy, although African females advance more quickly than males through primary school, during secondary school, many young women withdraw due to pregnancy (Hallman & Grant, 2004). However a study by Pendlebury *et al.* (2009) showed that slightly more boys enrolled at primary school than girls, and the pattern shifts at the secondary school level, where girls are more likely than boys to attend school.

This change may indicate that fewer boys than girls are progressing from primary school to secondary school, or that boys are more likely than girls to drop-out of high school. This suggests that teenage pregnancy is not the primary cause of high school drop-out, although it may be a significant factor for girls. While the drop-out rate of pregnant orphan girls may be on the decline (Department of Health, Medical Research Council, 2007), the rate at which orphan girls advance through their schooling is of concern.

A study by Hallman and Grant (2004) showed that a considerable proportion of the school delays experienced between the ages of 16 and 24 by African women are because of pregnancy; 5% of 16-17-year-olds, 20% of 18-19-year-olds, 25% of 20-22-year-olds, and 28% of 23-24-year-olds. However, the high proportion returning to school after a pregnancy delay is encouraging.

Hallman and Grant (2004) report that a number of factors contribute to teenage pregnancy and births to teenagers, including high rates of sexual activity among teenagers, inconsistent use of contraception (including condoms), sexual abuse and coercion, and social taboos. In support of the assertion by Hallman and Grant (2004), Riet, *et al.* (2006) and Clarke (2008) report on a general trend of teenage pregnancy among vulnerable girls. In general, teenagers who are least prepared to care for a child - those experiencing problems in school, those with low educational and career aspirations, those engaging in risk-taking behaviours such as drug and alcohol use, and those from low-income families and communities - are the most likely to become pregnant and give birth. Whilst there are recorded instances of orphaned and vulnerable girls becoming teenage mothers, there is also a different scenario which tells the story of responsibilities and duties associated with orphanhood.

#### 2.4.1.3 *Child-headed households*

Caring for siblings at home may warrant an orphan or vulnerable child to stay at home for protracted periods and return to school once that duty is over, or in the worst case, drop-out of the schooling system. According to CALS cited in Pendlebury, *et al.*, 2009, there are 118 500 children living in a total of 66 500 child-headed households (CHH) across South Africa, which is equal to roughly 0.7% of all children (0-17-year olds) and to 0.6% of all households in the country. Three-quarters (75%) of all children living in child-headed households were located in only three provinces at the time of the General Household Survey (Statistics South Africa, 2005); Limpopo (39%), the Eastern Cape (23%), and KwaZulu-Natal (13%). It is interesting to note in this respect that Limpopo has only half the number of orphans of either the Eastern Cape or KwaZulu-Natal.

Besides the plight that OVC's face being heads of households, females who head households also have their unique problems. In a study by Vermaak *et al.* (2004) it was shown that female-headed households are more likely to be poor and include orphans than male-headed households. About half the households surveyed (48%) were headed by females. The data indicate that female-headed households were significantly more likely to report that they earned a monthly income that is at or below the poverty line compared with male-headed households

The study also showed that female-headed households were more likely to have a parent living away from home (62%) compared with male-headed households (38%). This is largely due to higher migration rates among males compared with females. Sixty eight percent of female-headed households included children who were orphaned, compared with 32% of male-headed households. These statistics clearly support the finding that females are more likely to complete their final grades than males (Louw *et al.*, 2009).

Foster (2002) indicates that child-headed households are often an extreme result of rejection or neglect by extended families. This statement could be closely aligned with Bronfenbrenner's (1979) theory. Foster (2002) described the factors that may predispose the development of a child-headed household; namely, reluctance of relatives to foster orphans, lack of contact with relatives with the children, death of a single mother leaving illegitimate children, death of grandparent or caregiver, and children preferring to live in a child-headed households because of inheritance.

Households headed by children who are orphans are formed because a grandmother has died, or because siblings have insisted on staying in their deceased parents' homestead. These are often temporary arrangements, and families usually absorb these children in time (Foster, 2004). However, children taking on the caretaking role may suffer significant negative consequences, such as having to drop-out of school, seek employment to support their younger siblings, or get married in the hope that this will provide greater security (Grainger, Webb & Elliot, 2001).

According to Foster (2003), the presence of child-headed households does not necessarily mean that the extended family has abandoned these children entirely. Child-headed households often exist in close proximity to relatives who can provide material support (CALs, 2007; Foster, 2003). Some 'fortunate' orphans live with relatives or friends.

#### 2.4.1.4 *Social addresses of OVC*

Social addresses of an OVC could incorporate living arrangements with uncles, aunts, siblings, grandparents or caregivers. The social addresses of OVC could also extend

to child-headed households. Research by Foster (2002) highlighted the impact of 'risk factors' and 'social addresses' of families on the development of OVC. Most of these protective processes appear to transcend ethnic, social class, geographical and historical boundaries.

Foster (2002) indicates that some uncles and aunts of orphaned children are reluctant to foster a relative's children because it would compromise their own children's standard of living, and according to Baylis (2002), the mere presence of an orphan in a family constitutes a serious financial burden. According to Gunderson *et al.* (2004), the costs of sending orphans to school are particularly relevant if a caregiver does not reap pecuniary and non-pecuniary benefits from an orphan's education. The orphan's own status will also affect the enrolment decision.

Studies in Zimbabwe by Gunderson *et al.* (2004) and in South Africa by Davids and Skinner (2005) show that orphans faced interruptions in schooling if they needed to care for their parents, if they had to work to replace a parent's lost income and/or funeral expenses, or if they increased household production (or some combination of these). However, according to Gunderson *et al.* (2004), these interruptions in schooling may lead caregivers to perceive a lower return on an orphan's education and such perceptions, according to Hepburn (2001), may create conflict within the family structure.

Garbarino and Ganzel (2000) indicate the micro-systems and meso-systems are characterised by a network of enduring and reciprocal caring relationships, and where there is a breakdown in relationships there could be widespread repercussions. This is true of orphans and vulnerable children who experience disruptions in schooling in instances where conflict, abuse and authoritarian parenting styles may want them to leave home and live with friends or relatives in other areas (Grainger *et al.*, 2001).

Orphans who live with grandparents also face difficulties with regard to their education. A significant factor that affects enrolment and regular attendance is the importance foster parents and caregivers attach to education. In a study by Vermaak *et al.* (2004) it was found that a substantial number of household heads are elderly and have had no schooling, and that these caregivers attach very little importance to education, and are

not in a position to assist orphans with their homework or provide direction with regard to their future. The study showed that 38% of children lived with one or more grandparents and only 35% of grandparents had some sort of schooling.

Parenting styles in which there are strong requirements for respect and obedience from children, coupled with the exertion of power-based control as the preferred disciplinary technique, may also cause the OVC to drop-out of school to either provide income in order to please the caregiver or leave home to live elsewhere (Grainger *et al.*, 2001). In a study by the Human Sciences Research Council (2006), it was found that disciplinary methods in the homes of orphans were harsh with a strong reliance on corporal punishment. In two separate studies conducted by Giese *et al.* (2003) and CINDI (2006), orphans openly spoke of incidences where they were severely beaten at home and at school. These orphans also indicated that such abuse had caused them to be angry, disrespectful and full of hate. According to Gunderson *et al.* (2004), children who grow up in violent settings have no respect for authority at school and often display violent tendencies and become gangsters and bullies at school.

The performance of these children at school is generally poor and they drop-out of the schooling system long before the completion of their final grades (Gunderson *et al.*, 2004).

#### 2.4.1.5 *Extended household chores*

Orphans are forced to accompany family members to collect grants, visit clinics and hospitals, and to go to town (Giese *et al.*, 2003; CINDI, 2006). A study by Hepburn (2001) on OVC education in Eastern and Southern Africa showed that engaging OVC in household chores and errands negatively affected participation in learning - making them late for school, or tiring them out thereby affecting school performance and the ability to do homework.

These chores had also compromised social relations. Learners seem to be required to perform many different chores but this responsibility appeared to fall primarily on girls who would be expected to take on more household tasks and greater responsibility for the care of younger siblings, and sick or dying relatives.

It appears that it is particularly girls who are at risk of having to forfeit their education to take care of sick members of their families. Over and above all the factors that impact on the OVC's quest for education, death of a parent will probably remain as most distressing.

#### 2.4.1.6 *Death and bereavement*

In most cases when the expected bereavement occurs due to a parent's death the children are often mentally, physically, and emotionally unprepared to deal with its consequences (UNICEF & UNAIDS, 2004). The cultural taboo of talking about death in many African settings means that children tend to be unprepared for a parent's death, despite the long period of illness usually associated with HIV/AIDS (UNICEF & UNAIDS, 2004). This lack of preparedness heightens their distress, and combined with a lack of emotional support and guidance from adults, compounds their uncertainty about their future and often contributes to children dropping out of school.

A study conducted by CINDI (2007) highlights the impact of multiple family deaths and illness on learners. According to CINDI (2007), learners within this context, sometimes at a very young age, play care-giving roles for ill relatives, and according to Hepburn (2001), these learners also experience multiple deaths of these household members. The experience of multiple deaths might also exacerbate some of the more expected losses, such as that of elderly grandparents. Developing attachments to their grandparents in the absence of their parents, and then experiencing their grandparents' deaths could lead to complex bereavement processes (CINDI, 2007).

The impact of multiple deaths on the educational progress of the child and on the psychological development of the child is significant. In this regard, Kelly (2000) indicates that experiences of deaths in a family also lead to the child having to live with another relative in other geographical settings and such disruptions are detrimental to the child's appropriate developmental progress. Some children have been dealt a double blow. With regard to the psychological development of the child, the impact of experiencing multiple deaths in the family could be devastating, as the HSRC (2006) showed that orphans who had witnessed multiple deaths demonstrated signs of depression and were introverted, subdued and had displayed suicidal tendencies.

The HSRC (2006) study also showed that many orphans escaped the 'family net' and had resorted to criminal activities such as theft, prostitution and substance abuse. In terms of the Four Dimensional Model of Self-Esteem, the 'parent-related' self-esteem takes on a different meaning for OVC (HSRC, 2006)..

Geldard and Geldard (2005) found that a child's self-esteem is inevitably adversely affected in the face of traumatic events that occur within the family. According to Hepburn (2001), orphans who are abused and subjugated very seldom realise their self-actualisation needs as outlined in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow, 1971).

Girls are particularly vulnerable among children affected by HIV/AIDS. There are several symptoms of this vulnerability; (1) the prevalence of HIV infection among women of reproductive age is as much as 20% higher than among men (Rihani, 2000), and (2), when a family member falls ill they are more likely to drop-out of school to assume household and care-taking responsibilities (Kelly, 2000). Whilst one needs to be cognisant of the factors that impede OVC's quest for education, one should not lose sight of the positive interventions which occur within the household that enable the OVC to access quality education.

#### *2.4.1.7 Positive household interventions*

Whilst it is true that adversities, stressors and risks seriously undermine the psycho-social and educational development of OVC, Killian (2004) indicates that it is the positive experiences and actions that occur within the micro-system that are of paramount importance when determining the demand for education. Positive interventions such as assisting the child to read and draw, and showing the child to behave appropriately (Killian, 2004) and demonstrating resilience (Cotu, 2002) are the vital ingredients for sustained educational development of the child.

In terms of the Integrative Model on Resilience (Masten, 2000), children become resilient in settings of caring, support and sound relationships. These resilient children are much more in control of themselves than those who are not resilient (Killian, 2004) and are able to progress well despite difficulties (Cotu, 2002), and accordingly have a stable demand for education.

According to Foster (2002), the metamorphosed family structures of OVC are in themselves safety nets for OVC. Foster (2002) indicates that there is ample evidence of instances of positive interventions by families and caregivers and documents instances of positive interventions:

Love and care for children; surrogate parenting; promotion of child fostering; day care for young children; getting children back to school; raising money for school fees and school uniforms; income-generating projects; material support provided by grandmothers and aunts; agricultural labour and household repairs; accompanying sick children to hospital; referral to other agencies (e.g. social welfare, health); advocating for children (e.g. school fees, rent, legal issues); community schools and appropriate education and training; raising concerns with community leaders about sexual abuse and exploitation; organising cultural, sporting and leisure activities; spiritual support and counselling; collection of child support grant; attending to school matters; ensuring that that the child's homework is done; and obtaining resource material for the child (Foster, 2002).

The previous section highlights in a general way some of the positive interventions that families are engaged in to support OVC. It is encouraging to note that there is recorded evidence of instances of positive interventions by families. Households that are custodians of orphans and vulnerable children, and which at the same time are coping with the impact of HIV/AIDS, seek to improve their food security and maintain their household expenditure patterns by raising or maintaining their income. Households adopt three main strategies to varying degrees to cope with the impact of the death of a prime-age adult relative within the household; drawing down savings or selling assets, altering household composition where dependent children are sent to stay with relatives, and utilising assistance from other households (Foster, 2002).

Characteristic of interactions in the meso-system in the study by Giese *et al.* (2003) reports that in the Cato Crest area in Durban, many caregivers and guardians of OVC have utilised the expertise of educators, guidance counsellors and health services in order to attend to the psycho-social as well as educational needs of orphans. Caregivers and guardians encourage children in their care to socialise and participate in the various activities organised by the school.

## **2.4.2 Factors within the OVC's community**

As the orphan or vulnerable child progresses in life, the child, together with his/her 'family' interacts with systems within the community. The community within the micro-system relates to faith-based organisations (FBO), community-based organisations (CBO), volunteer groups or individuals, and non-governmental organisations. Interactions and circumstances within the community could either encourage OVC to attend school or discourage OVC from attending school. The functionality of FBOs, CBOs and NGOs are contingent on external factors such as poverty, funding, and economic circumstances as well as internal factors such as human resources and physical resources (Foster, 2002).

### **2.4.2.1 Community factors acting against the OVC's quest for education**

This section commences by highlighting the impact of poverty on communities as poverty will continue to plague communities, thereby impeding any opportunities for growth and development. As one of the continent's richest countries, South Africa occupies a low global position in international poverty rankings but is also one the world's most unequal societies (Foster, 2002).

Based on the African population alone, it ranks close to other African countries. Income disparities between rich and poor, particularly the poorest sections of the rural population, have increased, alongside the important growth of a black middle class, previously restricted under apartheid (Statistics South Africa, 2009). According to a 2004 study, there was no 'significant' change in the percentage of people living in poverty between 1996 and 2001 (Statistics South Africa- 2009 cited in Pendlebury, et al., 2009).

It is no secret that while social differentiation is growing within racial groups, the black rural population, and particularly Africans, experience the highest levels of poverty, estimated at 70.9% compared with the more contested national poverty rates, evaluated at between 49% and 57% (Pendlebury, et al., 2009). Accompanying poverty is the lack of community resources such as libraries, sports fields, health centres, and basic infrastructure to sustain livelihoods (Pendlebury, et al., 2009). From an

educational viewpoint, learners living in impoverished rural areas will therefore demand that schools provide resources that are lacking in the community.

Tollfree (2003) indicates that the migrant labour system has contributed to the absence of adults in many homes, and the HIV/AIDS pandemic, in combination with the profound levels of poverty, has led to multiple losses, food insecurity and daily survival strategies, which include crime and violence. The community therefore lacks adult role models and adult supervision (Tollfree, 2003). Killian (2004) draws attention to unacceptably high rates of violence and crime associated with poverty. Expanding on Killian's assertion, Riet *et al.* (2006) indicate that at times violence is perceived to be the only means of conflict resolution and of asserting one's own rights.

According to Killian (2004), children who are exposed to various degrees of violence in their communities tend to think that violence is the panacea for solving conflict and thus display such violent behaviour at school. According to Glew, Rivara and Feudtner (2000), such behaviour eventually impacts on the demand for education and they further assert that children who display violent behaviour at school perform poorly at school, have poor attendance records, and in some cases drop-out of the schooling system before completing their final grades.

Adding to the OVC's misery is the issue of stigmatisation. Orphans and vulnerable children fear being stigmatised by the community and the perceptions of the community reduces the self-esteem of orphans and vulnerable children. Children with low self-esteem tend to be aggressive rather than assertive (Emler, 2001). The demand for education is further impacted in instances where children, out of fear of being stigmatised and harassed, are forced to leave their communities to live with their friends or relatives in other areas.

#### 2.4.2.2 *Community initiatives that promote the OVC's quest for education*

On the brighter side, there is reported evidence of community initiatives aimed at placing impoverished orphans and vulnerable children at school and mobilising resources to ensure the sustained livelihoods of these children (Foster, 2003). A report by CINDI (2007), however, highlights that these community initiatives also experience a

number of systemic challenges. These challenges include financial constraints, the plight of female volunteers and demographical constraints (CINDI, 2007). While many of the reports about community responses to children correctly applaud the work that they do, there is an argument to the contrary that suggests that only richer households benefit from such community initiatives (CINDI, 2007).

The researcher argues that if this is the case then the poorest of the poor will be marginalised forever. Some community initiatives may not work all the time; for example, agricultural interventions by the community may not work well in a drought stricken area (OSSA, 2003). Low literacy levels in the community, in the view of the researcher, could cause major setbacks to community initiatives.

Some of the more detailed descriptions and assessments of OVC programmes aimed at addressing the educational needs of orphans and vulnerable children include: WAMATA, Tanzania (Mukuyogo & Williams, 1991); FACT/FOCUS, Zimbabwe (Foster, Makufa, Drew, Kambeu & Saurombe, 1996; Lee, 1999; UNAIDS, 2001); COPE, Malawi, (DCOF, 1999; Donahue & Williamson, 1998; May, 2000; Hunter & Williamson, 2001); Caritas/Orphanaid, Swaziland (Makufa & Xaba, 2001).

Some of the more popular ones in South Africa and in neighbouring countries are the Treatment Action Campaign (TAC), Save our Souls (SOS), National Association of People living with AIDS (NAPWA), Action Aid, Save the Children, Christian Care, SaveAct (a microfinance organisation), Umdoni and Vulamehlo HIV and AIDS Association, Children in Distress (CINDI), The Thandanani Children's Home, Gift of the Givers and Big Brother Big Sister (an organisation that facilitates mentorship of OVC and children who are heads of households), the Sathya Sai Centre of South Africa, the Divine Life society of South Africa, and Project-Positive Ray (CINDI, 2006; Giese, et al., 2003).

The components of community initiatives are many and varied and in this regard Foster (2002) highlights the popular components: home visits, love and care for children; surrogate parenting; promotion of child fostering; day care for young children; getting children back to school; raising money for school fees and school uniforms; income-generating projects; material support provided by neighbours; nutrition gardens;

agricultural labour and household repair; accompanying sick children to hospital; referral to other agencies (e.g. social welfare, health); advocating for children (e.g. school fees, rent, legal issues); community schools and appropriate education and training; raising concerns with community leaders about sexual abuse, exploitation; organising cultural, sporting and leisure activities; spiritual support and counselling.

Bronfenbrenner (1979) supports the view that children who experience a sense of belonging in the community and who become resilient are more likely to participate actively in decision-making processes. A further consequence of having a sense of belonging is that the network of people from whom social support can be sought is significantly broadened, making it easier for children in distress to access support. Being part of a community and believing that one belongs generates both security and pride, which in turn precipitates helpfulness, altruistic and social behaviours (Killian, 2004). Orphans who have a history of hardship are better equipped to identify learner needs and accordingly lend their expertise to community and faith-based organisations (Killian, 2004).

### ***2.4.3 Factors within the schooling system***

The school is a setting in the micro system. A school is regarded as a dynamic interactive institution and is the nerve-centre of multifarious processes that occur within and outside its boundaries. This section focuses on the effect that educators, peers and school infrastructure have on making the school environment attractive to OVC.

### ***2.4.4 Peers***

The role played by peers within this micro-system is critical (Castrogiovanni, 2004). Peers and friends play a pivotal role in attracting learners to school for any one of the following reasons; in instances where peers and friends serve as a support or even an attachment figure for the learner, or in instances where peers serve as conduit for the learner to further his/her antisocial behaviour (Seifert & Hoffnung, 2000). On the other hand, peers may be the reason why learners may not want to attend school.

The role of the peer group in helping a person to define his or her identity becomes very important in the respective developmental phase (Seifert & Hoffnung, 2000). Through interactive processes within the peer group, learners are given the opportunity to learn and to witness the strategies others use to cope with problems and emotional support (Seifert & Hoffnung, 2000). In terms of the Attachment Theory, the strain of being an orphan may make young people even more dependent on friendships than would normally have been the case (Jensen, 1985).

Contrary to the above, Gouws and Kruger (1995) highlight the difficulties middle childhood and adolescent orphans may experience. An individual's anger with the unfairness of their world often contaminates their peer group relationships, as they are likely to feel that their friends have not had to cope with what they had to deal with (Seifert & Hoffnung, 2000). However, in Louw's study (2005), most of the participants identified friends as the most important source of support to them. Neuman and Newman (1997) argue that in instances where caring and support structures are void in a family structure, children belonging to such families tend to seek support from alternate sources such as peers, partners as well as educators. Such interactive processes are generally found in the meso-system.

Children form cliques and gangs at schools for all the wrong reasons. In a study by Seifert and Hoffnung (2000) an adolescent who displays anti-social tendencies will select groups which are involved in drugs, gangsterism, alcohol abuse, bullying, vandalism and prostitution, and the need to be in this group is the primary reason why these children attend school. Vulnerable children have a greater need for conformity and are easily enticed by groups and gangs that are involved in anti-social behaviour (Foster *et al.*, 1997).

Peers can also have a negative influence on the education of OVC. Learners in schools are familiar with various forms of social stigma, and especially discrimination associated with gender, poverty and HIV and AIDS. Stigmatisation by peers undermines the child's self-esteem as well as the child's self-actualisation need. Riet *et al.* (2006) document that children are afraid to go to school because their peers ostracise them. In this regard learners identified a number of characteristics for which children are stigmatised.

These include lack of self-care, being dirty, poor or hungry, having no uniform, wearing untidy clothes, being 'ugly', and belonging to an HIV and AIDS infected family.

Children, who face the adversities of the loss of parents and poverty therefore face additional difficulties in the form of being stigmatised and rejected by peers. In a study on child-headed households (Acord, 2001), it was found that female children were often required to attend to younger siblings and missed school as a result of this. Owing to fears of stigmatisation and harassment, many orphans are reluctant to attend school and often leave school and enrol at another school (Acord, 2001). A school in the Richmond area of KwaZulu-Natal reported that the male bullying and female vulnerability and defencelessness were primary causes for their high learner absenteeism (Riet *et al.*, 2006).

#### **2.4.5 Physical resources**

Schools that do not have proper physical resources do not attract learners and consequently learners migrate to schools which are adequately resourced. There is therefore a drop in learner enrolment at the rural schools and in terms of the PPN, these schools will inevitably have fewer teachers. Giese *et al.* (2003) noted that many learners complained about the quality and quantity of human resources available at their schools in relation to educators, administrative and cleaning staff.

The problem, according to the Thandanani Children's Foundation (2003) and Giese *et al.* (2003), is compounded by the lack of infrastructural resources and the lack of municipal services such as water and electricity, which in turn contributed to unhygienic and unsanitary toilets. The protracted lack of piped water to some schools poses a serious threat to learner well-being and general hygiene. Learners, in a study conducted by Riet *et al.* (2006), complained that they could not engage in sporting activities because of the dusty environment and lack of grass in the grounds. Lack of funding and maintenance staff contribute to schooling taking place in dilapidated buildings with missing roofs or windows, or classrooms with broken desks.

The studies by Giese *et al.*, (2003) and Riet *et al.* (2006) are supported by findings by Netshitahame and Van Vollenhoven (2002) that most of the rural schools surveyed do

not have enough classrooms to accommodate all learners. Where classrooms are available, the condition of these classrooms is not safe for the learners. The walls are cracked, windows are broken, and floors are in complete disrepair and need renovations. Some schools have built flimsy additional classrooms made of planks, and apply cow dung to the floors. The schools do not have safe school grounds, nor organized sports fields. Fifty percent of the schools do not have playgrounds. In these cases, learners play outside in the field where tall grass, rocks, litter, holes, snakes, etc. pose a threat to their safety.

The other 50% use community grounds that are not well maintained. Grounds that are not well maintained pose a threat to the safety of the learners for there may be holes and litter and unsteady stairs or pavilions. This results in injuries to learners. Seventy percent of the schools use pit latrine systems, which can also be unsafe, especially for younger children. Owing to the lack of sporting facilities, learners engage in rough play, vandalism, gang-up and become preoccupied in gambling and substance abuse (Furlong & Morrisson, 1994).

Another concern raised by learners in the studies of Giese *et al.* (2003) and Riet *et al.* (2006) is the issue of safety and security. In this regard, Germann (2005) found that some learners commented on being exposed in their learning environment to potential sources of violence and crime from the community and also from learners within the school.

According to Netshithame and Van Vollenhoven (2002), the problem of violence in schools, like the related problem of violence in society, has become one of the most pressing educational issues in schools. School violence is no longer a stranger in rural public schools. The school's physical facilities, including school buildings and grounds, also pose safety problems. The threat of violence constitutes a fundamental violation of the social contract between the school and the community. Noguera (1996) indicates that if effective measures to address the problems are not taken soon, support for public education could be irreparably jeopardised.

Most schools have erected fences and lockable gates to keep undesirable people out of the school grounds, keep learners in, and identify latecomers. Although this is useful

in terms of securing the school site, it acts as a further barrier to school access and attendance for those who walk from far and have many home responsibilities and are accordingly denied access to school by the authorities for transgressing the school rules. The researcher argues that the Department of Education does not condone instances where learners are denied access to schools. The Department of Education has indicated that it would deploy security personnel in violent and crime-ridden schools. The researcher argues that schools are yet to benefit from this initiative.

#### 2.4.5.1 *Educators*

Learners often experience the behaviour of their educators as barriers to learning. Educators who distance themselves from the plight of OVC have 'closed the doors' to meaningful engagement and communication between the child and the school (Clarke, 2008). Although educators in rural settings face many challenges, learners comment that they do not explain sufficiently, and are often critical or personally derogatory when learners give incorrect answers or ask questions. Learners complain that educators are often not approachable or are absent (Giese, *et al.*, 2003).

In this regard, studies by Louw *et al.* (2009) and Peltzer *et al.* (2005) show the prevalence of HIV/AIDS is higher among educators living in rural areas and teaching in rural schools compared with educators living in urban areas and teaching in urban schools. High absenteeism among educators is therefore commonplace in rural schools. Schools that do not have a stable workforce do not attract learners and consequently learners migrate to schools which are adequately resourced. There is therefore a drop in learner enrolment at the rural schools, and in terms of the PPN, these schools will inevitably have fewer teachers which in effect compounds the problem of teacher shortages in rural schools.

Educator attitudes play a vital role in attracting learners to school. The researcher, being inspired by Clarke's (2008) book, 'Heroes and Villains – Teachers in the Education Response to HIV', firmly believes that educators play the most important role in moulding the life of a learner. Educators who are embroiled in anti-social activities, have an impartial attitude to the plight of learners, absent themselves regularly, have sexual relations with learners, and who are not approachable are regarded as 'villains

in the classroom' (Clarke, 2008), whilst those educators who have the interests of the learner at heart are regarded as 'heroes in the classroom' (Clarke, 2008). 'Villains' detract learners from enrolling at their schools while 'heroes' attract learners to their schools.

Giese *et al.*, (2003) show that learners are appalled by educators who continuously inflict corporal punishment and hurl verbal abuse at them. Giese *et al.* (2003) indicate that such behaviour among educators could suggest a deep loss of respect and order in the school and that teaching in such contexts makes educators feel threatened and learners are, in turn, threatened and insulted by educators. In a climate pervaded by violence, crime and social fragmentation, maintaining discipline and control in schools is bound to be extremely difficult.

However, given the way individual learners seem to resort to violence in their own problem-solving behaviour, possibly as a consequence of observing what is done to them and what exists around them, school discipline practices need to be addressed (Giese *et al.*, 2003). The challenge of educator commitment, accountability and making learning accessible is particularly debilitating for learners. Many of these factors seem to point to a lack of educator training and development, a lack of confidence in facilitating learning, and a lack of effective monitoring of teachers by their line managers. Teachers are also seen to respond differently to children of different race, gender or ability, modelling discriminatory practices for the learners.

The plight of the OVC continues – learners have reported that they are suspended from school because they are not in a position to pay school fees, purchase proper school uniforms, pay for school tours, or purchase stationery, and when they arrive late at school. Although these practices are against the provisions laid down in the South African Schools Act (Department of Education, 1996), many educators have conceded that they are guilty of such transgressions (Giese, *et al.*, 2003).

#### 2.4.5.2 *School initiatives that promote the OVC's quest for education*

On the positive side there are a number of educators who have sacrificed their personal assets such as salaries, dwellings and have used their vehicles, homes and

other resources to assist orphans and vulnerable children in distress (Louw *et al.*, 2009). There are reported instances of educators who have mobilised internal as well as external resources to facilitate a conducive learning environment for OVC (Clarke, 2008). The efforts of these educators become well known to the community as learners convey the 'heroic' deeds of their educators to their parents and colleagues. The school then acquires a positive image which serves as a major draw card for attracting learners to that school.

Despite the many barriers to assisting and supporting children through schools, teachers and principals have played a positive and supportive role in the lives of children. Evidence of resilience existing at schools that provide structure, belonging and routine care, is very common in research on resilience. Schools are often seen as a safe haven, a place where their friends are, a place where they have hope of an education and a bright future, and where teachers are available to support them. The school has emerged as an important place for being able to provide capacity for resilience, especially when the home is vulnerable (Killian, 2004).

In a study by Giese *et al.* (2003) it was found that the motivation for teachers to assist children came from good leadership. In most schools in the research, where the principals were sympathetic towards children, the staff was also encouraged to be sympathetic. The study also showed that teachers tried to help financially, not only emotionally. There are examples of teachers who in their personal capacity loaned or gave children money, paid their school fees, purchased uniforms, bought food, and drove children to the clinic in their own vehicles. One teacher in Gugulethu used her classroom as a 'safe haven' to accommodate orphans to keep them off the streets. These safety nets could very well be incorporated into the meso-system.

Some schools also played a pivotal support role simply by increasing children's awareness of services available to them locally. The researcher is of the view that whilst there are numerous school-based initiatives to assist OVC (including this research), the Department of Education has done very little to provide support services for OVC. Coombe (2002:20) notes that while 'many teachers, especially women, are responding generously as individuals, the education service generally does not promote social support'.

It is encouraging to note that in providing assistance for OVC, some schools have embarked on interventions that extend beyond the parameters of the school. Examples of such schools, as cited by Giese *et al.* (2003), include a school in Ingwavuma and another school in Cato Crest. These schools, with vastly different access to resources and referral options, provide striking examples of the potential within the education system to expand upon the existing programme response to vulnerable children.

The school in Cato Crest, namely the Cato Crest Primary, is among many known schools where all the teachers are involved in enlisting aid from the community to improve the lives of children. A lesson learned from this school is that in the absence of a state-feeding scheme, the aid of the Salvation Army was enlisted to provide sandwiches for all the children daily. The St Johns Ambulance Services was approached to provide a nurse who visits the school once a week to treat children who may need such services. Similarly, the school has set in place a collaborative relationship with the University of KwaZulu-Natal and an Assessment Centre linked to the university, which brings student social workers to the school once a week. In addition, an organisation called 'Youth for Christ' runs a life-skills programme that is incorporated into the school day for children in Grades 6 and 7 (Giese *et al.*, 2003).

The researcher strongly supports collaboration between education and other sectors, and is passionate about encouraging other schools and educators to replicate what Cato Crest Primary is doing. Examples of a formal arrangement between the Cato Crest Primary and the community include networking with the local clinic whereby children referred by the school are seen immediately and not required to wait in the queue. The school also enlists the aid of nurses who in turn offer a limited range of services, from monitoring the state of school toilets to assessing learners' health, hearing and vision.

It is also encouraging to note that family and community connections with the school have played a major role in enhancing the academic performance of learners as well as the general attitude of learners. In this regard, Jordan, Orozco and Averett (2001)

have identified key areas where family and community connections with schools have shown evidence of an effect on student academic achievement, These include specific positive impacts on reading, mathematics, language arts, literacy, art, science, and social studies. Research has demonstrated that family and community connections have positively impacted on the attendance of learners and have reduced retention and dropout rates among students (Lopez, 2001) .

It is encouraging to note that family and community connections with the school have impacted on areas such as student behaviour, motivation, social competence, intrinsic motivation, positive student-teacher and peer relationships, language, self-help, meaningful youth and adult connection/relationships, and strong peer and adult role models (Jordan, Orozco & Averett, 2001)

Orphans and vulnerable children experience many barriers to learning and studies have shown that effective family and community connections with the school have effectively provided solutions to specific barriers to learning, such as health and mental health problems being alleviated as a result of family and community connections with schools (Lopez, 2001).

From the ensuing discussion it is clear that there are distinct advantages associated with family and community connections with the school, and in this regard the researcher had outlined a review of studies that have shown how specific outcomes were reached through such connections. The researcher firmly believes that family and community connections in the Dududu area will strengthen the teacher's role in the classroom.

## **2.5. Conclusion**

From the above discussion it is clear that the relationship between HIV and AIDS and learning is an extremely complex one to research because it exists in a context already infused with numerous structural and historical factors, which make engaging in learning difficult. The HIV/AIDS pandemic has exacerbated the effects of the learners' context of violence and poverty.

The research participants in the study by Riet *et al.* (2006) spoke of poverty, disadvantage and discrimination as the dominant experiences in their lives. They also spoke of HIV and AIDS particularly in the form of their experience of illness and multiple losses, and the harshness of their socio-economic conditions. Their discussion of HIV and AIDS is permeated by the stigma associated with the disease.

Many of the barriers to accessing and benefiting from education cannot be addressed by the Department of Education alone, and addressing these barriers requires collaborative efforts on the part of a number of government departments. The school provides an excellent environment through which the health and social needs of children could be addressed by service providers and, where appropriate, educators.

This thesis advocates that because of direct contact with orphans and vulnerable children, the educator can best address the various needs of OVC and find ways to overcome the various barriers that impede the attainment of quality education.

The role of the educator in addressing the needs of OVC, and what is expected of the educator in terms of various prescriptions, is discussed in Chapter 3.

## **CHAPTER 3. ROLE OF THE CLASS EDUCATOR IN ADDRESSING THE NEEDS OF ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN**

### **3.1. Introduction**

This chapter presents the conceptual backdrop of the research with regard to the potential role function of the class educator in addressing the needs of OVC. Before engaging in a discussion on the specific role of the class educator in addressing the needs of OVC, it is necessary to highlight how the educator's job description, together with the challenges that he/she faces, impacts on the educator's workload.

This chapter commences by reviewing existing literature on the educator's workload, followed by a discussion on the impact of OVC on the educator's role function. In reviewing literature on the impact of OVC on the role function of the class educator, the researcher was guided by the focus of his study which necessitated a continuous referral to his research questions and the purpose of the research. The terms 'class teacher' and 'educator' are used synonymously in this chapter. The term 'class teacher' is used where reference is made to the educator who is assigned with the task of managing a designated class unit.

The challenges faced by orphans and vulnerable children regarding the education system, as well as the magnitude of the HIV/AIDS crisis, has forced Ministries of Education (MOE) to consider systemic changes that will improve education for all children, especially those made vulnerable and marginalised by poverty, gender, geography and other causes (UNAIDS, 2004). In keeping with international protocols relating to the education of OVC, the Ministry of Education in South Africa (also known as the Department of Education) has made significant strides in strategising policies and procedures to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. Whilst the response of the Department of Education to the HIV/AIDS and the OVC crises are highly encouraging, it is disconcerting to note that these policies and guidelines do not offer the class educator clear directives regarding orphan care and support (Clarke, 2008).

The researcher is of the view that the Department of Education has failed in empowering educators in the field of orphan care. Whilst there is an abundant reservoir of information and studies on general guidelines for the care and protection of OVC, studies on strategic educator response mechanisms to address the needs of orphans are seriously limited (UNICEF, 2006). It is only the class teacher who (within the education sector) is in a position to make a significant difference to the achievement of learning outcomes and to provide fundamental support services for the welfare of OVC. The role of the class teacher is arguably most challenging in school settings with large OVC numbers. The challenge to education policy makers and planners is to optimise the contribution that educators make to the OVC response (Clarke, 2008).

This chapter focuses on the following; the job description of educators and educator workload, the impact of challenges faced by OVC on the role function of the class teacher, and a review of literature related to redefining the role of the class educator with regard to orphan care and support.

### **3.2. Factors that impact on the role function of the class educator in addressing the needs of OVC**

This section presents an overview of the role function of the educator and the various factors that impact on the role function of the educator.

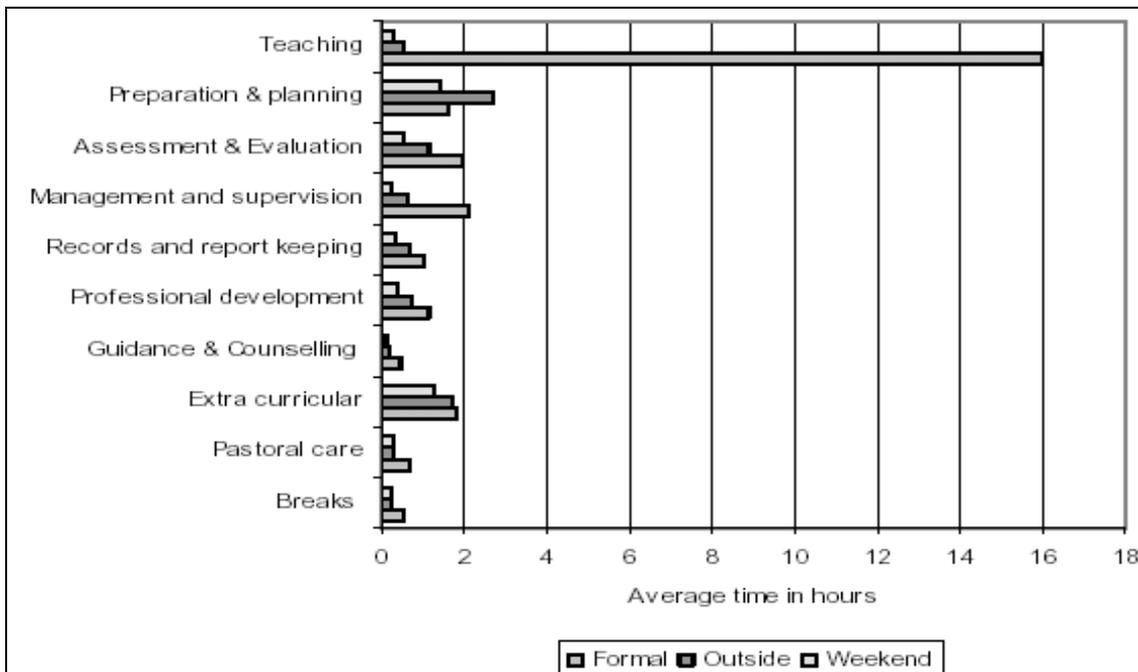
#### ***3.2.1 Job description of the educator and educator workload***

The role function or job description of the educator is provided for in the National Education Policy Act No. 27 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa, 1996b) and the Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998 (Republic of South Africa, 1998b). These Acts provide for an academic role function and a pastoral care role function. The academic role function of the educator requires the educator to be engaged in administrative duties and teaching duties.

Administrative duties include class management, record keeping and organisational functions. In terms of the National Education Policy Act No. 27 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa, 1996b), the academic role function requires the educator to be a learning mediator, interpreter and designer of learning programmes and materials, a scholar, an assessor, and a learning area specialist. The pastoral care role function requires the educator to be actively involved in providing care and support to learners under his/her charge. Joubert and Prinsloo (2001) indicate that in addition to their normal duties of teaching, it is common practice for educators to take up the duty of care and assume the role of parent at school, that is, *in loco parentis*. This implies that an educator has two inseparable roles, namely, the role of providing pastoral care and the role of providing quality education to learners.

According to Noel (1995), the educator's willingness to assist learners to pay attention to their learning tasks is just as important as the ability to teach. McBer (2000) crystallises the role of educators into three categories; namely, acquiring excellent teaching skills, engaging in professional development programmes, and creating a conducive classroom environment. However, Joubert and Prinsloo (2001) indicate that in addition to their normal duties of teaching, it is common practice for educators to take up the duty of care and assume the role of parent at school, that is, *in loco parentis*.

Figure 3 shows the average time that educators devote to the various roles that they have to perform.



**Figure 3 Average time spent (in hours) on school activities**

**Source: Chisholm, Hoadley, Kivulu, Brookes, Prinsloo, Kgobe, Mosia, Narsee & Rule, (2005:77)**

Figure 3 shows that educators on average spend very little time (1,27%) on pastoral care (Chisholm *et al.*, 2005). The findings by Chisholm *et al.* (2005) clearly indicate that there are intervening factors which erode the time which the educator should be spending on key performance areas such as teaching and pastoral duties. Administration, teaching and extra-curricular duties take up most of the educator's time. The demands on the educator's role function are discussed below. However, challenges faced by orphans and vulnerable children place enormous demands on the role function of the educator, and to a greater extent, these demands have almost redefined the role of educators.

### **3.2.2 Non-existence of guidance counsellors**

One of the factors that impose on the teacher's workload is the non-existence of a guidance counsellor at the school (Haasbroek, Beukes, Carstens & Bongers, 1978). In this regard the teacher is expected to provide guidance and counselling, despite the lack of time and the extensive administrative workload. The problem experienced at

the school where this study was conducted is commonplace throughout South Africa and this creates more challenges for the class teacher to the extent that the class teacher has to do the work of a guidance counsellor. The time spent on administrative duties and all other duties encroaches on the time that the class teacher could spend on guidance and counselling, to the extent that teachers spend about one hour per week on guidance and counselling (see Figure 3). This means that OVC receive very little or no guidance at all from the schooling system. Despite the efforts made by Life Orientation teachers to provide basic life skills, very little counselling is provided to children (Chisholm *et al.*, 2005).

With regard to guidance and counselling, educators and mental health care professionals have for several years advocated the idea that schools have an important role to play in the intellectual and emotional development of the child. Traditionally academic education has held prominence, but the importance of mental health education as an essential ingredient of the child's overall development has emerged. School guidance has therefore been acknowledged as a vital and integral part of the education system (Paisley, 2001).

During the pre-1994 era, the National Education Policy Act of 1967 ushered in guidance in the schools (Haasbroek, *et al.* cited in Berard, Pringle & Ahmed, 2001). This service remained inequitable across the various education departments in the Tricameral Parliament (e.g. House of Representatives - 'coloured' affairs; House of Assembly - 'white' affairs; House of Delegates - 'Asian' affairs; and the Department of Education and Training - 'black' affairs (Berard, Pringle & Ahmed, 2001). Paisley (2001) reports that although the importance of guidance has been recognised by education authorities, little has been done to take this beyond an academic concern and to increase the role guidance plays in the school system, and reported that that periods allocated for guidance were not utilised optimally. The reasons for which included inadequately trained guidance teachers and negative attitudes of certain school principals, guidance teachers, and pupils.

In 1992 the National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) reported dissatisfaction with the lack of integration of guidance into the school curriculum. NEPI also found that scarce resources were allocated to guidance and counselling and the Department of

Education had not prioritised to the extent that guidance counselling as a subject and the provision of guidance counsellors are almost nonexistent in most schools (NEPI, 1992). There are no guidance counsellors at schools in the Dududu district.

### **3.2.3 Educator workload**

The literature reviewed on educator workload points to an increase in the workload of educators. A study by Chisholm *et al.* (2005) revealed that about three in four educators indicated a major increase in their workload since 2000. Contributory factors for the increased workload included implementation of the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) (as indicated by 75% of 3 909 educators), the new National Curriculum Statement (NCS), and continuous assessment requirements as indicated by over 90% of educators.

The study (Chisholm *et al.*, 2005) found that educators spend less time overall on their activities than the total number of hours specified by policy; i.e. the National Education Policy Act No. 27 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa, 1996b). In terms of this policy educators are expected to spend approximately 8.6 hours in a five-day week on teaching activities, but educators actually spend about 8,2 hours on teaching-related activities. With regard to instruction time or teaching time, it was found that educators teach for less than half the time allotted for teaching (46% instead of 79%).

It is clear that administrative duties and the introduction of the NCS and IQMS have eroded quality time that educators could spend on teaching and providing guidance, counselling and pastoral services to OVC. In this regard, Figure 3 highlights that educators spend less than two hours per week on pastoral duties and guidance and counselling. It is clear that educators devote very little time attending to challenges faced by learners. Orphans and vulnerable children have their own unique challenges and these challenges require specific responses from the class teacher or other educators; however, against the background of an overwhelming workload, educators will experience great difficulty in addressing these challenges. The next section presents the impact of OVC on the role function of the class teacher.

### **3.3. Impact of OVC on the role function of the class educator**

This section focuses on non-attendance and drop-out; the impact of OVC-related policies, the increase in orphans at schools and psychosocial needs of OVC.

#### **3.3.1 Increased OVC enrolment**

Children who reported that either their mothers or both parents were dead (or status unknown) accounted for 9% (770 000) of the total number of children aged 7-15 years who were in school in 2007 (Statistics South Africa, 2008). With the high prevalence of HIV (Rehle, Shisana, Pillay, Zuma, Puren and Parker, 2007) and AIDS-related mortality (Centre for Actuarial Research, 2006) in South Africa, one can expect an increase in the number of orphans (UNICEF, 2006a), and with the introduction of No-Fees Schools and the School Nutrition Programme, there has been a steady improvement in the enrolment rate of orphans and vulnerable children (Pendlebury *et al.*, 2009). With an enrolment rate of about 97% (Pendlebury *et al.*, 2009), South Africa has one of the highest enrolment rates in sub-Saharan Africa, and associated with this increase is an increase in the workload of the class teacher. There are more learners posing more challenges for the education system. These challenges are discussed below.

##### **3.3.1.1 Material and psychosocial needs of orphans and vulnerable children**

Orphans who come from impoverished backgrounds have a low attention span due to hunger and fear stigmatization because of inadequate uniforms and learning materials (Boler & Carroll, 2003; Foster, 2003; Kelly, 2005). Chronic illnesses such as tuberculosis and pneumonia increase the absentee rate of the learner which invariably affects the learner's curricular as well as extra-curricular performance at school. Provision of basic necessities such as uniforms and food parcels for impoverished orphans will certainly extend the role function of the educator.

In a study by Louw *et al.* (2009) it was shown that educators had agreed to spending more time on procurement of the basic provisions for orphans and other children affected and infected by HIV/AIDS than on the provision of quality instruction to

learners. Giese *et al.* (2003) show that orphans and other children affected or infected by HIV/AIDS experience extreme degrees of marginalisation and stigmatisation by their fellow colleagues, causing these orphans and vulnerable children to study in a negative schooling environment. The class teacher is therefore saddled with the problem of having disconcerted learners in his/her class. Educators complain that they have to forfeit valuable instruction time to resolve conflict among learners (Riet *et al.*, 2006). The process of imparting social skills to learners in order to create a positive learning environment has also increased the workload of the educator (Clarke, 2008; Kelly, 2000).

Orphans and vulnerable children who have been traumatised by violence, rape, death and abuse experience great difficulty in concentrating in class and in some cases, learners may require professional counselling. The class educator has to therefore identify learners who are traumatised, learners who have a short attention span, and learners who require professional help. The process of identification and referrals is a time consuming duty which requires dedication and commitment on the part of the educator. Contrary to the findings of Giese *et al.* (2003) and Clarke (2008) that educators are impartial to the challenges faced by orphans and vulnerable children, a study by Louw *et al.* (2009) shows that most educators are seriously concerned about the welfare of orphans.

High demand for labour at home, household chores and responsibilities, lack of homework supervision, and lower prioritisation of orphan's education at home act as severe barriers to the education of orphans. Preparation of additional resource material for these children, e.g. arranging venues at school for the completion of homework and supervision of these children, impacts on the time and workload of the class teacher.

Death of a parent leads to low motivation for learning due to depression. Silence surrounding death in many countries may lead to emotional problems, which in turn are likely to impact on learning. In the study by Louw *et al.* (2009) 49% of educators (n = 5503) indicate that knowledge of death in the family of the learner and the predicament of orphans and vulnerable children left them feeling depressed. Educators indicate that that they have to forgo quality instruction time to attend to funerals, collect money for

the family of the orphan, and make funeral arrangements (Louw *et al.*, 2009).

Street children who are orphans and have erratic attendance patterns display all sorts of behavioural problems such as drug abuse, bullying, lack of respect for authority, vandalism, violence and thieving (Emerging Voices, 2005). Not only do these learners pose an enormous challenge for the school but they are often a threat to the welfare of learners and the educators. The school code of conduct as adopted by the SGB, as contained in the South African Schools Act (Department of Education, 1996), is against corporal punishment and expulsion but adopts a corrective approach to behavioural problems. The corrective approach in addressing behavioural problems entails counselling and referrals for professional assistance and the procedures are very time consuming. Threats by learners on the educator affect the morale of the educator.

In a study by Peltzer *et al.* (2008) educators reported providing material and emotional support to OVC. This finding is supported by a study by Louw *et al.* (2009) which showed that increased enrolment of OVC had increased the educators' workload (agreed by 44,5% of educators, n=5 503), resulting in educators not having enough time to attend to the academic needs of learners, thus affecting the quality of education. Louw *et al.* (2005) also find that 66.4 % of educators (n = 5 503) have provided financial, physical and emotional support to affected learners.

The administrative workload of the class teacher increases in direct proportion to the increase in orphan numbers at school (Louw *et al.*, 2005). Increased orphan numbers at schools also poses a strain on the already limited physical resources at the school making it more difficult for the class teacher to implement asset-based trends in the care and support of OVC. An increase in the orphan enrolment rate will mean that all OVC, in terms of White Paper 6 (Department of Education, 2001), have to be included in the education system, but it does not seem, however, that these policies are widely or effectively implemented (Zuberi, Ebersöhn, Mampane, Maritz, Lubbe, Mboweni & Pieterse, 2006). Clarke (2008) and Giese *et al.* (2003) highlight numerous incidents where educators turn away orphans from their schools in order to reduce their workloads and responsibilities.

### 3.3.1.2 *Non-attendance at schools and drop-out of OVC from the schooling system*

Various studies (Ainsworth *et al.*, 2002; Booysen, Bachman, Matebezi & Meyer, 2003) highlight the devastating effects of HIV/AIDS for the children in heavily affected regions. One of the ways in which the AIDS pandemic already does, and will almost certainly continue to, influence these children's lives, is through its impact on both the demand and supply side of education (Ainsworth *et al.*, 2002). The impact on the demand for education which was discussed in Chapter 2 showed that the educational system faces a potential decline in enrolment due to a declining birth rate as well as a rising drop-out rate among children orphaned and vulnerable due to HIV/AIDS (Pendlebury *et al.*, 2009). With approximately 130 560 orphans who were not at school in 2006 and an average educator-to-learner ratio of 1:32, approximately 4 080 educators would have been denied a job (Pendlebury, *et al.*, 2009).

Attendance rates are also influenced, as orphans and other vulnerable children are often, for shorter or longer periods, taken out of school to care for the ill in the family, or to take on household chores previously done by those that are ill or dying, or to take on income generating activities in order to replace the lost income of a sick or deceased household member. School delays also impact on the role function of the educator and the quality of education provided by the class educator (Pendlebury, *et al.*, 2009).

According to Smart (2003), educators are expected to keep and analyse data relating to absenteeism and attendance patterns of orphans. Irregular attendance increases the administrative workload of the educator. In terms of the school code of conduct, as adopted by the Governing Body of the school (Department of Education, 1996), the educator is expected to send out letters to parents/guardians requesting an explanation for protracted periods of absence from school. In terms of the South African Schools Act (Department of Education, 1996), a learner whose whereabouts is unknown and who has been absent from school for a very long period of time is excluded from the admissions register of the school.

A study by Hallman and Grant (2004), however, shows that most learners do return to school after a lengthy period of absence, which invariably requires additional

administrative duties for the class educator. Updating of data in respect of an orphaned learner becomes problematic in instances of erratic attendance patterns. Erratic attendance patterns of orphans create major problems in securing sustainable programmes such as the provision of meals, clothing and medical care (Smart, 2003; Clarke, 2008). Educators have complained that because of erratic attendance patterns of orphans, inaccurate orphan statistics are sent to the Department of Education. The Education Management and Information System (EMIS) may not accurately reflect and project data relating to orphans at schools (Clarke, 2008).

### **3.3.2 Impact of OVC related policies**

To ensure that no learner is denied access to meaningful education, various rights-based policies such as Section 29(1)(a) of the Bill of Rights in the South African Constitution, Act No. 108 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa, 1996a), Education for All (EFA Global Monitoring Report Team, 2009), Article 29 of the UN Convention of the Rights of the Child (United Nations Generally Assembly, 1989), The Amended National Norms and Standards for School Funding of 2006 which introduced a policy of no-fee schools, together with school-fee exemptions, as outlined in the South African Schools Act Regulations of 2006 (Department of Education, 2006b), have contributed positively in improving the enrolment rate of learners. However, policies such as the Post Provisioning Norms (PPN) of the Department of Education (Department of Education, 1998), the Norms and Standards for School Funding, policies relating school fees, and the National Curriculum Statement have, to a certain extent, acted against the positive outcomes of rights-based policies.

#### **3.3.2.1 *Norms and standards for school funding, the school fee policy and the no-fee paying school policy***

Two mechanisms have been introduced to alleviate the financial costs of schooling for poor children; school fee exemptions, introduced by the South African schools Act of 1996 (Department of Education, 1996) and the no-fee school policy outlined in the Amended National Norms and Standards for School Funding (Department of Education, 2006b). These policies are designed to promote more equitable access to better quality education.

The school-fee exemption is meant to be redistributive in that it enables children from poor areas to access fee-charging schools in better resourced areas (Pendlebury *et al.*, 2009). In effect, parents who pay school fees directly subsidise poorer learners. In terms of criteria set by the Department of Education, and upon approval by the School Governing body, parents and caregivers are either fully exempt or partially exempt from paying school fees.

In 2007, a new funding policy was implemented nationally, in which the poorest 40% of schools were granted no-fee status. No-fee schools may not charge fees; instead, funding allocations are skewed to ensure that the poorest schools receive the largest per-learner allocations (Pendlebury *et al.*, 2009). The no-fees school policy is designed to promote more equitable access to quality education for poor and disadvantaged learners.

South African schools are divided into five categories or 'quintiles', according to their poverty ranking. The poorest schools are included in quintile 1 and the least poor in quintile 5. About 34% of schools nationally were allocated quintile 1 status in 2008 (Pendlebury *et al.*, 2009). Learner allocation in a quintile 1 schools increased from R758 per learner to R855 in 2010 (Department of Education, 2007). This means that learners in poor schools not only stand to benefit by not paying school fees, they also enjoy the benefits associated with larger school funding.

According to Pendlebury *et al.* (2009), the main criticisms of the above policies are that unfunded schools are not reimbursed, so each exemption is a loss of revenue for the school with implications for the quality of education. A lack of compensation has made schools reluctant to implement the exemption policy and even to accept learners who are unable to pay school fees (Pendlebury *et al.*, 2009). Veriava (2005) and Fiske and Ladd (2004) report that almost no exemptions were granted to learners in the first few years of the implementation of the policy. A study by Giese *et al.* (2003) shows that because educators are not prepared to do additional administrative work, they purposefully neglect to inform learners of the school fee exemptions. Their study also shows that educators punish and suspend those learners who have not paid their fees. Educators who deny disadvantaged learners a basic education are regarded as 'villains in the classroom' by Clarke (2008).

Although the introduction of no-fee schools is one of the major contributory factors for South Africa's high enrolment rate, a wide variety of factors such as transfer delays, inflexible budgets, lack of capacity, and poor management of funds have severely hampered service delivery at schools (Pendlebury *et al.*, 2009). Studies by Wildeman (2008) and Giese *et al.*, (2009) show that in some quintile 1 schools, funds were used to secure the services of additional staff members instead of building physical capacity such as libraries, soup kitchens, homework dens and the provision of piped water. In these circumstances, educators experience tremendous difficulties in applying the asset-based approach to address the needs of orphans, thereby compromising the pastoral-care role function of the class educator.

One of the positive spin-offs arising from the introduction of no-fee schools is the reduced administrative workload of the class educator, thereby creating more time for the educator to engage in orphan welfare activities. The introduction of the no-fee schools will obviate the tendency of punishing and suspending learners who are in default with their fees. Over and above the broad policies and systemic factors which have impacted on the role function of the class teacher, challenges faced by OVC have to a large extent redefined the potential role function of the class teacher.

### 3.3.2.2 *Redefining the role of the class educator in addressing the needs of OVC*

The focus of this section is the extent to which OVC have redefined the potential role function of the class teacher. Challenges facing orphans and vulnerable children have redefined the role and essence of education (Avert, 2001) and compound the duty-bearer role of the class teacher (Govender, 2004). In a range of contexts as shown above, empirical evidence has shown that educators struggle with content matter, pedagogy and capacity to address the complex needs of orphans and vulnerable children.

This study has its origins in the perception that the education response to the needs of OVC was generally failing to equip educators with the necessary skills and resources to be effective in the classroom. Interventions have been well meaning, but typically lacking an understanding of the complexities of education systems and of managing change processes within them (Clarke, 2008:21). It is the class teacher and not the

education authorities who are in direct contact with orphans and vulnerable children, hence policies, guidelines and support services should be directed at the class teacher and not to bodies which lack educator-pupil relationships. The need for an effective, rather a token, education response to the orphan problem is now becoming better understood by class teachers.

Owing to the lack of well defined policies and guidelines, this section aims to identify and provide direction with regard to response strategies that the class teacher could use to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. The changing role of the class teacher has to be seen against impediments to the quality of education such as large class sizes, poor working conditions, lack of supervision and support, and inadequate salaries. Preparing the teacher to teach effectively in a world with orphans and vulnerable children requires investment in a number of different areas. This requires a set of actions focusing on professional development and support, involving policy development, strategic planning, and capacity building at all levels of the education system to the particular HIV/AIDS and orphan response (Clarke, 2008:192).

The following elements of such a response are based on a synthesis of different models recommended by UNESCO (UNESCO, 2004; Bakilana, Bundy, Brown & Fredriksen, 2005) and the UNAIDS Inter Agency Task Team on Education (UNAIDS-IATT on Education, 2004) as well as the Human Rights Watch (2005) ; i.e. workplace policy, institutional capacity and management systems, curriculum content and process, co-curricular support; and educator-training and support.

Whilst broad capacity building strategies have the advantage of universal coverage, ad hoc policies and strategies built on the premise of demographics and geographical settings are more directive and practical (Goba, 2009; World Bank, 2005). The focus of broad capacity building strategies should focus on educator empowerment, which entails exposure to the orphan crisis and approaches that could be used in the classroom (World Bank, 2005). Ad hoc strategies are localised and school-based, and should provide direction with regard to orphan management at that particular school.

### **3.4. Broad policies aimed at redefining the role of class educator in respect of OVC care and support**

It is essential to make schools more responsive to the needs of orphans and vulnerable children and enable them to continue their education despite the challenges they face at home or in the community (USAID, 2003). Human Rights Watch (2005) recommends the development of best practices for schools. They report in a study of children affected by HIV in Kenya, South Africa and Uganda that schools are often ill-equipped to deal with the orphan problem and the increasing number of children affected or infected by HIV/AIDS (USAID, 2003). The World Bank (2005) and Clarke (2008) have identified educator training and reorientation of the curriculum to incorporate life-skills education, school-based peer support groups, and school-community partnership programmes as broad scale strategies in the education of HIV/AIDS and orphans care.

### **3.5. Educator training within the context of OVC care and support**

This section focuses on the need for continuous educator training with regard to OVC care and support. Educational institutions are well placed to respond to the HIV and AIDS pandemic and the orphan crisis, and educator training colleges should be the first to embark on training potential educators to effectively address the needs of OVC.

Whilst educator training colleges have a wide reach, influence and capacity to mobilise their trainees and communities to respond to HIV and AIDS, their responses have lagged behind the challenges (Desalegn, Tadele and Cherinet, 2008). Desalegn *et al.* (2008), Goba (2009) and the World Bank (2005) have reported that although there has been a shift in the curriculum towards life-skills and life orientation, these subjects are of pedagogic interest and not implemented with the intention of training educators to address challenges associated with HIV/AIDS and orphans. According to Clarke (2008), little is known about specific interventions aimed at preparing educators for service in a community affected by HIV/AIDS.

In Zambia, an initiative was piloted to supplement educators with trained volunteers from the community as Paraprofessional educators to assist in delivering certain key parts of the curriculum such as basic literacy, numeracy and life-skills (Clarke, 2008). However, Desalegn *et al.* (2008) indicate that in instances where educators are overstretched with their current responsibilities, they will likely not have time to supervise or mentor the paraprofessionals. In North Western Tanzania, a pilot project (The HUMULIZA Pilot Project) provided counselling and seminars to inform primary school educators on the importance of communicating with children (Subbarao & Coury, 2004). The sessions aimed at sensitising and empowering educators on identification of problems and needs of children, the importance of attachment, and methods used to improve the child's self-esteem.

According to Subbarao and Coury (2004), the HUMULIZA Pilot Project reported positive results. One of the most significant outcomes of the HUMULIZA Pilot Project is that educators have taken the initiative of visiting orphans at home after schooling and followed up on learner progress. Educators have created an orphan fund from their own salaries, mainly to cover the school supplies of orphans.

The Life-skills Foundation, based in Thailand (Devine, 2001) used an approach that aimed at enhancing the capabilities of educators to interact with children, including orphans and other children affected or infected by HIV/AIDS. The Life-skills Foundation (2003) identified a number of strategies to develop the capacity of the educators which include inter alia the following; a participatory child-rights sensitisation process, training on active learning and learning styles, training for educational supervisors and all educators on how to raise the self-esteem of pupils to deal with the death of their parents or relatives, and the creation of a network of core trainers, model educators and supervisors to promote and model supportive behaviour.

The Life-skills Foundation (2003) reported that educators improved their skills and schools provided a positive learning environment and activities to assist in improving the behaviour of students.

From the above discussion it is clear that that educator training programmes can do much to leverage the quality of education and care of orphans and vulnerable children.

The extent of educator training in the field of OVC care and support could extend from pre-service training (PRESET) to in-service training (INSET).

Pre-Service training is likely to be of critical importance in preparing educators to become effective in HIV and orphan care education. Yet it is unlikely to be sufficient to ensure that educators are effective and for effectiveness to be sustained. A study by Van Deventer (2009) showed that educators had benefited more from in-service training in Life Orientation than from pre-service training. Arguably pre-service training, supplemented by continuous in-service training of educators on OVC care and support, would provide the best results in respect of building capacity among educators.

A survey conducted by Education International (2007) provides an illuminating status report on pre-service educator training and in-service educator training. In Burkina Faso, all primary education pre-service trainees underwent HIV training over a period of six months; however no educator had received any form of in-service training. In Guinea, all educator trainees in educator training colleges received 12 hours of training on HIV-related knowledge and skills. Although 12 hours of in-service training on HIV and orphan management were being introduced to both primary and secondary school, only a small proportion of educators were being reached and a correspondingly low impact was made. In Guyana and Malawi, trainee educators had not received any pre-service training, but had some sort of in-service training on HIV/AIDS, orphan care and destitute children, and educators in Guyana had received training manuals.

According to the National Policy on HIV and AIDS for Learners and Educators in Public Schools and Students and Educators in Further Education and Training Institutions (Republic of South Africa, 1999), South African educator training colleges do not provide comprehensive pre-service HIV/AIDS training for trainee educators. Having recognised the need for in-service and pre-service HIV/AIDS training, the Department of Education has embarked on a collaborative approach to programme design on HIV/AIDS education for educators.

USAID/South Africa works with NGO providers and through partnerships with the provincial and national Departments of Education. USAID/South Africa aims at supporting South African efforts to achieve 'increased access to quality education and

training' (Africa Education Initiative, 2005). The collaborative approach to programme design seeks to be practical and learner-focused.

USAID/South Africa's objective is to improve the quality of primary education in South Africa's four neediest out of nine provinces; Eastern Cape, KwaZulu Natal, Limpopo, and Northern Cape. This entails a more equitable distribution of resources (physical, financial and human) and improved teaching practices. The programme assists with educator training programmes and the provision of learning materials to enrich instruction materials in HIV/AIDS (Africa Education Initiative, 2005).

However, despite such collaborative initiatives, rural schools remain disadvantaged (Emerging Voices, 2005). Juvane (2006) indicates that rural schools lack comprehensive in-service training for educators and education supervisors and suggests that the focus should shift to serving rural schools which are in dire need of trained educators in literacy, numeracy and HIV/AIDS education. From the above it is clear that the Department of Education needs to provide educators with continuous in-service training with regard to HIV/AIDS and OVC care and management, and accordingly reorganise the curriculum to acclimatise the class teacher to appropriate response and intervention strategies for OVC care and support.

### **3.6. Curriculum reorientation**

The focus of the study now turns to various approaches, guidelines and content of a curriculum which specifically focuses on OVC care and support. This section commences with the rights-based approach.

#### ***3.6.1 Rights-based approach***

The curriculum for OVC care and support should revolve around the rights-based approach and embrace every tenet that promotes the implementation of the rights-based approach. In this regard, the various rights-based policies, rights-based

perspectives and related curriculum topics are discussed in the subsequent sections.

With regard to rights-based policies, Articles 28 and 29 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Children (CRC) (United Nations General Assembly, 1998), the Constitution of South Africa (Republic of South Africa, 1996a) and The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, namely, Article 26 (Morsink, 1999), respectively provide for the recognition of the right of a child to basic education. More specifically, Articles 28 and 29 of The United Nations Convention for Children's Right (CRC) (United Nations General Assembly, 1998) provide for the recognition of the right of all learners to free compulsory basic education, making secondary and tertiary education accessible to all learners, providing learners with educational and vocational information, taking measures to encourage regular attendance at schools, reduction of drop-out rates, and ensuring that the child develops to her/his full potential.

In particular, Article 29 of the CRC advocates that the educational policies of each State be directed at the holistic development of the child whilst being cognisant of human rights issues and respect for culture and society. The class teacher has to be aware of targets set by The United Nations Development Programme's Millennium Developmental Goals (UNDP, 2005) and UNESCO's Education for All (UNESCO, 2000). These organisations have earmarked 2015 to be the year when all learners across the globe, including OVC, marginalised minority groups and girls in some countries who are generally denied access to education, will enjoy free compulsory education.

2015 is also earmarked to be the year when all learners across the globe would have achieved all the learning outcomes in literacy, numeracy and essential life-skills. More specifically, the class teacher has to be familiar with broad policies relating to OVC. These policies are The United Nations General Assembly Special Session (UNGASS) Declaration of Commitment (United Nations, 2001) which reflects both international and political commitment to address the plight of OVC. Article 65 of UNGASS commits itself to ensuring that OVC are not denied basic education, food, clothing, shelter and psychosocial services.

Article 65 of the Declaration also provides for the implementation of national policies

and strategies to build and strengthen governmental, family and community capacities to provide a supportive environment for orphans and girls and boys infected and affected by HIV and AIDS. The supportive environment embraces all forms of partnerships aimed at addressing issues such as subsistence, stigmatisation, behavioural problems and gender disparities.

This section focuses on policies adopted in South Africa. These policies include the National Policy on HIV and AIDS for Learners and Educators in Public Schools and Students and Educators in Further Education and Training Institutions (Department of Education, 1999)., The policy on OVC is the Policy Framework and the National Action Plan for Orphans and other Children made Vulnerable by HIV and AIDS in South Africa (referred to hereafter as the Policy Framework) (Department of Social Development, 2005). The schooling policy relates to The South African Schools Act, No. 84 of 1996 (referred to hereafter as the South African Schools Act) (Department of Education, 1996) and the Education White Paper 6 (Department of Education, 2001).

The South African Schools Act, which emphasises inclusion of all learners in ordinary schools, including learners identified as having 'special educational needs', led to the formation of the National Commission of Special Needs in Education and Training (NCSNET) and the National Committee for Education Support Services (NCESS). These commissions were appointed to investigate and make recommendations on all aspects of 'special needs and support services' in education and training in South Africa' (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 1997). The NCSNET/NCESS Report, cited in Donald *et al.*, (1997), proposes a vision of the new education system, and the principles and the strategies to achieve this vision.

It is a vision of education for all, developing centres of learning that are inclusive and supportive, so that all learners can participate actively in the education process, while developing and extending their potential to participate as equal members of society. It is based on the principles of human rights and social justice, inclusion in the local community, access to a single inclusive education system, access to the curriculum including appropriate support, equity and redress for learners excluded in the past, being responsive to the needs of community and drawing support from the community, and cost effectiveness, while ensuring the system is appropriate and sustainable.

The strategies recommend focusing on changing the system, not the individual learner – developing a system that is open to being transformed as it accommodates diverse individual learners. At the heart of this is identifying and addressing the factors that lead to ‘barriers to learning’, and whether these are related to the learner, the family, the classroom, the teacher, the community or social factors (Department of Education, 2001).

In keeping with international protocols, in 2001 the Education White Paper 6 was produced by the Department of Education to outline the vision of the new inclusive education system. The Education White Paper 6 (Department of Education, 2001) defines inclusive education and training as: acknowledging that all children and youth can learn and that all children and youth need support; accepting and respecting the fact that all learners are different in some way and have different learning needs which are equally valued and an ordinary part of our human experience; enabling education structures, systems and learning methodologies to meet the needs of all learners; acknowledging and respecting differences in learners, whether due to age, gender, ethnicity, language, class, disability or HIV status; broader than formal schooling and acknowledging that learning also occurs in the home and community, and within formal and informal modes and structures; changing attitudes, behaviour, teaching methodologies, curricula and the environment to meet the needs of all learners; maximising the participation of all learners in the culture and the curricula of educational institutions and uncovering and minimising barriers to learning; empowering learners by developing their individual strengths and enabling them to participate critically in the process of learning.

There are various implications of the above policies in relation to other policies. These include the Revised National Curriculum Statement (HIV and AIDS issues cut across all learning areas and therefore in the development of learning programmes these issues must be captured); the Assessment Policy (it is important that learners who are likely to experience barriers to learning and development are identified early, assessed and provided with learning support, multiple opportunities, and adaptive methods of assessment); the Norms and Standards for funding (for the provisioning of all the appropriate equipment to implement universal precautions to eliminate risk of transmission such as first aid kits and rubber gloves) and a work place skills plan.

The National Policy on HIV/AIDS for learners and educators (Department of Education, 1999) seeks to promote effective prevention and care within the public education system in South Africa. The policy stipulates that a continuing life-skills and HIV/AIDS education programme must be implemented at all schools – for learners and educators. Within such programmes learners must receive education about HIV/AIDS and abstinence, and acquire age- and context-appropriate knowledge and skills (Department of Education, 1999).

### **3.6.2 *Human-rights perspective***

‘A Human Rights Based Approach to Education for All’ (UNICEF, 2007) provides the rationale for common action by different government departments and civil society for the implementation of various strategies in order to promote the rights of OVC.

Significant to this study are the following supportive strategies: strengthening and supporting the capacity of families to protect and care for orphans and other children made vulnerable by HIV and AIDS and mobilising and strengthening community-based responses to the care, support and protection of orphans and other children made vulnerable by HIV and AIDS. Compliance legislation relates to ensuring that all legislation, policy, strategies and programmes are in place to protect the most vulnerable children; to ensure access for orphans and other children made vulnerable by HIV and AIDS to essential services. Awareness policies relate to raising awareness and advocacy to create supportive environments for orphans and other children made vulnerable by HIV and AIDS.

With regard to the provision of resources, the class teacher should familiarise himself/herself with the following policies: school fee policy and the fee exemption policy, school-based nutrition programmes, and the free textbook and stationery policy.

While the wider educational infrastructure is vital, it is educators who have the most impact on the day-to-day experience and livelihoods of children in school. A quality education, in which children want to take part, is dependent on the commitment, enthusiasm, creativity and skill of educators. It is their task to translate national policies into practical action in each school and to ensure that they embrace a culture that is

inclusive and respectful of every child (UNICEF, 2007).

The action taken by the educator could border around the needs-based or the human-rights approach.

A needs-based approach merely sets out what different groups of children or individuals 'lack', and it can act as a 'deficit' model which labels children or casts them as victims, which is a "non-rights approach". A rights-based approach, on the other hand, sets out the rights which all children have, simply by virtue of being a child. It places a permanent duty on those who are in a position of power to give those rights, not just when a need is identified, or when they have the resources (Davies, 2008).

In a publication by UNICEF entitled 'A Human Rights Based Approach to Education for All' (UNICEF, 2007) it is argued that the needs-based development approach to education has failed to achieve the objectives of inclusivity as enshrined in the goals set in UNESCO'S Education for All (UNESCO, 2000). Because it is inclusive and provides a common language for partnership, a rights-based approach – although certainly not without tensions and challenges – has the potential to contribute to the attainment of the goals of governments, parents and children (UNICEF, 2007).

Clarke (2008) indicates that a human-rights perspective is essential when addressing issues surrounding the care of OVC. In human-rights parlance, educators are 'duty bearers' who have obligations to fulfil the rights of children who are in their care, in loco parentis. These include the right to education, information and the highest attainable standards of mental as well as physical health (Clarke, 2008). OVC have a right to good health; basic education; protection from sexual exploitation and abuse and protection from all forms of physical and mental violence. Smart, Heard and Kelly (IIEP, 2007) indicate that as rights-based institutions, schools, and more especially, educators, have a major role to play in protecting learners and educators against discrimination.

### **3.6.3 Core curriculum topics**

Human Rights Watch (2005) recommends reorientation of the curriculum in pre-service

and in-service training programmes (educator directed) to incorporate the following; training educators or guidance counsellors to address bereavement issues, supporting school-based peer support groups, liaising with community-based organisations to identify the most vulnerable children, and sensitising educators to the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.

In Malawi and Zambia, an initiative was developed to increase the relevance of the school curriculum to orphans and other vulnerable children (Clarke, 2008:135); however this programme did not include life-skills training. Training was also given by NGOs to sensitise educators to the psychosocial needs of orphans and vulnerable children. The UNAIDS IATT on Education (2004) recommended the following be ingrained into the curriculum for orphan care and management; identification of vulnerable children, support structures for OVC, networking between the school and the community, and child safety and protection against all forms of abuse.

UNESCO (2006) has expanded on the topics for the purposes of curriculum reorientation to include the following; counselling programmes for educators and networking strategies using collaborative links between schools and various bodies such as service providers, government , NGOs, the Health Department, providers of feeding schemes ad providers of psychosocial services. McBer (2000) indicates that the curriculum should reinforce precepts relating to teaching skills, professional characteristics and classroom climate.

The National Curriculum Statement (Department of Education, 2004) provides for Life-skills education for Grades 1 to 3 and Life Orientation for Grades 4 to 12. A study on the effectiveness of the Life Orientation Programme HIV/AIDS in Gauteng Schools by Bhana, Brookes, Makiwane and Naidoo (2005) and a study by Van Deventer (2009) on the implementation of the Life Orientation subject in the Western Cape, showed that all primary schools but not all secondary schools had taught life orientation. Both studies showed that primary school educators attached more value to the teaching of Life Orientation than secondary school educators. Learners had indicated that they had benefited from Life Orientation but expressed disappointment that some educators were not qualified or reluctant to teach sections on sexuality and physical education.

A study by Theron and Dalzell (2006) identified the following themes which were not adequately addressed in the current curriculum; coping with HIV/AIDS, coping with grief, coping with retirement, financial planning, and study methods. Van Deventer (2009) recommends that a more aggressive approach for pre-service education and training (PRESET) of LO educators should be launched immediately by Higher Education Institutes (HEI) to ensure that the backlog of educators, due to transformation in education, educator-learner ratios and the elimination of non-examinable subjects, is erased. Clarke (2008) suggests that Higher Education Institutes present an education component on orphan care either as being ingrained into the Life Orientation curriculum or as a separate field of study.

It is clear from the above that there is a dire need to amend or supplement the current Life Orientation curriculum to include the following themes which are pertinent to orphan care and management; life-skills relevant to OVC, organisation of collaborative partnerships, psychosocial support, and peer counselling support. The fundamentals of curriculum content should therefore embrace theoretical approaches and provide practical guidelines for educators as such approaches will redefine the role of the educator with regard to OVC care and support.

The following approaches to serve the needs of orphans are based on a synthesis of the following models; the rights-based approach, the asset-based approach, the choice theory, the attachment theory, the life-skills approach, and the peer counselling approach.

#### **3.6.4 Asset-based approach**

In the relevant literature reviewed, the researcher found that educators generally tend to respond to the needs of learners only when such a need arises (Louw *et al.*, 2009). In this regard Ebersöhn and Eloff (2006) indicate that the dominant approach to development, both in Southern Africa and other parts of the world, has been needs driven. This approach starts by focusing on the needs, deficiencies and problems of communities, and accordingly strategies are devised to address these needs and problems (Ebersöhn & Eloff, 2006). The following section introduces the Choice Theory which has specific significance to OVC care and support.

### **3.6.5 Choice theory**

In choice theory, all behaviour is internally motivated and an individual's behaviour can be seen as the product of the manner in which the individual attempts to satisfy one or more of the five basic universal needs, namely, love and belonging, freedom, power, fun and survival (Lloyd, 2007; Glasser, 1992). The fundamental premise of the choice theory is that individuals choose their own behaviour patterns and the individual has control over his or her behaviour (Glasser, 1992). In this regard Ogina (2007) refers to a study by Sengendo and Nambi (1997) which showed that most of the orphans were angry about their parent's death because of the deprivation that they had suffered in terms of basic needs such as food, shelter, security and clothing.

In view of the above problem, reality therapy advocates that having a loving, caring and involved relationship with someone is the basic component in fulfilling needs (Glasser, 1992). In this regard the class teacher could play a critical role in establishing himself/herself as a supportive figure and a role model - as a provider of resources and structures which are required by OVC thereby using the asset-based approach. The choice theory and reality therapy should therefore form the fundamentals upon which the asset-based approach should be structured.

Howatt (cited in Ogina, 2007) indicates that the basic difference between choice theory and reality therapy is that choice theory explains how reality therapy works, what needs to be altered and the manner in which the change has to be made. The assertion by Howatt (2001) paves the way for effective responses to various behavioural problems of orphans and vulnerable children (Ogina, 2007). In this regard, the action taken by the teacher should not be coercive but should focus on discovering those needs which are unfulfilled by learners and strategising methods to fulfil these needs (Glasser, 1992).

The fulfilment of needs should also be seen within the context of Maslow's motivation theory. According to Maslow's theory needs are categorised in terms of a hierarchy meaning progressive fulfilment of needs. Basic physiological needs should be fulfilled before the fulfilment of the need for security. While Maslow's theory advocates that the physiological need is the most prominent need, Holmes (2001) argues that the

fulfilment of the psychosocial need should be given priority. Holmes (2003) contends that some needs may suppress others, for example, the need for power may suppress the need for belonging and that the progressive fulfilment of needs as shown in Maslow's theory may not always hold true. However some needs may be partially met before other needs are being fulfilled (Maslow, 1971).

Of relevance to the class teacher is the need to identify the psychosocial needs of learners and provide appropriate responses to the fulfilment of these needs – as such a response will address issues such as anti-social behavioural patterns of orphans and vulnerable children. The researcher shares the view of Kretzmann and McKnight (1993) and Ebersöhn and Eloff (2006) that the class teacher should not only act in response to the needs of learners but have the necessary resources available so that proactive measures can be taken to prevent such needs from arising. In this regard it is imperative that the class teacher empowers himself/herself with the fundamentals of the asset-based approach.

### ***3.6.6 Fundamentals of the Asset-based approach***

By definition the asset-based approach is relationship driven (Ebersöhn and Eloff, 2006). Relationships need to be built and rebuilt between individuals, local associations and institutions through the process of facilitation, based on the strengths and talents of the individuals involved (Eloff cited in Ebersöhn and Eloff, 2006). Ebersöhn and Mbetse (as cited in Ebersöhn & Eloff, 2006) maintain that the asset-based approach offers several returns in terms of ownership, shared responsibility, immediacy, relevancy and practicality of solutions, flexibility, mutual support, and a caring environment, as well as individual capacity building. The employment of the asset-based approach borders around the various asset-based trends and in this regard Ebersöhn and Eloff (2006) illustrate the various asset-based trends in Table 1.

Table 1 Asset-based trends in sustainable programmes that support vulnerable children

Asset-based trends	Descriptors	Asset-based trends	Descriptors
Community-based participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Decentralised power - leadership in communities and schools</li> <li>Eco-systemic perspective</li> <li>Multiple realities</li> <li>Relationships instead of reason and rationality</li> <li>Collaboration instead of fragmented services</li> </ul>	Advocacy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Creating public awareness</li> <li>Rights approach and the Constitution of South Africa</li> <li>Openness, disclosure and acceptance</li> <li>Inclusivity instead of exclusivity</li> <li>Holistic understanding instead of labelling and stigmatisation</li> </ul>
Building and strengthening internal capacities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Collect data about assets, capacities and resources instead of problems and disabilities</li> <li>Focus on assets and capacities</li> <li>Professionals are supportive in stead of paternalistic</li> <li>Provides funding for pro-activity instead of despondency</li> <li>Salutogenic philosophy</li> </ul>	Use local embedded (indigenous) beliefs, structures, knowledge and practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Beliefs, systems and practices of communities and individuals are affirmed</li> <li>Communities and individuals are viewed as experts , not clients</li> <li>Individuals are seen as having essential viewpoints instead of being ignorant</li> </ul>
Community resource mobilisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Community members and parents are change agents</li> <li>Active role of NGOs</li> <li>Cycle of empowerment instead of dependence</li> </ul>	Information sharing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Net working facilitating processes</li> <li>Move away from 'expert' knowledge towards shared knowledge</li> <li>Connecting instead of informing</li> </ul>
Networking and establishing links	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Cross-sectoral collaboration</li> <li>Connects individuals to resources as service delivery</li> <li>Functional approach instead of discipline specific approach</li> </ul>		

Source: Ebersöhn and Eloff (2006)

Table 1 indicates that sustainable programmes to support vulnerable children share asset-based attributes. The viability of applying the asset-based approach in the educational fields is discussed next.

#### *3.6.6.1 How can the asset-based approach be utilised in schools?*

The relevant literature reviewed regarding the asset-based approach show clearly that the asset-based approach can be used in various contexts. With regard to OVC, global discourses propagate the fundamental role the education sector can play in the care and support of orphans and vulnerable children (Dawes, 2003; Giese, et al. 2003 & Hunter, 2001). These authors specifically call for the utilisation of schools as nodes of care and support for vulnerable children.

In this regard Eloff (2003) have indicated that schools could function as half-day providers of formal education. Schools could enlist the services of social development agencies, health care providers, CBOs, NGOs and FBOs (Hunter, 2001). Communities also benefit from the asset-based approach. An example would be the cultivation of food stocks for use in the schools - making use of community knowledge - as well as labour and seed contributions (Zigler & Muenchow, 1992). Another example could be the identification of care-givers who can participate in extra curricular NGO activities focused on life-skills development, homework support, games - something similar to the highly successful Head Start project (Zigler & Muenchow, 1992).

According to Ebersöhn and Eloff (2006), the infrastructure of the schools could also be utilised after hours. Classrooms can serve as bedrooms for children on the streets, and adult learners can attend literacy classes in the afternoons or evenings. Schools as such can form clusters to share resources and mutually benefit from collaborative efforts (Giese, et al., 2003; Ebersöhn & Eloff, 2006). In this regard it would be prudent to team a good-practice school with other schools currently struggling to support vulnerable children. These are just some suggestions of how schools could utilise the asset-based approach to support vulnerable children in partnership with communities (Richter, 2003).

In line with the above suggestion, the researcher is of the view that school-based dissemination of good practice targeted at families could serve as an access point to communities. During school-based meetings families and interested community members can be informed of the asset-based approach as a means to support vulnerable children.

Eloff (2003) indicate the following: Families also benefit from the asset-based approach. Families can be made aware of the need for early identification of vulnerability of children. Identified community leaders (principals, traditional leaders, faith-based leaders) would be pivotal in facilitating knowledge of the asset-based approach. The school could introduce families to examples of sustainable programmes, especially the prevalence of asset-based trends in these. In essence, school-family-community networks would provide the class teacher with a broad spectrum of resources that are available to address the needs of OVC and at the same time reduce the work load of the class teacher. The class teacher should therefore take the initiative to implement the asset-based approach. In this regard the subsequent section focuses on an asset-based plan for the class teacher.

#### 3.6.6.2 *An asset-based plan for the class teacher*

The successful implementation of the asset-based approach by the class teacher is centred around the acquisition of knowledge of available resources, and based on this knowledge, identifying and applying the main concepts of the asset-based approach.

The three main components of the asset-based approach, according to Saidi, Rosenzweig and Karuri (2003), are asset mapping, asset mobilisation and asset management. These are discussed under 3.6.6.4 and 3.6.6.5 respectively.

In simple terms, asset mapping involves the identification of potential assets. Care and protection of orphans and vulnerable children is only possible once the class teacher becomes involved and committed to actively look for ways and resources that can be used to cope with the challenge on hand (Ebersöhn and Eloff, 2006). This implies insight by the class teacher into the capacities, assets and abilities of all stakeholders involved in the care and protection of OVC. Stakeholders, according to the researcher,

refer to the school (internal asset) and concerned individuals NGOs, CBOs and FBOs (external assets).

### 3.6.6.3 *Schools as local institutions and assets of the community*

The class teacher should acknowledge that the school in which he/she teaches is a community asset and that all role players within the schooling structure form the assets of the school.

Schools are community assets because they enhance opportunities for people to work together and transmit knowledge, skills and values necessary for community improvement (Ferreira, 2006).. Schools are support centres that address community needs by providing equitable and public education to diverse local people as well as uniting communities within which they are located (Maphutha, 2006).

The class teacher should therefore be fully aware that the community views the school as an integral component of the local community and as such the school cannot renege on its duty in providing care and protection of OVC. For the school to function as a care and support structure for OVC, the class teacher must ensure that all assets within the school are properly mapped, mobilised and managed (Saidi, *et al.* 2003).

To strengthen care and support for OVC, the class teacher should enlist support from the following stakeholders:

- **The principal and his management team:** 'The education of pupils, that is everything that takes place in the school which has any direct or indirect bearing on the education of pupils, is the most important function of the principal and teachers of the school' (Buchel 1992:81). This quotation clearly highlights that the role of the principal also extends to the care and support of orphans and vulnerable children. The principal of the school is an asset of the school for the following reasons:
  - The school principal fulfils a leadership role in the community and comes into regular contact with various community bodies, groups and people,

such as churches, administration boards, community councils and welfare organisations.

- Principals are also in regular contact with parents, guardians and caregivers as well as departmental officials. Regular contact with these institutions, people and organisations, puts the principal in an ideal position to help OVC and curb the spread of HIV/AIDS (Buchel & Hoberg, 2006).
- **The Representative Council of Learners:** Learners in the mainstream are knowledgeable and skilful in reading and writing in indigenous languages; maintaining sound interpersonal relations; playing, coaching and being referees in the various codes of sport as well as in drama and singing, modern dance, poetry, art and drawing; in making toys and artefacts; and in organising themselves in clubs and groups.
  - Recognising the potential of learners, the South African Schools Act, No. 84 of 1996 and the Provincial Gazette Extraordinary, No. 5946 of 31 January 2003 provides a base to legitimise participation by learners in the democratic functioning of schools.
  - Every public school enrolling learners in Grade 8 and higher must establish an RCL. This also underlines the fundamental constitutional principles of cooperative governance and participative management.
  - In terms of the South African Schools Act, the RCL has to set up various sub-committees such as a sporting committee, a cultural committee and learner welfare committee. In keeping with the initiative taken by the Teboho Trust (an NGO situated in Gauteng) to empower and capacitate RCL members to address the needs of OVC, the class teacher should suggest the following to the Teacher Liaison Officer (a staff member who oversees the functioning of the RCL) that the RCL set up a sub-committee to provide care and support for OVC and whose functions should include: providing OVC with peer counselling services; making inputs to the school principal as well as the school governing body; attending leadership programmes and programmes related to the care

and support of OVC; setting up a uniform club aimed at providing uniforms and clothing for orphans and vulnerable children; and setting up a feeding club aimed at providing meals for orphans and vulnerable children.

- **Other staff members (educators):** The staff complement in a primary school may comprise specialist educators such as foundation phase educators, senior phase educators, learning area specialists, the librarian, and arts and culture specialists. Salient to the provision of curriculum-based support services for OVC are the following skills of educators; writing poetry and drama, raising funds for the school, teaching using breakthrough methods in the classroom, sewing, dressmaking, needlework, beading and art wok; singing choral music and choir conducting, promoting cleanliness in the school premises, creating a positive learning environment, interacting and communicating with other people, developing youth in faith-based organisations and in entrepreneurship, coaching, negotiating and cooking.
- **School Governing Body (SGB):** The South African Schools Act, No. 84 of 1996 provides for the establishment of School Governing Bodies (SGB) and to legitimise participation by parents, learners and educators in the democratic functioning of schools. Each school must establish a governing body through a democratic electoral process. The South African Schools Act mandates the SGB to form various sub-committees. Examples of such sub-committees are finance committee, discipline committee, sports and recreation, safety and security, and learner

welfare. The class teacher should tap the potential and resources of the SGB to garner support for OVC in the class. Salient to the provision of support services for OVC are the following skills of the SGB; motivating, supporting, decision-making and problem-solving within the school, liaising with parents during meetings, repair work, accompanying educators and learners during educational excursions at school, sewing, cooking, dancing, and computer literacy.

The researcher suggests that the class teacher should tap the strength of the SGB to initiate and organise the following, feeding schemes and uniform clubs for OVC,

educational tours for OVC, accommodation arrangements, home visits, creating venues for completion of homework, and providing moral support for OVC.

- **Assets in the community:** A school is a formal system, socialising agency and a learning institution with diversity of partners who socially influence one another. According to Stoll and Fink (1999), community partners of the school are assets of the school because they promote school improvement through interdependent and collaborative efforts. Dodd and Konzall (2002), argue that strong relationships between the school, family and community help provide knowledge, skills, values and experience that are much needed by OVC in order to function effectively as adults in a complex and rapidly changing worlds.
- The Synergistic Model of Home, School, and Community Partnership of Dodd and Konzal (2002) is used as a basis for tapping and utilising the assets of the community. The synergistic paradigm increases better results in education because educators, learners, parents, and community act together in educating all children in the community for the purpose of meeting the educational challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The ultimate goal of the synergistic paradigm is that 'all children should become successful, competent and caring adults' (Dodd & Konzal, 2002:125). The synergistic model is equally applicable to orphans in the Dududu area where very little motivation is provided for orphans by caregivers. The social capital, associations and institutions of a typical rural community is shown in Table 2.

Table 2 The social capital, associations, and institutions in a typical rural community – assets in the community

SOCIAL/HUMAN CAPITAL	ASSOCIATIONS	INSTITUTIONS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Attorneys, politicians, local government officials, clerks, teachers, educational managers, pensioners, entrepreneurs and home based businessmen</li> <li>• Nurses, dentists, dieticians, medical doctors, traditional healers, traditional dancers, artists, sculptors, painters and gardeners</li> <li>• Post master, officers, business leaders, accountants, insurance and financial consultants</li> <li>• Chief and councillors, bishop, priests, clinical psychologists and social workers.</li> <li>• Directors and assistant directors</li> <li>• Radio and television presenters</li> <li>• Agriculturalists and shepherds</li> <li>• Technicians, builders, engineers, electricians, plumbers, carpenters and drivers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Football clubs</li> <li>• Youth projects</li> <li>• Gardening and water projects</li> <li>• Community choral society</li> <li>• Teachers associations</li> <li>• Bakery projects</li> <li>• Poultry projects</li> <li>• Traditional dance clubs</li> <li>• Microfinance associations</li> <li>• Political associations</li> <li>• Wedding clubs</li> <li>• Agricultural projects</li> <li>• Tourist clubs</li> <li>• Burial clubs</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Tribal offices</li> <li>• Department of public works</li> <li>• Department of education</li> <li>• Department of social and welfare services</li> <li>• Department of health</li> <li>• Health clinic</li> <li>• Schools</li> <li>• Police station</li> </ul>

Source: Adapted from Maphutha (2006:82)

The human capital, as an asset, as well as the associations and institutions above provide the educator with an extensive body of strength that could be tapped to provide care and support for OVC.

The feeding and nutrition programme, according to Giese *et al.* (2003) is a strategy that could be adopted by interacting with faith-based organisations, social clubs, concerned individuals and businesses. These programmes, according to Giese *et al.* (2003), were effectively implemented in the Cato Crest area. Faith based organisations such as the Hare Krishna – Food For Life, the Sai Organisation, the

Divine Life Society and other churches regularly provide feeding and nutrition programmes for disadvantaged children. Giese *et al.* (2003) suggest that clothing and shelter could be provided for OVC by contacting organisations such as the Gift of the Givers and East Coast Radio.

Following the examples provided by Giese *et al.* (2003) and Riet *et al.* (2006), the class teacher should enlist the aid of student psychologists to provide free counselling services for OVC. These programmes were effectively undertaken in the Cato Crest area (Giese *et al.*, 2003) and in the Richmond area (Riet *et al.*, 2006). Once the class teacher has mapped the various assets, the class teacher should then take action in mobilising the various assets. Mapping of assets without action will not be of any benefit to the class teacher.

#### 3.6.6.4 *Asset mobilisation*

The identification of assets is followed by action. Mobilisation of assets implies two components; the agency component (referring to the realisation and appreciation of available assets) and secondly, a mutual willingness component (concerning potential partners and supporters who might be of assistance). The mobilisation of assets therefore entails the processes of forming, assessing and utilising partnerships that might be beneficial in addressing the challenges of coping with OVC (Ebersöhn & Eloff, 2006).

Once the class teacher is cognizant of and has identified assets, networks could be formed and interactive relationships could be initiated between individuals, institutions and associations. According to Kretzmann & McKnight (1993) this process refers to developing capacity inventory. Capacity inventory involves ways of identifying potential connections and connecting capacity information in order to put the identified skills into operation when faced with challenges. This process refers to the utilisation of asset maps, thereby unlocking the power of the community (Kretzmann & McKnight 1993). Components of the community such as faith-based organisations possess invaluable experience in mobilising other assets that exist in the community and as such the class teacher should draw on the expertise of these organisations.

By accessing such a group (for example the faith-based organisation), the group itself, as well as the class teacher's collaborative relationships, the knowledge shared and support provided could become assets to the class teacher. Once the class teacher has mobilised all the all assets, the class teacher has to manage these assets for the purposes of continuity and sustainability.

#### 3.6.6.5 *Asset management*

The third main component of the asset-based approach concerns asset management, which implies that the class teacher take ownerships and responsibility to sustain the actions that have been initiated (Saidi *et al.* in Ebersöhn & Eloff, 2006). Sustainability is regarded as the central concept of the asset-based approach and promoting ennoblement and creativity may enhance it. Giese *et al.* (2003) outline that poor management of community networks is the fundamental reason for the demise of community support for schools in the Cato Crest area.

Giese *et al.* (2003) suggest the following to enhance sustainability: a well-balanced roster – cluttering and overcrowding of activities could be detrimental; reasonable demands – not to make undue demands on the community asset with regard to frequency, quantity and quality of support services; and maintaining a sound relationship with the community asset by fostering continuous communication and providing mutual support. Clarke (2008) indicates that over and above the provision of tangible support for OVC, the class teacher should also take on the role of a 'parent' to OVC. In this regard it is imperative that the class teacher have some knowledge of the attachment theory. The attachment theory is discussed in the following section.

#### 3.6.6.6 *Attachment theory*

According to Bettmann (cited in Ogina, 2007), the fundamental premise of the attachment theory is that children are born with a predisposition to attach themselves to a parent or a caregiver and their behaviour is directed at maintaining proximity with the parent or caregiver. Goldberg (2000) is of the view that the child experiences feelings of security, comfort and love when a mutual bond exists between the child and the parent or caregiver.

The relevance of the attachment theory to the present study is that it provides an understanding and an overview of the supportive relationship needed by orphans and vulnerable children (Bennet & Saks, 2006). The class teacher is in a strategic position to act as a confidante to the orphan or vulnerable child and invoke a sense of security. Those teachers who take up the duty of care and assume the role of parent at school, that is in loco parentis, are viewed by Clarke (2008) as 'heroes' in the classroom.

According to Clarke (2008), a teacher is expected to be a role model to his/her learners and such expectation is congruous with one of the basic principles of the attachment theory, which advocates that the behaviour of a child mirrors the behaviour of the parent or caregiver or the teacher (Holmes, 2003). The role of the teacher as a pastoral care provider is provided for in the National Education Policy Act, No 27 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa, 1996b). This Act, read together with the fundamentals of the attachment theory, are crucial for the provision of psychological services as a response to the orphans' need for security and protection.

In Chapter 2 it was noted that that orphans and vulnerable children are subjected to various forms of abuse and neglect, and lack basic life-skills. In this regard, various studies have emphasised the need for the dissemination of life-skills to orphans and vulnerable children. A life-skills programme for OVC is discussed in the following section.

### **3.7. Provision of a life-skills programme for OVC**

The National Curriculum Statement provides for life orientation to be taught to all learners from Grade 4 to Grade 12 and for life-skills to be taught up to Grade 3. However, studies by Bhana *et al.* (2005) and Visser (2005) report that the teaching of life-skills and life orientation is done only to the extent of meeting the curriculum needs in terms of outcomes and assessment standards and that the content does not adequately cover topics relevant to OVC.

It is therefore necessary to explore a life-skills programme that is specific to OVC. The various theories and approaches that underpin a life-skills programme are shown in Appendix 4. Because the class teacher is best positioned to identify the various

challenges faced by OVC, the class teacher is best positioned to deliver specific life-skills training for OVC in his/her class.

### ***3.7.1 Basics steps involved in the implementation of a life-skills programme***

The researcher has developed a life-skills programme that could be used by the class teacher for OVC. This programme entails the following steps, the pre-implementation phase, the implementation phase, and the post-implementation phase.

The pre-implementation phase involves the following; permission has to be sought from the principal of the school for the implementation of the like skills programme as the programme will entail a restructuring of the school timetable to accommodate this programme; if at all possible the Ward Manager should be informed of this intervention; the principal of the school should appoint a member of his staff to oversee this programme; life-skills manuals should be readily available for class teachers; and a workshop should be conducted with form teachers to empower them on the modus operandi of the programme.

The implementation phase entails the facilitating of the life-skills programme. The programme should be facilitated in the mornings for about 10 minutes each day prior to the commencement of mainstream curricular work. In the post-implementation phase, the class teacher, as well as the appointed supervisor of the programme, should evaluate the programme with a view of making improvements to the programme. The following aspects are discussed in detail:

#### *3.7.1.1 The year plan (management)*

The programme is designed for all learners from Grade 1 to Grade 7. Grades 1 to 3 and Grades 4 to 7 form different phases and have their own specific programmes. The programme will require 10 school weeks. There are 10 topics that have to be covered within the 20 weeks. Each topic will therefore require two weeks or 10 school days. The researcher suggests that the programme should commence in the first term and be

spread evenly throughout the year – allocating four or six weeks each term for facilitating the life-skills programme. The class teacher should use the balance of the time to compile a detailed profile of all learners in his/her form class, identify orphans and vulnerable children, identify the specific needs of orphans and vulnerable children, garner support (using the asset-based approach) from various sectors to assist OVC in the class, and facilitate the formation of peer support groups to provide moral support for orphans and vulnerable children. The year plan for each phase is shown in Table 3.

Table 3 Life-skills programme – Year plan

<b>TERM</b>	<b>GRADES 1 TO 3</b>	<b>GRADES 4 TO 7</b>
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Talking to strangers</li> <li>• The uniqueness of me</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The uniqueness of me</li> <li>• Assertiveness</li> </ul>
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Respect</li> <li>• Honesty</li> <li>• Friendliness</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Being proud of myself</li> <li>• Healthy lifestyle</li> <li>• Substance abuse</li> </ul>
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Healthy life style</li> <li>• Unhealthy life style</li> <li>• Substance abuse</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Substance abuse (continued)</li> <li>• Teenage pregnancy</li> <li>• HIV/AIDS</li> </ul>
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• HIV/AIDS</li> <li>• Effective communication</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Effective communication</li> <li>• Coping skills</li> </ul>

### 3.7.1.2 *The contents of the life-skills programme*

The contents of the life-skills programme, which emanate from a classification of life-skills by Hopson and Scally (1986) and Gazda, Childers and Brookes (1987) appear in Appendix 4. The classification of life-skills, according to Hopson and Scally (1987) generally relate to skills of learning, skills of relating, skills of working and playing, and skills of developing self and others.

In essence, the classification of life-skills by Hopson and Scally (1987) and Gazda *et al.*, (1987) provide for the development of the

following life-skills; assertiveness, career management, problem solving, being positive, sexuality, effective communication, maintaining physical well being, and time management.

The classification of life-skills by Hopson and Scally (1986) and Gazda *et al.* (1987) does not provide for HIV/AIDS education and substance abuse. Senderowitz and Kirby (2006) address this shortcoming by providing guidelines relating to HIV/AIDS education, substance abuse, procedures to teach sex education, procedures to address multiple sexual-psychosocial risk and protective factors, and procedures to address issues such as stigmatisation and discrimination. Although the life-skills programme has been specifically designed for OVC, the researcher suggests that the programme should incorporate all learners, thereby preventing biases, stigmatisation and discrimination.

According to the attachment theory, orphans and vulnerable children do not only look upon the class teacher as a pillar of support, but also seek comfort in confiding in their peers. The class teacher should acknowledge the role that peers could play in providing support services for OVC. The class teacher should therefore facilitate peer counselling programmes for OVC. Peer counselling is discussed in the following section.

### **3.8. Peer counselling**

As stated in Chapter 2, most orphans and vulnerable children who experience neglect and abuse in their households tend to find solace and support in their peers. The class teacher should therefore initiate a peer support group. For the class teacher to be adequately prepared to facilitate peer counselling sessions, knowledge of the following aspects are essential; peer counselling models, peer counselling training, and peer counselling supervision.

### **3.8.1 Peer counselling models**

#### **3.8.1.1 *Truax and Carkuff's model***

The model by Truax and Carkuff, developed in 1967, identified essential qualities believed to be aspects related to positive change in clients (cited in Varenhorst 1984). Scales were developed to measure these qualities. A model was designed which focused on the training of lay counsellors. Criticism of this model focuses on the lack of clarity on the training procedures, the lack of use of control groups, the fact that outcomes were not specified clearly and not researched thoroughly, and inadequate follow-up procedures.

#### **3.8.1.2 *Gazda's model***

In 1973, Gazda adapted Carkuff's model and compiled a manual for elementary and secondary education. This model was also aimed at lay counsellors and educators (cited in Varenhorst 1984), and focused primarily on communication skills and listening skills. Criticism of this model focuses on the fact that the model contains too many educational terms and that this creates a problem when used with adolescents and other groups who are unfamiliar with these terms.

#### **3.8.1.3 *Ivey's model (1971-1973)***

Ivey (in Ivey & Alschuter, 1973) translates the verbal behaviours of the Carkuff model into behavioural response categories to make the model more teachable. Ivey emphasises that qualities such as warmth, positive regard and empathy cannot be taught directly but stated paraprofessionals can be taught to become warmer and more sympathetic. The model consists of two clear approaches; an emphasis on training each skill separately and self-observations via video. This model has been widely used in elementary schools and secondary schools to educate student counsellors.

#### **3.8.1.4**      *Danish and Hauer's Helping Skills Model of 1973*

This model (as cited in Varenhorst, 1984) focuses on three components; (1) the development of an understanding of the skills being taught (knowledge component); (2) observing others demonstrating the skills (modelling component), and (3) the opportunity to demonstrate the skill in practice (practical component). This model has a built-in component to evaluate the effectiveness of the counselling session.

#### **3.8.1.5**      *The Alateen Model*

Alateen is the teenage wing of Alcoholics Anonymous and both programmes have no legal structures aimed at preserving the principles of their programmes (Alcoholics Anonymous, 1976). Alcoholics Anonymous and its affiliate wings have encouraged the formation of identical programmes and have encouraged initiatives to assist mankind. Narcotics Anonymous and Gamblers Anonymous are examples of such programmes.

Alateen is a fellowship of teenagers, whose lives have been affected by someone else's drinking. These teenagers go through a wide range of problems such as physical abuse, emotional abuse, economic hardships, psychological problems, behavioural problems and stigmatisation – which are similar to the problems experienced by orphans and vulnerable children. These young people come together to share their experience, strength and hope with each other; discuss their difficulties; learn effective ways to cope with their problems; encourage one another and help each other understand the principles of their programme. One of the major advantages of the Alateen programme is that there is no need to train Alateen members on counselling techniques. Members simply share their experiences and offer hope to fellow members in an interactive communication session.

Notwithstanding the personal experiences of peers and their ability to provide peer support for OVC, peers need to be trained and empowered on salient aspects of peer counselling. The class teacher should therefore facilitate training sessions for peers.

### **3.8.2**      *Training*

Having established peer counsellors at school, the class teacher should brief these

counsellors on salient aspects that have been outlined by Blain and Brusko (1985) and Bowman (1986). These aspects include awareness and understanding of self and others, confronting, congruency and genuineness, the importance of values, effective listening skills, effective communication skills, problem-solving and decision-making skills, ethics, confidentiality, trust, identification of specific problem areas which require professional counselling, and procedures to follow with regard to referrals to professional persons.

### ***3.8.3 Supervision***

It is imperative that the class teacher or the appointed designate supervise all peer counselling sessions. If left unsupervised, learners may use this session to gossip, build relationships with partners, and plan and/or engage in anti-social activities.

### ***3.8.4 The envisaged peer counselling programme***

Because orphans and vulnerable children undergo similar problems faced by children whose parent/s abuse alcohol, the Alateen programme together with certain essentials of Ivey's Model (as cited in Varenhorst, 1984) and Danish and Hauer's Helping Skills Model (as cited in Varenhorst, 1984) which could easily be adapted for OVC. The researcher suggests the following steps to assist the class teacher in facilitating a peer support programme:

- Using motivational techniques to encourage the formation of peer counselling groups – the class teacher could incorporate non-orphans as well.
- Providing training in terms of the principles outlined by Blain and Brusko (1985) and Bowman (1986) as well as enlisting the aid of trained peer counsellors from various organisations such as SANCA, Big Brother Big Sister and Alcoholics Anonymous.
- In this regard the class teacher should enforce the principles of empathy, listening skills and communication skills, as outlined in the Alateen programme and in the models by Danish and Hauer and Ivey (as cited in Varenhorst, 1984). Because

orphans and vulnerable children undergo similar problems faced by children whose parent/s are alcoholics, the Alateen programme could easily be adapted for OVC.

- Scheduling counselling sessions that meet with the free time of peer counsellors. Peer counselling sessions should provide for one-on-one sessions and group therapy.

In this regard, the Alateen programme offers group psychotherapy and centres on empathy for one another. These affected teenagers could relate with each other, share their strengths and hope, and offer moral as well as spiritual support for orphans and vulnerable children affected by AIDS. Teenage OVC could form a support group called Ovuteen (Orphan and Vulnerable Teenagers). The researcher suggests that the duration of each session should be about 20 minutes. .

- Making a classroom accessible for peer counselling.
- Providing peer counsellors with a data base of professional counsellors in the area.
- Providing peer counsellors with a referral book in which to record critical cases and areas of concern.

The implementation of a life-skills programme, the asset-based approach and peer counselling services will entail a fair amount of administrative duties and these may encroach on the workload of the class teacher. Clarke (2008), however, indicates that sound organisation of the life skills programme by the principal and SMT will assist in reducing the workload of the class teacher.

### **3.9. Extended administrative functions of the class teacher**

Because the class teacher is assigned with the duty of managing her class, the class teacher, after having analysed the information of her learners is best positioned to identify the special needs of her learners and accordingly strategise pronounced life-skills programmes and other intervention programmes for learners. The class teacher is in a position to build a cordial and compassionate relationship with the learners and

act as a confidante, mentor and counsellor.

Because subject educators complain that they do not have time to incorporate a life-skills programme in the subject that they teach, the class teacher could very well fill this gap by facilitating a life-skills programme in the mornings. However, in terms of Section 4 of the Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998, the class teacher has to perform certain duties. These include, *inter alia*, the following:

#### 3.9.1.1 *Improving record keeping*

According to IIEP (2007), the class teacher should aim at improving record keeping by tracking and recording OVC enrolled at school. The school is expected to review EMIS data to include OVC-related information and ensure feedback to those who can use this information for planning and programming. The school, with the assistance of the class teacher, should continuously engage in OVC assessments and use feedback obtained from such assessments for planning and programming. Record keeping is closely aligned with the following role functions of the class teacher.

#### 3.9.1.2 *Marking of the attendance register on a daily basis*

This task will provide the class educator with accurate statistics relating to the absenteeism rate of learners, attendance patterns, late coming and learner drop-out patterns. The class teacher is best positioned to collate the attendance statistics of the designated class. Class teachers should be mandated by the principal to analyse the attendance statistics of learners in the class so as to implement appropriate intervention strategies aimed at improving attendance at schools.

#### 3.9.1.3 *Compiling learner profiles*

Because the class teacher is in regular contact with the learners, he/she is best positioned to compile a detailed record of the personal particulars of learners. In Zimbabwe, information by grade and gender is collected to identify OVC as follows: single orphan, double orphan, neglected/abandoned, sick parents, sick pupil, very poor

parents, child-headed household, and other reasons (IIEP, 2007).

Over and above the use of criteria to identify orphans, the following details *inter alia* should appear in the learner profile: the name of the learner, the residential address and telephone numbers of the learner, details relating to the learner's parent/guardian/caregiver, occupation of the learner's parent/guardian, the person with whom the learner is residing, a brief description of the learners household chores and a brief account relating to the completion of homework. This information will provide the class teacher with invaluable information relating to the socioeconomic, living and learning conditions of her learners. Orphans are easily identified from such a profile.

The IIEP (2007) indicates that there are a number of creative ways in which vulnerable children can be identified, such as setting essay topics that provide children with opportunities to record their personal experiences, using drawings to explore children's coping strategies, introducing a suggestion box where children can 'post' letters to teachers anonymously, and communication books to allow caregivers and teachers to communicate with one another about a particular child. Community-based surveys are also useful to capture/quantify out-of-school OVC.

#### *3.9.1.4 Collection of school fees and other monies*

The class educator is also tasked with the duty of collecting school fees and other monies from learners. In the case of learners attending fee-paying schools, the school fee payment patterns of learners will provide the educator with a fairly accurate picture of the financial situation of learners. In instances where monies have to be collected for excursions, photographs, concerts etc., the educator will know precisely the number of learners in her class who cannot afford these 'luxuries'. Information from this source will motivate the educator to negotiate costs so that poor children, including orphans, will not be marginalised from extra and co-curricular activities of the school.

#### *3.9.1.5 Issuing of stationery and textbooks*

The best person to issue textbooks and stationery to learners is the class educator. This process will ensure that all learners receive the necessary support material.

### **3.10. Conclusion**

This chapter situated the study within the framework of the existing literature on the role function of the class teacher in providing care and support for orphans and vulnerable children. It commenced by describing the job description and workload of the teacher. Thereafter, the impact of various factors on the workload of the class teacher and the extent to which OVC have redefined the role function of the class teacher were discussed.

The researcher linked the various approaches and guidelines within the context of the extended or redefined role function of the class teacher.

In the next chapter, the researcher discusses and describes the empirical study conducted, based on the conceptual framework presented in this chapter. The methodical choices are explained within the context of my study and in terms of the research questions formulated and stated in Chapter 1.

## CHAPTER 4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

### 4.1. Introduction

The conceptual framework discussed in Chapters 2 and 3 provided the basis for this empirical study. This chapter sets out the paradigmatic perspectives, the research design, and the research methodology used in this study. A broad overview of this chapter is shown below.

Table 4 Overview of the chapter

<b>THE ROLE OF EDUCATOR IN ADDRESSING THE NEEDS OF ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN</b>	
Purpose	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• To explore and describe the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of OVC.</li><li>• To test the effectiveness of an intervention strategy using the life-skills approach, the asset-based approach and the peer counselling approach.</li></ul>
Epistemology	Positivism
Approach	Quantitative/intervention
Research design	Questionnaire based
Respondents	Rural primary school educators
Intervention strategies	A workshop with the aid of a power point presentation and presentation notes
Considerations	Ethical
Outcomes	Findings that are reliable and valid.

## **4.2. Paradigmatic perspective**

A paradigm may be viewed as a set of basic beliefs that deals with ultimates or first principles. It represents a 'worldview' that defines for its holder, the nature of the 'world', the individual's place in it, and the range of possible relationships to that 'world' and its parts (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). According to Chambers (2003), research paradigms are based on philosophical assumptions which guide the research process.

Being in the teaching profession for almost 29 years, the researcher had acquired a unique set of values, beliefs and perceptions regarding the schooling scenario and more especially, the role function of educators in providing support for OVC. The research paradigm for this study follows a logical consideration of the specifics relating to research paradigms. Guba and Lincoln (1994) state that the basic beliefs that define a particular research paradigm may be summarised by the responses given by fundamental questions: the ontological question, that is, what is the form and nature of reality; the epistemological question, that is, what is the basic belief about knowledge (what can be known); and the methodological question, that is, how can the researcher go about finding out whatever she/he believes can be known.

Within the ontological framework, the researcher had to decide on the best research paradigm to best serve the purpose of this study. Research paradigms within the context of ontological questions include positivism, interpretivism and critical theory. In the world of meta-science (that is, in World 3 of Mouton's (2009) 3 Worlds framework) researchers should constantly submit their research decisions to critical reflection with regard to the selection of choice of theory, which indicators to use in the measurement of phenomena, and which research design to use (Mouton, 2009: 138). The researcher worked from the positivist paradigm (selected meta-theory), following a quantitative approach.

## **4.3. Towards a positivist epistemology**

In a positivist research paradigm regarding the nature of reality (ontological question), an objective, true reality exists which is governed by unchangeable natural cause-effect

laws (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Reality consists of stable pre-existing patterns or order that can be discovered and be generalised (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Creswell (2009) refers to synonyms associated with this paradigm as being positivist/postpositivist research, empirical science and positivism. The positivist epistemological paradigm was chosen as the researcher's views fell in line with the view held by Guba and Lincoln (1994) that the nature of knowledge is probalistic; that is, it holds true for large groups of people or occurs in many situations (epistemological questions).

The researcher is of the belief that there is a probability that the type of support services offered by class teachers to OVC in the school where the researcher is employed is also commonplace in other schools. The methods used in a positivist research paradigm (methodological questions) are empirical, structured and replicable observation, quantification and experimental (Neuman, 1997). Guba and Lincoln (1997) and Creswell (2009) indicate that survey studies (meta-theory) are grounded in the positivist research paradigm. According to Creswell (2009), this worldview is sometimes called the 'scientific method' of doing science research. Because surveys are conducive to eliciting responses from a large sample of respondents, the survey type of study was used in this research.

#### **4.4. The research design**

A research design is a plan or blueprint of how the research is to be conducted, whilst research methodology focuses on the research process (Mouton, 2009). The choice of the research design is contingent on the type of study. Research designs are tailored to address different kinds of questions and different types of studies. From a broad perspective, the study and hence the research design could either be empirical or non-empirical (Mouton, 2009).

Creswell (2009), however, indicates that the worldview, strategies and methods all contribute to a research design that tends to be qualitative, quantitative or a mixed research method. Empirical studies are used to obtain new data or analyse existing data. Surveys and experiments are strategies that are used in the quantitative approach, whilst case studies and structured interviews are used in the qualitative approach. The qualitative as well as the quantitative approaches aid the collection of

primary data in an empirical study (Mouton, 2009; Creswell, 2009). Analysis of text data and numerical data relate to the analysis of existing data. Non-empirical studies relate to philosophical analysis, conceptual analysis, theory building and literature reviews (Mouton, 2009). The empirical design involving the use of the quantitative research methodology is used this study

#### **4.4.1 Quantitative methodology**

Whilst the qualitative methodology is firmly rooted in the interpretivist paradigm, the quantitative approach is embedded in the positivist paradigm (Creswell, 1994; Jennings, 2001). Proponents of the quantitative approach hold that the subjective nature of qualitative data and its origin in single contexts creates difficulties in applying conventional standards of reliability and validity to the outcomes of the research (Gilbert, 1993; Creswell 1994).

In qualitative forms of investigations, the subjective 'lifeworlds' of human beings are investigated and interpreted (Babbie, 1998). The quantitative approach, on the other hand, uses a deductive approach to the research process. Because the researcher aimed at obtaining a generalised view of the role that educators could play in addressing the needs of OVC, the quantitative approach (positivist paradigm) seemed most appropriate for this study. Quantitative research is a means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. The variables, in turn, can be measured, typically on instruments so that numbered data can be analysed using statistical procedures (Creswell, 2009:4). The overall aim is to test or verify a theory, rather than develop new theories (Welman & Kruger, 2001).

Like qualitative researchers, those who engage in quantitative research have assumptions about testing theories deductively, building in protections against bias, controlling for alternative explanations, and being able to generalise and replicate the findings (Creswell, 2009:4). Veal (1997) and Blanche and Durrheim (1999) indicate that the quantitative study offers a framework for the entire study and serves as an organising model for the research questions or hypothesis and for the entire data collection procedure.

Proponents of the qualitative approach argue that the quantitative approach undermines human individuality and their ability to think (Veal, 1997). Unlike the qualitative approach, the quantitative approach fails to interpret the unique experiences of individuals (Gilbert, 1993). One of the strongest arguments against the quantitative approach is the priority that this method attaches to the quantification of results (Massey, 2000). The researcher is of the opinion that the quantitative approach does not totally denounce the element of subjectivity. In the case of the present study, the views expressed by educators are subjective as these views are expressed against the educator's unique circumstances and in view of his/her perceptions of the real world. The quantitative approach aims at obtaining a generalised finding of all respondents in the research sample whilst acknowledging subjective view points.

#### **4.4.2 A mixed approach?**

The mixed methods approach to inquiry combines or associates both qualitative and quantitative forms. This approach is more than simply collecting and analysing data – it involves the use of both approaches in tandem so that the overall strength of a study is greater than either qualitative or quantitative research (Creswell & Clark, 2007). The results from one method can help identify participants to study questions to ask for the other method (Creswell, 2009).

This study involves two research stages; namely, the first phase which is aimed at ascertaining the views of educators regarding the role that the class teacher could play in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children, and the second stage which aims at testing the effectiveness of the intervention strategy. The quantitative research methodology was used in both stages. In the first phase, questionnaires were used to undertake a survey, and in the second phase a quasi-experimental design was used to test the effectiveness of the intervention. The second stage of the study did not involve interviews or analysing the personal experiences of educators. Hence, the mixed approach was not used in this study.

#### **4.4.3 Strategies of enquiry**

Within the ambit of the methodological design lie the tools or strategies that are used to

obtain the required data (Creswell, 2009). Strategies of inquiry are types of qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods design and models that provide specific direction for procedures in research design (Creswell, 2009). Experimental designs and non-experimental designs such as surveys are grounded in the field of quantitative methodology. The non-experimental design was used in the first phase of the research and the experimental design was used in the second phase of the research.

#### **4.5. First phase of the study – survey strategy**

The survey research strategy was used in this phase of the study. Survey research provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, activities or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population (Creswell, 2009). The survey is a non-experimental, descriptive research strategy (Mouton, 2000). Surveys include cross-sectional and longitudinal studies using questionnaires or structured interviews for data collection and are useful when a researcher wants to collect data or study a phenomenon that cannot be directly observed (Creswell, 2009; Mouton, 2000 & Babbie, 1998).

##### **4.5.1 Survey instruments**

The survey strategy of inquiry could use one or more of the following instruments in obtaining data: mail questionnaires, self administered questionnaires, personal interviews, telephone interviews, e-mail, and the public media such as newspapers (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1981). The questionnaire method was used in this study.

##### **4.5.2 Advantages and disadvantages of the survey strategy of inquiry**

Despite some of the disadvantages associated with the use of surveys, which according to Welman (2006) include inflexibility with regard to the study design, difficulty in recalling of information by respondents and formulation of generalised questions, the survey method has distinct advantages or strengths. These strengths include cost effectiveness, appropriateness in describing the characteristics of a large population, versatility (they can be administered from remote locations using mail,

email or

telephone), and there is an element of standardisation, objectivity and precision in measuring data (Leedy, 2005). .

### **4.5.3 Use of questionnaires as a survey instrument**

A questionnaire (Appendices 2 and 3) was used to obtain data on the role of the educator in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. Leedy (2005) indicate that a questionnaire is a data collection instrument other than an achievement or ability test on which respondents directly supply their own answers to a set of questions. A questionnaire serves as a commonplace instrument for observing data that sometimes lies buried deep within the minds, or within the attitudes, feelings or reactions of men and women (Welman, 2006). .

A questionnaire is usually composed of one or more questions that are put to a 'large' number of people (Walonick, 2004). Mouton (2000) and Walonick (2004) suggest that in constructing the questionnaire, the questionnaire should reflect quality; be short enough so as not to take too much time, obtain some depth to the response in order to avoid superficial and 'double-barrelled' responses, and the ideal questionnaire must not be too suggestive or too un-stimulating.

#### **4.5.3.1 Characteristics of a good questionnaire**

Leedy (2005) and Mouton (2009) state that the researcher should consult and seek advice from specialists and colleagues at all times during the construction of the questionnaire.

A good questionnaire, according to Welman (2006) and Walonick (2004) has the following characteristics; it has to deal with a significant topic, which the respondent will recognise as important enough to warrant spending his/her time on; it seeks only that information which cannot be obtained from other sources; each question deals with a single concept and should be worded as simply and as straightforwardly as possible;

and has questions that follow a psychological order, that is, from the easy to the difficult.

#### 4.5.3.2 *Advantages and disadvantages of the written questionnaire*

Walonick (2004) notes the disadvantages relate to the inflexibility of the questionnaire method, the fact that people are generally better able to express their views verbally than in writing, and the inability of written questionnaires to correct misunderstandings or answer questions that the respondents may have. However, the questionnaire method was used for the purposes of this research because of the following advantages: it is affordable, precludes possible interviewer bias, permits anonymity, permits a respondent sufficient amount of time to consider answers before responding, reaches a bigger audience, and the respondents can complete it in their own time and in a more relaxed atmosphere (Walonick, 2004). In this study some of the disadvantages of the mail questionnaire were eliminated as the researcher or his assistant was present when the respondents answered the questions.

#### 4.5.3.3 *Validity of the questionnaire*

In view of the literature on validity, the researcher is positive that the questionnaire has measured, to a large degree, that which it was designed to measure. Creswell (2009) defines validity as a judgement of the appropriateness of a measure for the specific inferences or decisions that result from sources generated. Hence, the researcher has to provide adequate evidence to verify that validity exists.

There are three various types of validity: Content validity is where content and cognitive processes can be measured, and topics, skills and abilities should be prepared and items from each category randomly drawn. Criterion validity refers to the relationship between scores on a measurement instrument and an independent variable believed to measure directly the behaviour or characteristics in question (Mouton, 2000 and Mouton, 2009) The criteria should be relevant, reliable and free from bias and contamination. Constant validity pertains to the extent to which the test measures a specific trait or construct, for example, intelligence, reasoning, ability and attitudes (Mouton, 2000).

Schnetler (as cited in Heeralal, 2002) states that a valid research instrument is one that has demonstrated that it detects some 'real' ability, attitude or prevailing situation that

the researcher can identify and characterise. Furthermore, Welman (2006) proposes that if the ability or attitude is itself stable, and if a respondent's answers to the items are not affected by other unpredictable factors, then each administration of the instrument should yield the same results. The validity of the questionnaire as a research instrument reflects the sureness with which conclusions can be drawn. It refers to the extent to which interpretations of the instrument's results, other than the ones the researcher wants to make, can be ruled out.

#### 4.5.3.4 *Reliability of the questionnaire*

Leedy (2005) refers to reliability as the consistency of measurement and the extent to which the results are similar over different forms of the same instrument on occasions of data collection. A clear distinction is made between the following types of reliability; test-retest reliability (test reliability is consistently estimated by comparing two or more repeated administrations of the measuring instrument - this gives an indication of the dependability of the results on one occasion and on another occasion); internal consistency reliability (this indicates how well the test items measure the same things), and split-half reliability (the split-half reliability can be calculated by correlating the results obtained from two halves of the same instrument (Leedy, 2005). For the purpose of this study the internal consistency reliability was used.

There are sources of error that affect reliability. According to Mouton, (2000), these include fluctuations in the mood or alertness of respondents because of illness, fatigue, recent good or bad experiences, or temporary differences amongst members of the group being measured; variations on the conditions of administration between groups (these range from various distractions, such as unusual outside noise to inconsistencies in the administration of the measuring instrument such as missions in verbal instructions); differences in scoring or interpretation of results, change differences in what the observer notices; and errors in computing scores and random effect by the respondents who guess or check attitude alternatives without trying to understand them.

The researcher believes that the respondents were honest and sincere in responding to the questionnaire, hence maximising the reliability. Frankness in responding to the questions was made possible by the anonymity of the questionnaire.

#### **4.5.4 Structure of the questionnaire used in the first stage of the study**

Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh (1990) suggest that in constructing the questionnaire, the questionnaire should reflect quality, be short enough so as not to take too much time, should obtain some depth to the response in order to avoid superficial and 'double-barrelled' responses, and must not be too suggestive or too un-stimulating.

The questionnaire was divided into three sections:

- **Section one** dealt with the biographical information of the respondents and consisted of questions 1.1 to 1.6.
  
- **Section two** consisted of five subsections:
  - Subsection 2.1 dealt with the educator's understanding of the effects of HIV/AIDS on orphans and vulnerable children and consisted of questions 2.1.1 to 2.1.13.
  - Subsection 2.2 dealt with the view of the educator on role players (at school level) who are involved in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children and consisted of questions 2.2.1 to 2.2.3.
  - Subsection 2.3 dealt with the view of the educator on the role of the form teacher in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. This subsection consisted of questions 2.3.1 to 2.3.30.
  - Subsection 2.4 dealt with the view of the educator on the role of the form teacher as a facilitator of life-skills programmes specific for his/her form class and consisted of questions 2.4.1 to 2.4.10.

- Subsection 2.5 dealt with the view of the educator on using an adaptation of the Alateen Model for fellowshipping and peer support for orphans and vulnerable children. This subsection consisted of questions 2.5.1 to 2.5.6.
- **Section three** dealt with open-ended questions and consisted of questions 3.1 to 3.3. The respondents were requested to indicate their responses in one of five ways: strongly agree, agree, uncertain, disagree and strongly disagree.

#### **4.6. Second phase of the study – experimental strategy**

The experimental strategy is rooted in the quantitative research methodology approach. A research design using an experimental strategy could either take the form of a true experiment (classical) or a quasi-experiment (Babbie, 2005). One of the main differences between the true experimental design and the quasi-experimental design is that quasi-experiments do not have randomly assigned treatment (Descombe, 2007).

Creswell (2009) indicates that in either case researchers make observations or obtain measures using instruments at a pretest (or both) stage of the procedure. Research plans incorporating the experimental design should provide a detailed discussion about the instrument or instruments being used and elucidate aspects such as reliability and validity (Creswell, 2009). While the true experiment is the preferred design, researchers often find themselves in situations where practical concerns preclude true experimental approaches (Babbie, 2005).

##### **4.6.1 The quasi-experimental instrument**

When random assignment and laboratory control are unavailable, a researcher may choose other research techniques. The term 'quasi-experiment' covers a wide range of other experimental research techniques and is sometimes called 'near' research (Descombe, 2007). Quasi experiments are research designs that do not have randomly assigned treatment and comparison groups.

Instead, the comparisons between treatment and non-treatment conditions must always be made with non-equivalent groups or with the same subjects prior to treatment (Babbie, 2007).

However, with regard to the selection process of participants, Creswell (2009) indicates that participants could either be done randomly or non-randomly. Non-random selection is also referred to 'convenient selection' (Creswell, 2009). Types of testing include the one-shot case study, the one-group pretest-posttest design, the static-group comparison design, the interrupted time-series design, regression-discontinuity design, and the pretest-posttest non-equivalent control group design. Compared with the other forms of quasi-experimental testing, the pretest-post non-equivalent control group form of testing is more reliable and interpretable (Descombe, 2007).

#### ***4.6.2 Quasi-experimental pretest-posttest non-equivalent control group design***

This design is also called the non-equivalent control group design, or the quasi-experimental comparison group pretest-posttest design. This design does not include a long series of observations either over time or across groups. It is not an extension of any of the pre-experimental designs; rather it is a combination of the static-group comparison and the one-group pretest-posttest pre-experiment (David, 2001, Descombe, 2007 & Mouton, 2000). Morley (2002) and David (2001) describe the main features of quasi-experimental pretest-posttest non-equivalent group design as follows: there are two non-equivalent groups, namely the experimental group and the control group. Both groups are subject to pretests and posttests – the experimental group, however, is subject to treatment.

Notwithstanding some of the disadvantages or weaknesses such as selection biases, instrumentation and maturation that are associated with this design, a major advantage of this design over the static-group comparison is that pre-existing differences between groups can be measured and it is more reliable and interpretable than the static-group comparison and the one-group pretest-posttest pre-experiment (Morley, 2002) The researcher tried to alleviate some of the disadvantages associated with the quasi-experimental pretest-posttest design by selecting schools with similar demographics.

## **4.7. Research procedures**

### **4.7.1 Permission**

Permission was required from the Superintendent of Education (Management) to administer the questionnaire to educators at schools in the Dududu Circuit, which is part of the Ugu Region of KwaZulu-Natal. The researcher sought permission from each of the principals and made the necessary arrangements with them to administer the questionnaire to educators at their schools. The researcher also sought permission from Mr. S.A. Ngongoma, the principal of Enkanini Primary School (the experimental school) to present and implement the proposed model that could be used by form teachers to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.

## **4.8. Sampling**

Sampling is a strategy that is used to enable researchers to pick a group and use it as a basis for making inferences about the population in order to come to a generalisation based on the responses to the sample (Creswell, 2009 and David, 2001). Random sampling refers to the selection of a sample at random, where each potential respondent of the population has an equal chance of being selected (Morley, 2002; Descomnbe, 2007).

### **4.8.1 Selection of respondents**

For the purposes of the research, the researcher identified educators in rural primary secondary schools for the sample population. The researcher selected the Dududu Circuit, which has approximately 200 primary school educators. Owing to the small sample population, the researcher sought to select 40% of educators. Hence 120 educators formed the sample and answered the questionnaire.

Each primary school in the Dududu circuit was given a number. This number was written on a piece of paper together with the number of educators based at that school. Each of these pieces of paper was folded and placed in a container. The contents

were shuffled and the researcher took out the pieces of paper one by one, recording the number of the school and the number of educators that would form the sample. The process continued until 120 respondents were obtained.

#### **4.9. Data collection**

The collection of data is probably the most crucial phase in the implementation of a research project. According to Terre Blanche & Durrheim (1999) it is the basic material with which researchers work. To draw valid conclusions from a research study, it is pivotal that the researcher has sound data to analyse and interpret. There are different methods of collecting data in the educational research. Anderson (2003) notes that data may be collected from questionnaires, interviews, observation of direct interaction, and using available records such as case studies and statistical data. In addition, literature reviews and experience surveys can be used to gather available data. Based on the nature of the study, data were collected in two phases:

##### **4.9.1 First phase**

The researcher used a questionnaire to collect data regarding the role of the form teacher in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. All respondents were rural primary school educators. The researcher delivered the questionnaires to the selected schools in the Dududu Ward based on prior arrangements with the principals of the selected schools.

Principals were asked to administer the questionnaires. Principals were given a set of procedural guidelines outlining the manner in which the questionnaires were to be administered. These guidelines incorporated the timing of the session, procedure to follow when errors were made, confidentiality, and the manner in which the questionnaire had to be completed. The principals of various schools monitored the completion of the questionnaires and collected the questionnaires immediately after the completion. The completed questionnaires were then collected from the principals for analysis. A 100% return rate was obtained.

#### **4.9.2 Second phase**

During the second phase of the study, the quasi-experimental pretest-posttest design was used to evaluate the effectiveness of the programme.

The researcher made use of a self-constructed group-administered questionnaire to collect data from the 40 educators in the sample; i.e. the same questionnaire that was used in the pretest, that is, before the implementation of the intervention model, and post-test with both the experimental and comparison schools. According to Descombe, (2007), the group-administered questionnaire is given to groups of respondent's assembled together, such as school children or an invited audience. In this study two schools were purposively selected to the following criteria:

- Status of school: Primary school.
- Population group: Black.
- Demographics of school: Schools must have over 60% orphans.
- Location of school: Rural school in the Dududu Circuit.
- Each of the schools had a staff enrolment of 20 educators.

Both schools were evaluated at the beginning of the study, that is, before implementation of the model (pretest). Thereafter the experimental school was subjected to the intervention model.

Following the intervention, both groups (comparison and experimental) were evaluated again (posttest). This enabled the researcher to measure the effectiveness of the intervention programme, namely, the proposed model that could be used by form teacher to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. The study was also successfully implemented within the allocated timing of the project.

The design enabled the researcher to reach the goal and previously mentioned objectives of the study.

The researcher utilised the quasi-experimental comparison group pretest-posttest design to test the research hypothesis of the study namely:

**If class teachers are trained to use a life-skills, peer counselling and the asset-based approach to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children, then they will be in a better position to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.**

The implementation of this procedure is illustrated in Table 5.

Table 5 Group administered questionnaire used with comparison group pretest-posttest design

<b>Groups</b>	<b>First tests</b>	<b>Intervention</b>	<b>Second tests</b>
Experimental group: Consisting of 20 form teachers	Pretest	Intervention, that is, a proposed model that could be used by form teachers to address the need (by workshop, presentation and delivery of a manual)	Posttest
Comparison group: Consisting of 20 form teachers	Pretest		Posttest

By use of the group administered (self-constructed) questionnaire much time and cost were saved. The use of the school and time slots were negotiated with the principals of the respective schools.

## **4.10. Data analysis techniques**

The collected data were captured in a format which would allow analysis and interpretation. This involved the careful coding of the questionnaires completed by educators. The coded data were subsequently transferred to a computer spreadsheet using the SPSS Version 15 statistics computer programme. Data were converted into frequency tables to analyse the findings by means of descriptive statistics.

### **4.10.1 Descriptive statistics**

Descriptive statistics, according to Neuman (2006) serve to describe and summarise observations. Frequency tables are useful in forming impressions about the distribution of data.

According to Neuman (2006) and Descombe (2007), frequency distribution is a method to organise data obtained from questionnaires to simplify statistical analysis. A frequency table provides the following information: it indicates how many times a particular response appears on the completed questionnaires and it provides percentages that reflect the number of responses to a certain question in relation to the total number of responses.

The researcher used the descriptive statistics method to summarise the data and to interpret the results.

## **4.11. Inferential statistics**

According to David (2001), inferential statistics are used to make inferences or predictions about the similarity of a sample to the population from which the sample is drawn. Dane (1990) and David (2001) summarises inferential statistics as estimates, based on a given sample, of qualities or quantities existing in a larger group of individuals.

According to Descombe (2007), there are two criteria for good hypothesis statements:

- Hypotheses are statements about relations between variables.
- Hypotheses carry clear implications for testing the stated relations.

These criteria mean that hypothesis statements contain two or more variables that are measurable or potentially measurable, and they specify how variables are related. A hypothesis is seen as one of the most powerful tools to achieve dependable knowledge. Even when Y does not co-vary with X, knowledge is advanced. Negative findings are sometimes as important as positive ones, because they encourage further investigation. Kidder and Judd (1986) state that the logic of statistical inference starts with what is called a null hypothesis, a hypothesis that specifies what the researcher hopes is not true in the population.

In analysing the sample data the researcher hoped to conclude that the null hypothesis could be rejected as false. Calculations in inferential statistics are used to make inferences and not used simply to describe the data collected from the sample. Hypotheses were tested in certain sections of the quasi-experimental pretest-posttest design. The Chi-squared and the p-value statistical test of significance were used in the quasi-experimental pretest-posttest design. The mean agreement test of significance was used in the first phase of the survey.

#### **4.12. Conclusion**

This chapter included the research design as well as the research instrument. The questionnaire as the research instrument was dealt with in detail. The pilot study, administration of the questionnaire, and the limitations of the study were also discussed. The data that were collected from learners is analysed and interpreted in the next chapter.

## **CHAPTER 5. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA – SECTION A**

### **5.1. Introduction**

In response to the challenges faced by the class teacher in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children (see Chapters 2 and 3), the researcher crafted an innovative programme to help class teachers to develop the necessary skills that will improve their capacity to address the needs of OVC.

The objective in Section A is to ascertain the views of educators on the role that the class teacher could play in addressing the needs of OVC while the objective in Section B is to assess the outcome of the intervention aimed at assisting class teachers to effectively address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.

The following stages Accordingly, the objectives included the following:

- To ascertain educator perspectives on the role of the class teacher with regard to addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.
- To develop an intervention that could be used by class teachers to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.
- To empirically test the effectiveness of the intervention.
- To suggest practical recommendations for further utilisation of the intervention.

In this chapter, the results of the empirical study are presented according to the quantitative data collected by means of questionnaires (during the first and second phase of the research). The primary aim of this chapter is to present, analyse and interpret the quantitative data in the first phase of the survey (Section A). The following chapter details the findings from the second phase of the survey (Section B).

## **5.2. Section A (quantitative findings – first phase)**

A descriptive design was used in this phase. The descriptive design is appropriate because it enabled the researcher to describe, explore and give insight into the role the class teacher could play in using the asset-based approach to address the needs of OVC, the role of the class teacher in providing a life-skills programme for his/her class, and the role of the class teacher in organising structures to provide moral support for OVC.

This phase deals with the analysis and interpretation of data obtained from educators in the Dududu Circuit of the Ugu Region of KwaZulu-Natal. The data obtained from this research procedure were analysed as follows.

The questionnaire consists of six parts, a biographical section, a general section testing the educator's understanding of the effect of HIV and AIDS on orphans and vulnerable children, a section on possible role players at school involved in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children, a section on the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children, a section on the role of the class teacher as a facilitator of life-skills programmes, and a section on the use of a peer counselling programme for orphans and vulnerable children.

The analysis of the questionnaire data involved the coding of the 120 questionnaires received and subsequently transferring the coded data onto a computer spread sheet. The data were subjected to computerised statistical analysis in order to test statistically the relationships between specific variables outlined below. Statistical differences were determined by means of the Chi-squared test of significance, the p-value and Kendall's Tau (T).

## **5.3. Objective of questionnaire**

The questionnaires were posed to educators to ascertain the general level of agreements with regard to aspects relating to HIV and AIDS; the educator's view regarding the role player at school best positioned to address the needs of OVC; the

educator's view regarding the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of OVC; and the educator's view regarding the role of the class teacher as a facilitator of a life-skills and peer counselling programme.

## **5.4. Analytical techniques and interpretation guidelines**

### **5.4.1 Agreement by educators**

The mean agreement was determined for the various responses elicited from educators. The mean figures given in the tables that follow can be interpreted in the following way.

- Close to 1 – strongly agree – respondents are absolutely certain.
- Away from 1 towards 2 – agree – respondents tend to generally agree.
- Away from 2 towards 3 – mildly agree towards uncertain
- Away from 3 towards 4 – uncertain towards disagree

### **5.4.2 Associations between variables (supportive associations)**

This section deals with the process of determining whether a particular view expressed by the educator could be supported by, or associated with, other views expressed by the same educator elsewhere in the questionnaire. The Kendall's Tau (T) test and the p-value were used as benchmarks to determine the extent of the association. Generally, a higher Kendall's Tau (T) value is associated with a lower p-value. A p-value greater than 0.1 suggests that there is no association between the two views, whilst a p-value lesser than 0.1 is suggestive of an association (Johnson & Dean, 2007).

Schools in the Dududu area lack basic infrastructure and do not in all cases have the required number of teachers

#### 5.4.2.1 *Biographical data*

The biographical information in the questionnaire included gender, qualifications and age groups. Gender and Age groups are shown in Tables 6 and 7 respectively.

- Gender

Table 6 Frequency and distribution according to gender

<b>Gender</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Male	25	30
Female	75	90
Total	100	120

Primary school educators in the Dududu circuit were predominantly females, hence the 75% (females) and 25% (males) proportion in this sample.

- Age group of respondents

**Table 7 Frequency and distribution according to age group (completed years)**

<b>Age group</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Under 40 years	34	41
41 years to 45 years	29	35
Over 45 years	37	44
Total	100	120

Table 7 indicates that most of the respondents (34% and 37%) belong to the under 40 age group and over 45 age group.

- Qualifications

All educators were appropriately qualified and hold a professional qualification

### **5.5. Responses of educators with regard to their general understanding of HIV/AIDS and the orphan phenomenon in South Africa**

These questions were posed to educators in order to obtain an overview of the educators' understanding of HIV/AIDS and the orphan phenomena in South Africa. The questions and their respective codes appear as follows.

Table 8 shows the code, question and mean agreements in respect of the responses provided by educators.

Table 8 Mean agreements in general questions

<b>Code</b>	<b>Question</b>	<b>Mean agreements</b>
g 1	HIV/AIDS threatens the lives of many South African children	1.38
g2	HIV/AIDS is the primary cause of the high incidence of orphans and vulnerable children	1.50
g3	Orphans generally drop-out of school at an early age	1.97
g 4	Orphans experience great difficulty in paying school fees and purchasing material required at school	1.49
g 5	Orphans have many household chores	1.77
g 6	Orphans do not have enough time to complete their homework at home	1.90
g 7	Orphans generally experience severe economic hardships	1.57

g 8	Orphans do not get the love and care as one would expect from a parent	1.72
g 9	The performance of orphans at school is poor	2.39
g 10	Late coming and high absenteeism is prevalent among orphans	2.16
g 11	Orphans require additional care in the form of psychological counselling, food and fellowshipping	1.52
g 12	Orphans are subject to abuse	1.97
g 13	Orphans display behavioural problems at school	2.23

Note: 1. g1 – 2.1.1, g2 – 2.1.2 etc. 2. Mean agreements in Likert scale questions

### **5.5.1 Interpretation of results**

There were no statements on which educators had expressed strong agreement. This is a clear indication that educators in the Dududu Circuit are not too familiar with the impact of HIV/AIDS on orphans and the orphan phenomenon in South Africa. Educators expressed agreement on 77% (10 statements) of the statements in this category.

It is interesting to note that educators had generally agreed on the following: HIV/AIDS threatens the lives of many South African children, HIV/AIDS is the primary cause of the high incidence of orphans and vulnerable children, orphans generally drop-out of school at an early age and that orphans experience great difficulty in paying school fees and purchasing materials required at school. Educators also agreed that: orphans have many household chores, orphans do not have enough time to complete their homework and orphans generally experience severe economic hardships. They were in agreement that orphans do not get the love and care as one would expect from a parent, that orphans require additional care in the form of psychological counselling food and fellowshipping and that , and orphans are subject to abuse.

These findings clearly indicate that educators are aware of the plight of OVC and are in

line with literature on the plight of OVC (Boller & Carroll, 2003; Giese, *et al.*, 2003; Clarke, 2008; IIEP, 2007; Chisholm, 2005). This finding is significant in many ways: the finding strengthens the knowledge base relating to challenges faced by orphans and provides a clear understanding on how these challenges impact on the OVC's demand for education. Whilst this finding clearly indicates the perceptions which educators have about orphans and vulnerable children, what needs to be tested is the extent to which educators respond to the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.

An understanding of the manner in which educators perceive the plight of OVC is essential when:

- Preparing content material for programmes intended for educators on orphan care and support.
- Strategising intervention strategies that could be used by class teachers for OVC care and support.
- The extent to which class teachers require in-service training on OVC care and management.
- Evaluating whether class teachers are supportive of orphans and vulnerable children.

Educators had mildly agreed on 23% (3 statements) of the statements. The three cases where the mean figures were between 2 and 3 are the following:

#### 5.5.1.1 *The performance of orphans at school was poor*

Whilst research (Clarke, 2008; Giese *et al.*, 2003; Riet *et al.*, 2006) has shown that the performance of orphans is not as good as non-orphans, educators in the Dududu Circuit tend to mildly agree with this statement. Educators were asked the following question in the open-ended section of the questionnaire: 'Briefly explain how you would deal with an orphan who does not have time to complete his/her homework at home'.

Nearly all educators (95%) indicated that time was made available during school hours to contain this problem. Most schools in the Dududu Circuit are adopting this approach; hence it would appear that there is no difference between the performance levels of orphans and that of non-orphans in the Dududu Circuit. It would appear that the views given by educators were within the context of local circumstances and not from that of a national or global position.

#### 5.5.1.2 *Late coming and high absenteeism is prevalent among orphans*

Whilst research (Cohen, 2002; Boller & Carroll, 2003) has shown that late coming to school and high absenteeism is prevalent among orphans, educators in the Dududu Circuit tend to mildly agree with this statement. The views of educators that absenteeism and late coming is not a major problem among orphans coincides with earlier research which suggests that high absenteeism and school delays is more prevalent in secondary schools than in primary schools (Chisholm, 2005; Pendlebury *et al.*, 2008).

#### 5.5.1.3 *Orphans display behavioural problems at school*

Contrary to the findings of Riet *et al.* (2006), educators in the Dududu Circuit have mildly agreed (66%) to this statement or are uncertain (34%) about this statement. It would appear that the behaviour patterns of orphans are no different from that of non-orphans in the Dududu Circuit. A study by Emler (2001) showed that due to negative social forces such as stigmatisation, discrimination and peer pressure, adolescent orphans and vulnerable children at secondary schools tend to be aggressive rather than assertive.

### **5.6. Responses of educators with regard to the their view on the role players at school best positioned to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children**

These questions were posed to educators in order to obtain an overview of the educators' views regarding the role players at school involved in addressing the needs

of orphans and vulnerable children.

The statements relating to responses of educators with regard to their view on the role players at school best positioned to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children, their respective codes and mean agreements appear in Table 9.

Table 9 Mean agreements on the views of educators regarding the role players at school involved in addressing the needs of OVC.

Code	Statement	Mean agreements
r1	The principal of the school is best suited to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children	2.76
r2	The life orientation educator is best positioned to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children	2.31
r3	The class teacher is best positioned to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children	1.86

Note: r1 – 2.2.1, r2 – 2.2.2, r3 – 2.2.3

### **5.6.1 Interpretation of results**

Educators were more inclined to be uncertain as to whether the principal of the school was best positioned to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. However, educators have mildly agreed to the Life Orientation educator as the person best positioned to address the needs of OVC. It is interesting to note that educators generally agreed that the class teacher is best positioned to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. This view emanates from the perspective that educators have regarding the role of the class teacher in the classroom. This view is significant to this thesis in that it strengthens the rationale for an intervention that could be used by class teacher in addressing the needs of OVC.

The Kendall's Tau test was used to test the strength of association between the view that the principal or the Life Orientation teacher is best positioned to address the needs of OVC and other views relating to training, work load, time, class size and resources. The objective of the underlying test is to determine whether the view expressed by the class teacher that the Principal or the Life Orientation teacher is best positioned to address the needs of OVC is contingent on the challenges faced by the class teacher. All the p-values are greater than 0.1, suggesting that there is no supportive association of the view that the principal or the Life Orientation teacher is best positioned to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children, and this finding strengthens the view that the class teacher is best positioned to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.

Being an educator for almost 29 years, the researcher believes that the class teacher is best positioned to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children for the following reasons: the class teacher is in daily contact with his/her learners; by marking the register on a daily basis the class teacher is able to identify absenteeism, late-coming and drop-out of OVC; and by keeping a profile of OVC the class teacher is able to identify learners who have special needs.

Furthermore, the Kendall's Tau test was used to test the association between the view that the class teacher is best positioned to address the needs of OVC and views such as the class teacher's understanding of the OVC performance, the psychological framework of the OVC, general understanding of learners, knowing the attendance pattern and drop-out rate of OVC, detection of signs of depression, identification of orphans and keeping a record of the of the OVC profile.

In each of the cases, the p-value was less than 0.1 which suggests that the view expressed by the educator that the class teacher is best positioned to address the needs of OVC is strongly associated with, or supported by, the corresponding views mentioned above (Johnson & Dean, 2007). These findings strengthen the validity of the outcome that the class teacher is best positioned to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. These findings also strengthen the rationale for tailoring programmes that could be used by the class teacher to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. These findings also eliminate degrees of superficiality

regarding the educator's view on the statement that the class teacher is best positioned to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.

It is interesting to note that the agreement by educators that the class teacher is best positioned to address the needs of OVC is in line with a recommendation made by Smart, Heard and Kelly (IIEP, 2007) that the class teacher is the beacon of hope for OVC and that OVC policies programmes and interventions should be directed at the class teacher rather than the school or other stakeholders. The class teacher replaces the parent, and in terms of the attachment theory, orphans who have lost their parents tend to attach themselves to elders, especially the class teacher (Glasser, 1985). Furthermore, Education International (2007) recognises the in loco parentis duty role of the class teacher.

### **5.7. Response of the educator with regard to the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children**

These questions were posed to educators in order to obtain an overview of the educator's views regarding the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. The statements relating to responses of the educator regarding this, their respective codes and mean agreements appear in Table 10.

Table 10 Mean agreements on the views of the educator regarding the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of OVC

<b>Code</b>	<b>Statements</b>	<b>Mean agreements</b>
f1	Class teachers are not properly trained to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children	2.26
f2	The work load of class teachers prevents them from doing their best for orphans and vulnerable children	1.88
f3	The class teacher does not have enough time to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children	1.98
f4	The class teacher is saddled with huge class sizes	1.74
f5	Educators feel that the extra work they do is not duly acknowledged	1.97
f6	Limited resources inhibit the class teacher's enthusiasm in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.	1.95
f7	The class teacher has the best understanding of the overall academic performance of orphans and vulnerable children in his/her class	1.67
f8	The class teacher has the best understanding of the psychological make-up orphans and vulnerable children	2.30
f9	The class teacher has the best understanding of the learners in his/her class	1.75
f10	The class teacher has the best understanding of the attendance patterns of orphans and vulnerable children.	1.58
f11	The class teacher has the best understanding of the drop-out rate of orphans and vulnerable children	2.02
f12	The class teacher can easily detect signs of depression in learners	2.21

f13	The class teacher is best positioned to identify those learners who are orphans	1.89
f14	The class teacher is best positioned to keep a detailed record of each child's personal circumstances	1.83
f15	If time is made available to class teachers to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children, the class teacher would ensure that the needs of orphans and vulnerable children are met	1.62
f16	The class teacher should take the initiative in interacting with other role players at school in assisting orphans and vulnerable children	2.01
f17	The class teacher should interact with institutions and organisations in the community to provide support and care for orphans and vulnerable children	2.19
f18	The class teacher has the best understanding of the orphan's economic circumstances	2.23
f19	The class teacher should ensure that all orphans and vulnerable children in his/her class are familiar with the regulations regarding school fees and the school fee exemption policy	1.89
f20	The form teacher should ensure that all orphans and vulnerable children in his/her form class are well nourished	2.18
f21	The class teacher must ensure that all orphans and vulnerable children in his/her form class have received the relevant textbooks and stationery	1.74
f22	The class teacher should liaise with the parent/guardian of the orphan with regard to absenteeism, late coming etc.	1.66
f23	The class teacher should ask the principal of the school to create structures to assist in providing for the needs of OVC	1.78
f24	The class teacher should ask the School Governing Body to create structures to assist in providing for the needs of OVC	2.23

f25	The class teacher should liaise with churches to provide OVC with food clothing, school fees and other basic necessities	2.43
f26	The class teacher should liaise with businesses to provide OVC with food, clothing, school fees and other basic necessities	2.54
f27	The class teacher should liaise with the learner population to form associations to provide OVC with food, clothing, school fees and other basic necessities	2.53
f28	The class teacher should liaise with community-based organisations to provide OVC with food, clothing, school fees and other basic necessities	2.42
f29	The class teacher should network with other schools to provide assistance to OVC	2.50
f30	The class teacher should be involved in the holistic development of orphans and vulnerable children	2.00

Note: f1 – 2.3.1; f2 –2.3.2 etc

### **5.7.1 Interpretation and discussion of results**

Educators agreed on 50% of the statements (statements where the p-value were less than 2) and mildly agreed or were uncertain on 50% of the statements where the p-value was more than 2). There were no statements upon which the mean agreement (namely, a mean agreement close to 1) is suggestive of a strong agreement. There were no statements upon which the mean agreement (namely, a mean agreement of 3 towards 4) is suggestive of a disagreement.

The statements relating to the views of the educator regarding the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of OVC were analysed according to the following categories: administrative duties of the educator and workload of the educator; provision of support services for OVC; training with regard to OVC care and support, and the knowledge base of class teacher with regard to OVC.

### 5.7.1.1 *Administrative duties of the educator and workload of the educator*

Educators generally agreed (70%) that the workload of the class teacher prevents them from doing their best for orphans and vulnerable children. This finding coincides with a study by Chisholm *et al.* (2005) that shows that quality time which educators could spend on pastoral care and guidance and counselling is eroded by time directed at the fulfilment of administrative duties.

Educators agreed that they required time (78%) to attend to the duty-bearer role of addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. Statements upon which educators expressed a general agreement include statements that relate to the routine duties such as keeping of learner profiles; however, educators also agreed that the workload of educators prevents them from engaging in support services for OVC and that educators do not have enough time to address the needs of OVC.

Educators also agree (96%) that they are saddled with huge class sizes. This finding is significant to this study because it clearly shows that educators are not apathetic towards key administrative duties that they have to perform in respect of OVC management. The study has also shown that educators were in general agreement that if time was made available to them, they would engage in support services for OVC. One could therefore argue that non-availability of time and workload of educators are the main factors which prevent educators from rendering support services to OVC. While the ELRC (2007) has shown in a general way the extent to which educators are saddled with administrative duties, the finding in this study provide a clear perspective relating to the reasons why educators spend so little time on OVC care and support.

An understanding of educator perspectives on availability of time, educator workload and the performance of key administrative duties with regard to OVC management is essential when:

- Organising the school time table to accommodate the provision of care and support for OVC.

- Preparing content material for programmes intended for educators on orphan care and support.

#### 5.7.1.2 *Formulating realistic policies and procedures to guide the class in performing duties relating to OVC care and support*

These routine procedures are laid out in the Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998. These include: the marking of the register, collection of school fees, issuing of textbooks, compiling a comprehensive profile of learners, compiling a comprehensive analysis of learner's performance and reporting on learner's performance. It is therefore necessary to adapt and tailor some of the guidelines contained in the Employment of Educators Act to serve the needs of OVC.

#### 5.7.1.3 *Knowledge base of the class teacher with regard to OVC*

It is interesting to note that whilst educators had agreed (97%) that the class teacher has the best understanding of learners in his/her class and of the overall academic performance of OVC, educators had mildly agreed (76%) that the class teacher has the best understanding of the psychological make-up of OVC, the economic circumstances of OVC, and the ability to identify signs of depression in OVC.

This finding clearly indicates that the knowledge base of educators with regard to OVC is limited to the confines of the classroom. It could be argued that if time was made available for class teachers to interact with OVC and if it was mandatory for the class teacher to equip himself/herself with information relating to OVC, educators would have expressed a stronger view relating to their knowledge of OVC.

#### 5.7.1.4 *Training of educators*

Educators had mildly agreed (53%) to the statement that the class teacher was not adequately trained to meet the needs of OVC. The Kendall's Tau test was used to test whether there were any associations between the statement that educators were not adequately trained to address the needs of OVC with other views such as liaising with

parents/guardians on absenteeism of OVC; asking the principal to create structures, requesting assistance from the SGB, churches, businesses, learners community organizations; and networking with other schools. It is also interesting to note that there is a strong association between the educator's view that the Principal of the school should create structures to address the needs of OVC and the view relating to inadequate training of educators. It could be argued that owing to inadequate training educators feel that the Principal should assist in creating structures that could assist both educators and OVC.

The Kendall's Tau test also showed that although educators felt that they were not adequately trained to address the needs of OVC, educators were inclined to harness support from other sources. This finding is critical to this study in that it provides direction regarding the extent of motivation required when presenting programmes that could be used by class teachers to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.

The International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) (2007) and Clarke (2008) strongly recommend continuous in-service training (INSET) and pre-service training (PRESET) in the fields of HIV/AIDS and orphan care. One could assume that by implementing the NCS on life orientation and life-skills, educators could presuppose that they have been trained in HIV/AIDS education and OVC care and support; however, Bhana *et al.* (2005) and Visser (2005) have asserted that the teaching of Life Orientation had not produced the desired outcomes. According to Clarke (2008), educators need to be sensitised to specifics relating to OVC care and support, and in this regard the IIEP has developed specific guidelines relating to OVC management, care and support.

#### *5.7.1.5 Provision of support services to orphans and vulnerable children*

The findings show that educators did not strongly agree about the provision of support services for OVC. Educators were not in full agreement regarding the following statements: the class teacher should ask the SGB to create structures to assist in providing for the needs of OVC; and that the class teacher should liaise with churches, the business world, CBOs, the learner population and interact with other schools to

provide assistance with OVC care and support.

Whilst there have been recorded instances of educators who have taken the initiative to assist orphans and vulnerable children (Giese *et al.*, 2003; Riet *et al.*, 2006) it is quite disconcerting to note that educators in this study had not totally agreed about the provision of support services to orphans and vulnerable children. Clarke (2008), IIEP (2007) and The World Bank (2005) have strongly recommended that schools, in collaboration with educators, strategise programmes to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children, and in this regard further research is needed to motivate educators in taking the initiative to assist orphans and vulnerable children.

The challenges faced by educators (as highlighted by Giese *et al.*, 2003) could have negatively influenced the educator's view regarding the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of OVC. These challenges include, inter alia, lack of resources at school, lack of adequate training, a high educator-learner ratio, lack of time, apathy among educators, heavy workload volume and inadequate support services (Foster, 2002; Riet *et al.*, 2006; Giese *et al.*, 2003). The views of educators regarding lack of resources at school, lack of adequate training, a high educator-learner ratio, lack of time, apathy among educators, heavy workload volume and inadequate support services strengthens earlier research work (Foster 2002; Riet *et al.*, 2006; Giese *et al.*, 2003) done on the challenges faced by educators.

An understanding of educator perspectives on taking the initiative to engage with internal and external resources for assistance with regard to the care and support of OVC is essential when organising an asset-based intervention programme for OVC and preparing a data base of potential internal and external resources that could assist in the care and management of OVC.

## 5.8. Responses by educators regarding the role of the class teacher as a facilitator of a life skills programme for orphans and vulnerable children under the management of the class teacher

These questions were posed to educators in order to obtain an overview of the educators' views regarding the role of the class teacher as a facilitator of a life-skills programme for orphans and vulnerable children under the management of the class teacher.

### 5.8.1 Interpretation of results

The statements relating to responses by educators their respective codes and mean agreements appear in Table 11.

Table 11 Mean agreements on the views of educators regarding the role of the class teacher as a facilitator of a life-skills programmes for OVC under the management of the class teacher.

Code	Statement	Mean Agreement
ff1	It is not the duty of the class teacher to impart life-skills to orphans and vulnerable children in his/her form class	3.70
ff2	Class teachers are not adequately trained in administering life-skills programmes for OVCs in his/her class	2.31
ff3	Life-skills programmes conducted by class teachers for orphans and vulnerable children will work if additional time during normal school hours is made available to form teachers.	2.01
ff4	The best time for the class teacher to administer life-skills programmes for orphans and vulnerable children is in the morning immediately after registration.	2.56

ff5	The class teacher should at some time or the other make the effort to impart life-skills to orphans and vulnerable children in his/her class.	1.98
ff6	Life-skills programmes conducted by class teachers for orphans and vulnerable children will work if a comprehensive life-skills manual (which will not entail additional preparation work by the form teacher) is made available to class teachers	1.92
ff7	As a facilitator of life-skills programmes for OVCs in his/her class, the class teacher should seek assistance from the life-skills and/or Life Orientation educator.	1.93
ff8	The Principal, Deputy Principal or Head of Department should request support services from Life Orientation and/or Life-skills subject advisors for class teachers.	1.74
ff9	In facilitating life-skills programmes for OVCs in his/her class, the class teacher will obtain a better understanding of the needs of OVCs in his/her class.	1.82
ff10	The class teacher should facilitate peer-support groups in his/her class.	1.85

Note: ff1 – 2.4.1, ff2 – 2.4.2 etc.

There were no statements upon which the mean agreement (namely, a mean agreement close to 1) is suggestive of a strong agreement. It could be deduced that educators would have expressed a strong agreement on the implementation of a life-skills programme for OVC if they were subjected to, or given, appropriate exposure to such a programme.

Educators agreed on 60% of the statements relating to the role of the class teacher as a facilitator of a life-skills programme for learners under the management of the class teacher (where the p-value was between 1 and 2) It is interesting to note that educators generally agreed that the class teacher is best positioned to implement a life-skills programme for orphans and vulnerable children under the management of the class teacher.

This view emanates from the perspective that class teachers are generally involved in imparting some sort of life-skills to learners in their classes. This view is significant to this thesis in that it strengthens the rationale for developing a model that could be used by class teachers in imparting life-skills to OVC.

Educators expressed their disagreement on the statement 'It is not the duty of the class teacher to impart life-skills to orphans and vulnerable children in his/her form class'. This view by educators clearly demonstrates that educators are mindful of the dynamic role of the class teacher and that the class teacher is pivotal in imparting life-skills to OVC. Educators mildly agreed, or were uncertain, regarding the following three statements:

*5.8.1.1 Class teachers are not adequately trained in administering life-skills programmes for OVC in his/her class*

The uncertainty and mild agreements regarding the level of training indicates that educators are mindful that educators do have some sort life-skills training that could be adapted for OVC in their classes. The Department of Education had also failed in providing class teachers with guidelines relating to life-skills programmes that could be used by class teachers for OVC in their form class (Giese *et al.*, 2003).

The Department of Education had also failed in mandating class teachers to undertake such programmes (Giese *et al.*, 2003). The researcher believes that educators would have expressed a stronger view if it were known to them that all class teachers had to undergo training in order to facilitate a life-skills programme for OVC in their class. Training of class teachers in life-skills that are specific to OVC has to take place on a continuous basis (Senderowitz and Kirby (2006).

Although the National Curriculum Statement provides for life orientation to be taught to all learners from Grade 4 to Grade 12 and for life-skills to be taught up to Grade 3, there are no specific life-skills guidelines for OVC. Being mindful of studies by Bhana *et al.* (2005) and Visser (2005) which report that the teaching of life-skills and life orientation is done only to the extent of meeting the curriculum needs in terms of outcomes and assessment standards, it is imperative that a life-skills programme for

OVC be specifically developed and workshopped among educators.

Teachers play a critical role and are the main role models other than family members with whom learners interact on a daily basis. Teachers play the role of gatekeepers and in this regard, they act as a source of accurate information; imparting knowledge and skills to young people (IIEP, 2007). Therefore the class teacher should receive the kind of preparation, training and support which will form the key component of successful, class teacher-based life-skills programmes for OVC (IIEP, 2007). Because the class teacher is best positioned to identify the various challenges faced by OVC, the class teacher is best positioned to deliver specific life-skills for OVC in his/her class.

In view of the fact that the Department of Education has not provided teachers with adequate life-skills training for OVC, teacher training supported by NGOs, FBOs, CBOs and various other stakeholders is most welcomed, and the ultimate goal is to improve skills, knowledge, attitudes and values. Withholding knowledge from learners that could protect them from the negative forces of society does not work (UNICEF, 1999). Effective class teacher-based training has a profound impact on educators; especially with regards to examining their own attitudes toward sexuality and behaviours relating to orphans and vulnerable children.

*5.8.1.2 Life-skills programmes conducted by class teachers for orphans and vulnerable children will work if additional time during normal school hours is made available to class teachers*

The mean for this statement is 2.01, and it would appear that educators were more inclined to agree with this statement. This means that educators are mindful of the workload that they carry and recognise the need for additional time to implement the life-skills programme for OVC.

A Kendall's Tau (T) of 7.821 with p-value = 0.000 shows strong agreement that educators realise that a life-skills programme for orphans and vulnerable children will work if they are provided with a manual and are allotted additional time during school hours to facilitate such a programme. This finding is significant to this study in that it demonstrates that the Department of Education should seriously consider developing a

manual that will empower class teachers to implement a life-skills programme for OVC (Clarke, 2008; Senderowitz & Kirby, 2006). This finding is also relevant to this study in that it provides direction regarding the management of the life-skills programme; a key factor is that of synchronising the programme with the timetable of the school. This will require consultation with the management of the school to create additional time during school hours for the purpose of implementing the life-skills programme.

One would expect the school principal, together with his management team, to reorganise the timetable of the school to provide the class teacher with adequate time to implement the life-skills programme. In this regard the South African Department of Education is urged to follow the example of the Ugandan Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development (2004) which has laid clear directives for schools to provide time for the implementation of programmes related to the provision of support services for orphans and vulnerable children.

*5.8.1.3 The best time for the class teacher to administer life-skills programmes for orphans and vulnerable children is in the morning immediately after registration*

Educators were uncertain because the respective life-skills programme was not slotted into the timetable of the school nor was it explored at school level. The findings in the quasi-experimental pretest-posttest survey revealed that about 60% of the educators opted to use the mornings to facilitate the respective life-skills programme, which is indicative that the morning session after registration is an appropriate time to conduct the life-skills programme.

## **5.9. Responses of educators regarding the role of the class teacher as a facilitator of a model aimed at providing peer counselling services (moral support) for orphans and vulnerable children**

These questions were posed to educators in order to obtain an overview of the educator's views regarding the role of the class teacher as a facilitator of a model aimed at providing peer counselling services for orphans and vulnerable children. The statements their respective codes and mean agreements appear in Table 12.

Table 12 Mean agreements on the views of educators regarding the role of the class as a facilitator of a peer counselling services (moral support) for orphans and vulnerable children

<b>Code</b>	<b>Statement</b>	<b>Mean agreements</b>
a1	Schools should invite support groups (such as the Alateen) to offer moral support services to OVC.	1.57
a2	OVCs relate more openly to their peers than to educators	1.76
a3	OVCs learn coping strategies more effectively from those who experience similar problems than from educators.	1.71
a4	Peer counselling services will enable OVC to free themselves from abusive situations and to take control over their lives.	1.79
a5	Peer counselling services will enable OVCs to gain emotional maturity.	1.76
a6	OVCs will realise that there is hope for them in the form of love, care and support.	1.61

Note: a1 – 2.5.1, a2 – 2.5.2 etc.

It is interesting to note that educators were in agreement with all statements regarding the use of peer counselling. Educators were in agreement that peer counselling could be used to provide moral support to orphans and vulnerable children. No literature for a programme that could be used by class teachers to render moral support to OVC could be found, but it did reveal the Alateen programme which is used to provide moral support for teenagers who have parents who abuse alcohol (Alcoholics Anonymous, 1976).

Because orphans and vulnerable children undergo similar problems faced by children whose parent/s are alcoholics, the Alateen programme, together with certain essentials of Ivey's Model (as cited in Varenhorst, 1984) and Danish and Hauer's Helping Skills

Model (as cited in Varenhorst, 1984) could easily be adapted for OVC. The researcher advocates the following steps to assist the class teacher in facilitating a peer support programme: Use of motivational techniques to encourage the formation of peer counselling groups (the class teacher could incorporate non-orphans as well); provision of training; scheduling counselling sessions; provision of a venue for peer counselling sessions; providing peer counsellors with a data base of professional counsellors in the area; and providing peer counsellors with a referral book in which to record critical cases and areas of concern.

## **CHAPTER 6. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA – SECTION B**

### **6.1. Quasi-experimental pretest-posttest survey (quantitative findings)**

The researcher utilised the quasi-experimental comparison group pretest-posttest design to test the research hypothesis of the study namely:

**If class teachers undergo a training programme to effectively address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children, then their skills will be enhanced in order to effectively address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.**

The researcher used a self-constructed group-administered questionnaire to collect data from the 40 educators in the sample for this study. The same questionnaire was used in the pretest, that is, before implementation of the intervention model, and the posttest with both the experimental and comparison schools.

### **6.2. Implementation of procedure**

The implementation of this procedure is illustrated in Table 13.

Table 13 Group administered questionnaire used with comparison group pretest-posttest design

<b>Groups</b>	<b>First tests</b>	<b>Intervention</b>	<b>Second tests</b>
Experimental group: Consisting of 20 form teachers	Pretest	Intervention, that is, a proposed model that could be used by class teachers to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children – workshop power point presentation and delivery of manuals.	Posttest
Comparison group: Consisting of 20 form teachers	Pretest	No intervention	Posttest

By use of the group administered (self-constructed) questionnaire much time and cost were saved. The use of the school and time slots were negotiated with the principals of the respective schools.

The questions in this section were analysed as follows:

### **6.3. External and internal assets**

Pre/posttest analysis of responses to questions on making contacts to respective external assets and enlisting aid from internal resources:

Table 14 Making contacts with external and internal assets

Making contact with external assets (CBO, NGO, FBO and health organisations)		c2		Total
		no	yes	no
School	comparison	14	6	20
	experimental	7	13	20
<b>Total</b>		<b>21</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>40</b>
Enlisting aid of school management team and School Governing Body		smt1		Total
		no	yes	no
School	comparison	13	7	20
	experimental	7	13	20
<b>Total</b>		<b>20</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>40</b>
Aid of learner group and life orientation educator		lg1		Total
		no	yes	no
School	comparison	15	5	20
	experimental	7	13	20
<b>Total</b>		<b>22</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>40</b>

With regard to making contact with external assets, enlisting aid internal assets and enlisting the assistance from the life orientation educator, the proportion is higher at experimental than comparison schools. The respective Chi-square and p-value were 4.193, 0.041; 2.968, 0.085 and 5.665, 0.017. All the respondents indicated that they do not have a guidance counsellor.

### **6.3.1 Interpretation and discussion of results**

A posttest YES is recorded in the tables if the educator had made contact with the external resource or had enlisted the aid of resources within the school in the pretest survey as well as in the posttest survey, or where the educator's NO response in the pretest survey changed to YES in the posttest survey. In almost all cases a YES was recorded due to a change from pretest to posttest. A posttest NO was recorded in those cases where educators had not made contact or enlisted the aid of resources within the school in either the pretest or the posttest.

The Chi-squared and p-value was used to determine the extent of the change. A high Chi-squared value is associated with a low p-value. A significance level of 0.1 was used. A value greater than 0.1 suggests that there was no change in the responses from the pretest to the posttest. A value less than 0.1 suggests that there was a change with regard to the educator's responses (Johnson & Dean, 2007).

In all instances relating to making contacts with external assets as well as enlisting aid from internal assets (Table 14), the p-values were below 0.1 and accordingly suggest that that change did take place. This finding is indicative of a positive outcome of the intervention strategy. Identification and contacting external assets as well as internal assets is the most important component of the asset-mapping stage of the asset-based approach (Eloff, 2003; Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993). This finding confirms that training is of paramount importance for the effective administration of an OVC programme and that the intervention was successful.

### **6.4. Pretest/posttest YES follow-up questions relating to external and internal assets (educators who had made contact/enlisted aid)**

Following from the question on whether the educator had contacted the respective external asset (CBO, FBO, NGO or HBO) educators were then required to respond to a series of questions. The follow-up questions in response to a YES response were different from the follow-up questions in response to a NO response.

The follow-up questions were aimed at obtaining a desired outcome. A statistical analysis was done for each set of follow-up questions. The data relating only to the experimental school were analysed. The extent of the paradigm shift relating to the comparison school was fairly insignificant and therefore did not warrant such analysis.

**6.4.1 Whether it was easy to make contacts with the external organisation and whether the educator had enlisted the aid of internal resources**

Table 15 Was it easy for you to contact this organisation?

	CBO		FBO		NGO		FBO		TOTAL	
	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
PRETEST	4	0	4	0	3	0	3	0	14	0
POSTTEST	16	0	16	0	13	4	16	1	61	5

Table 16 Did you enlist the aid of the internal resources at your school?

	SMT		SGB		Learner Group		Life Orientation Educator		TOTAL	
	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
PRE TEST	4	0	3	0	1	0	2	0	10	0
POST TEST	17	0	17	0	17	0	17	0	68	0

**6.4.2 Interpretation and discussion of results**

Care and protection of orphans and vulnerable children is only possible once the class

teacher becomes involved and committed to actively look for ways and resources that

can be used to cope with the challenge on hand. In this regard the outcome of this test is significant. Compared with a total of 14 YES responses to making contact with external resources in the pretest, the posttest yielded a total of 64 YES responses (Table 15).

In Table 16, 10 YES responses in the pretest changed to 68 YES responses in the posttest. This outcome implies insight by the class teacher into the capacities, assets and abilities of all stakeholders involved in the care and protection of OVC. Stakeholders, according to the researcher, refer to the school (internal asset) and concerned individuals NGOs, CBOs and FBOs (external assets). The increase in the YES responses to making contacts and enlisting aid could be attributed to the following: the workshop, presentation and provision of the manual (the intervention, stage had motivated educators to make contacts with external assets and enlist aid from internal assets), and educators had learnt the process of asset mapping and the strategies that could be employed in contacting and enlisting aid from external and internal assets (Eloff, 2003; Kretzmann & McKnight, 1993).

## 6.5. Mode of contact – external assets

Table 17 How did you contact this body?

		Telephone	E-mail	Letter	Personal visit	Through a friend
CBO	PRE	1	--	0	3	--
	POST	11	--	1	5	--
FBO	PRE	0	--	--	4	--
	POST	5	--	--	13	--
NGO	PRE	1	--	--	2	0
	POST	10	--	--	5	3
HBO	PRE	0	--	--	3	--
	POST	7	--	--	11	--
TOTAL	PRE	2	--	0	12	0
	POST	33	--	1	34	3

### 6.5.1 Interpretation and discussion of results

The area in which the experimental school is situated does not have its own postal service and the experimental school does not have a telephone. Such scenarios are prevalent in rural settings (Donahue & Williamson, 1998). Table 17 shows that personal visits and the telephone were the most common means of contact (34 personal visits and 33 telephonic contacts). Only one educator had sent a letter to a community-based organisation and none of the educators used e-mail. It is assumed that educators had used their personal phones or cellular phones to contact external organisations. Table 17 shows a significant increase in the number of contacts made in the posttest phase (a total of 71 contacts in the posttest phase compared with 14 contacts in the pretest phase). Despite the infrastructural challenges facing rural schools, educators had shown the initiative in going beyond the call of duty to make

contacts with external organisations. It is therefore apparent that the intervention had sufficiently motivated educators to seek external assistance in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.

## **6.6. Response to the question: What type of assistance was this body/role player willing to render to OVCs at your school?**

### **6.6.1 External assets**

Table 18 What type of assistance was this body (external assets) willing to render to OVC at your school?

		<b>Food</b>	<b>Clothing</b>	<b>Shelter</b>	<b>Educational</b>	<b>Psychological</b>	<b>Medical</b>
CBO	PRE	4	3	1	0	0	1
	POST	16	12	5	0	0	0
FBO	PRE	4	4	2	0	3	1
	POST	17	16	9	0	0	1
NGO	PRE	3	2	0	0	0	0
	POST	16	12	5	0	0	0
HBO	PRE	1	1	-0	0	0	3
	POST	9	3	0	0	5	17
TOTAL	PRE	12	10	3	0	3	5
	POST	58	43	19	0	5	18

### 6.6.2 Internal assets

Table 19 What type of assistance was this role player (internal assets) willing to render to OVC at your school?

		Food	Clothing	Shelter	Educational	Psychological	Medical	Financial
SMT	PRE	1	1	0	4	2	1	1
	POST	7	3	0	21	6	2	9
SGB	PRE	2	2	1	2	0	1	1
	POST	17	11	0	9	1	1	7
LEARNER GROUP	PRE	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
	POST	1	8	0	14	5	0	0
LIFE ORIENTATION EDUCATOR	PRE	0	0	0	2	2	0	0
	POST	0	0	0	16	7	0	0
TOTAL	PRE	3	3	1	8	5	2	2
	POST	25	22	0	60	19	3	16

### **6.6.3 Interpretation and discussion of results**

There were 58 responses to the provision of food by external organisations whilst there were only 25 responses to the provision of food by role players in the school. There were 43 responses to the provision of clothing by external organisations whilst there were 22 responses by role players in the school. There were only 19 responses to the provision of shelter by external organisations and no responses by role players in the school.

From the above it is clear that external organisations (and not so much the internal role players at school) were keen in providing basic commodities to assist orphans and vulnerable children. Internal role players at school were willing to render educational support (60 responses) compared to 0 responses from the external organisations. There were only 18 responses to the provision of medical assistance by external organisations and only 3 responses from internal role players. Of the 18 responses, 17 responses came from health-related bodies. The SMT (9 responses) and SGB (7 responses) were the only role players who were willing to provide financial assistance to orphans and vulnerable children.

Family and community connections with schools continue to play a major role in enhancing the academic performance of learners as well as the general attitude of learners. In this regard, family and community connections with schools have shown evidence of an effect on student academic achievement (Jordan, Orozco & Averett, 2001) and more specifically, studies by Shaver and Walls (1998) and Chavkin, *et al.* (2000) have found specific positive impacts on reading and mathematics, whilst studies by Bloome *et al.* (2000) and Epstein, Simon and Salinas (1997) have found effects on other subjects, such as language arts, literacy, art, science, and social studies. Research has demonstrated that family and community connections have positively impacted on the attendance of learners and have reduced retention and dropout rates among students (Trusty, 1999).

Family and community connections with the school impact on areas such as student behaviour, motivation, social competence, intrinsic motivation, positive student-teacher and peer relationships, language, self-help, meaningful youth and adult

connection/relationships, and strong peer and adult role models (Jordan, Orozoco & Averett, 2001).

Orphans and vulnerable children experience many barriers to learning, and studies have shown that effective family and community connections with the school have effectively provided solutions to specific barriers to learning such as health and mental health problems (Newman, 1995). Through connections, students and their families often have access to physical health services, social services, and basic subsistence services that they might not otherwise be able to access (Newman, 1995).

From the ensuing discussion it is clear that there are distinct advantages associated with family and community connections with the school; however, to gain an optimum outcome of the benefits associated with the use of internal and external resources, the benefits from these resources need to be evenly spread.

An analysis of Table 19 shows that that the provision of various services was not evenly spread out. When enlisting aid from external and internal assets, it is necessary for the form teacher to allocate specific procurements to specific assets so that orphans and vulnerable children benefit from a balanced spread of support services. The willingness to provide psychological services fared very poorly. There were only five responses for the provision of psychological services from the external organisations, and only 19 responses from internal role players.

Compared with the 58 responses with regard to the provision food by external organisations, there were only five responses to the provision of psychological services from these organisations. There were only 19 responses to the provision of psychological services from the internal role players of the school, compared with the 60 responses to the provision of educational services from these role players, and both the experimental as well as the comparison schools did not have a guidance counsellor.

One of the factors that impose on the teacher's workload is the 'non-existence' of a guidance counsellor at the school. In this regard the teacher is expected to provide guidance and counselling, albeit the lack of time and the insurmountable amount of

administrative work.

The problem experienced at the school where this study was done is commonplace throughout South Africa, and this creates more challenges for the class teacher to the extent that the class teacher has to do the work of guidance counsellors. The time spent on administrative duties and all other duties, however, encroaches on the time that the class teacher could spend on guidance and counselling to the extent that teachers only spend about one hour per week on guidance and counselling. This means that OVC receive very little or no guidance at all from the schooling system. Studies have shown that the prominence of guidance counsellors has gradually declined over the years.

Research has shown that orphans and vulnerable children display many psychological problems, which inter alia include stigmatisation, trauma through the loss of their parent/s, stress, low self-esteem and learning disorders (Foster, 2002; CINDI, 2006). The low response rate with regard to the provision of psychological services and the lack of a guidance counsellor at school is indicative that very little (from a psychological perspective) can be done to mitigate the adversities that orphans are subjected to.

It is envisaged that the life-skills intervention and the peer counselling intervention for orphans and vulnerable children, as advocated in this thesis, will alleviate the inadequacies relating to the provision of psychological services. Bearing in mind that the class teacher is faced with the problem of an increased workload, and that the class teacher does not have adequate time to provide guidance and counselling, a possible solution would be to integrate life-skills and OVC training into the life orientation curriculum. By integrating life-skills and HIV/AIDS into the life orientation programme, there is added value to the programme because two educators would be reinforcing salient aspects relating to orphans and vulnerable children.

Further research is required to establish the effectiveness of integrating life-skills for OVC with the life orientation curriculum. According to the World Health Organisation (2004), this integrated programme should not stand alone, but should form part of a health promoting school environment. It is also important for class teachers to realise the importance of health workers in a school environment.

Further research is definitely needed to explore issues such as the health promoting school environment, and the viability of providing health workers and guidance counsellors for schools.

### **6.7. Pretest/posttest NO follow-up questions relating to external and internal assets (educators who had not contacted or who had not enlisted aid)**

Following up from the question on whether the educator had contacted the respective external asset (CBO, FBO, NGO or HBO) or had enlisted aid from the respective internal role player (SMT, SGB, learner group and the life orientation educator), educators were then required to respond to a series of questions.

The follow-up questions in response to a NO response were different from the follow-up questions in response to a YES response. The follow-up questions to a NO response were aimed at obtaining a desired outcome. A statistical analysis was done for each set of follow-up questions. The data relating only to the experimental school were analysed. The extent of the paradigm shift relating to the comparison school was fairly insignificant and therefore did not warrant such analysis.

### 6.7.1 External organisations

Table 20 Response to various questions – external organisations

	CBO		FBO		NGO		FBO		TOTAL	
	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
Was it because you had no time to contact this organisation?										
PRE TEST	30	7	30	7	30	8	30	8	120	30
POST TEST	12	12	11	13	11	13	12	12	46	50
Was it because you did not think it was your job to contact any of these organisations?										
PRE TEST	30	7	30	7	30	8	30	11	120	33
POST TEST	8	14	10	14	10	14	8	13	41	55
Was it because you did not know of any of these organisations in the area in which the school is situated?										
PRE TEST	8	29	7	30	8	30	6	32	29	121
POST TEST	2	22	1	23	2	22	1	23	6	90
Was it because you did not have the contact numbers?										
PRE TEST	10	27	11	26	12	26	10	28	43	107
POST TEST	13	10	10	14	12	12	4	20	39	56
Was it because the organisation was not accessible?										
PRE TEST	6	31	6	31	7	31	5	33	24	126
POST TEST	13	10	10	14	13	11	8	16	44	51
Was it because the organisation did not exist in the area in which the school is situated?										
PRE TEST	7	30	7	30	7	31	8	30	121	29
POST TEST	13	10	9	15	12	12	10	14	44	51

### **6.7.2 Interpretation and discussion of results**

The results have been encouraging. The number of responses by educators who indicated that they had not contacted the external organisation because they had no time to make contact with respective external organisations dropped from 120 in the pretest survey to 46 in the posttest survey. The drop in the responses could be attributed to the intervention strategy. The 50 NO responses in the posttest survey suggests that there were other reasons for not contacting the external organisations. Compared with the other responses, lack of time stands out as one of the major reasons for not making contact with external organisations and is aligned with the findings by Giese *et al.* (2003)

The number of responses by educators who indicated that they did not think it was their job to contact the external organisations dropped from 120 in the pretest survey dropped to 41 in the posttest survey. The 55 NO responses in the posttest survey suggest that there were other reasons for not contacting the external organisations. It is encouraging to note that the intervention strategy had changed the mindset of educators regarding their extra-curricular duties.

The intervention had enabled educators to become aware of assets in their community. There were only six YES responses to the question, 'Was it because you did not know of any of these organisations in the area in which the school is situated?'

With regard to contact numbers, in the pretest there were 43 YES responses which suggest that educators have not contacted the organisation because they did not have their respective contact numbers. The number of responses in the posttest dropped slightly to 39. However the 56 NO responses suggest that there could be other reasons for not contacting the organisation.

With regard to accessibility, in the pretest there were 24 YES responses, which suggest that educators had not contacted the organisation because these organisations were not accessible to them. The number of YES responses in the posttest increased to 44. A reason for this increase could be attributed to the fact that about 12 of the educators who teach at the experimental school do not reside in the area in which the school is

situated.

With regard to the location of the external organisations, there were 121 YES responses in the pretest, which suggest that educators had not made contact with these organisations because they thought that these organisations did not exist in the area in which the school is situated. The number of YES responses in the posttest decreased to 44, which suggests that most of the educators have, through the intervention, become cognisant of external organisations in the area in which the school is situated.

### 6.7.3 Internal role players

Table 21 Response to various questions – internal role players

	SMT		SGB		LEARNER GROUP		LIFE ORIENTATION EDUCATOR		TOTAL	
	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
Was it because you had no time to liaise with this role player?										
PRE TEST	30	6	31	7	30	10	29	10	120	33
POST TEST	19	5	18	5	18	6	19	5	74	21
Was it because you did not think it was your job to liaise with this role player?										
PRE TEST	29	7	30	8	30	10	29	10	116	35
POST TEST	9	15	9	14	9	15	8	16	35	60
Was it because this role player is too busy attending to routine school matters?										
PRE TEST	0	37	1	37	1	39	1	38	3	151
POST TEST	0	24	0	23	1	23	0	24	1	94

### 6.7.4 Interpretation and discussion of results

The number of responses by educators who had indicated they had not contacted the role player because they had no time to liaise with the respective role player dropped from 120 in the pretest survey to 74 in the posttest survey.

The drop in the responses could be attributed to the intervention strategy. The 21 NO responses in the posttest survey suggests that there were other reasons for not liaising with the respective role player. Compared with the other responses, lack of time stands out as one of the major reasons for not liaising with the respective role player and is aligned with the findings by Giese *et al.* (2003).

The number of responses relating to educators who had not contacted the respective role player because they did not think it was their job to contact the external organisations dropped from 116 in the pretest survey to 35 in the posttest survey. The 60 NO responses in the posttest survey suggest that there were other reasons for not contacting the external organisations. It is encouraging to note that the intervention strategy had changed the mindset of educators regarding their extra-curricular duties.

## 6.8. Pre/post test analysis of response with regard to the implementation of the life-skills programme

### 6.8.1 Implementation

Table 22 Implementing life-skills programme for orphans and vulnerable children

		orvul1		Total
		no	yes	no
school	comparison	15	5	20
	experimental	7	13	20
Total		22	18	40

Chi-square = 5.665 with p-value = 0.017.

### **6.8.2 Interpretation and discussion of findings**

A post-test YES was recorded in the tables if the educator had implemented the life-skills programme in the pretest survey as well as in the posttest survey, or in the case where the educator's NO response in the pretest survey changed to YES in the posttest survey. In almost all cases a YES was recorded due to a change from pretest to posttest. A posttest NO was recorded in those cases where educators had not implemented the life-skills programme in either the pretest or the posttest.

The Chi-squared and p-value is used to determine the extent of the change. A high Chi-squared value is associated with a low p-value. A significance level of 0.1 was used. A value greater than 0.1 suggests that there was no change in the responses from the pretest to the posttest. A value less than 0.1 suggests that there was a change with regard to the educator's responses.

The p-value of 0.017, according to Table 22, suggests that the proportion of implementation is higher at experimental than comparison schools. This finding is indicative of a positive outcome of the intervention strategy, as was also noted by Motepe (2006) in a similar research on an OVC life-skills programme designed for social workers. This finding confirms that training is of paramount importance for the effective administration of an OVC programme and that the intervention was successful.

### **6.9. Follow-up questions**

Following from the question on whether the educator had implemented the respective life-skills programme, educators were then required to respond to a series of questions. The follow-up questions in response to a YES response were different from the follow-up questions in response to a NO response. The follow-up questions were aimed at obtaining a desired outcome. A statistical analysis was done for each set of follow-up questions. The data relating only to the experimental school were analysed. The extent of the paradigm shift relating to comparison school was fairly insignificant and therefore did not warrant such analysis.

## 6.10. YES follow-up responses (educators who had implemented the life-skills programme)

Table 23 Life-skills programme YES follow-up questions

Question	Answer	number pre	number post
2.2.1 Were you workshopped on the contents of this life-skills programme?	yes	0	12
	no	4	6
2.2.2 Were you given a manual on this life-skills programme?	yes	0	12
	no	4	6
2.2.3 Were you given time to implement this life-skills programme?	yes	0	12
	no	4	6
2.2.4 At which part of the day did you implement this programme?	morning	0	12
	one of periods	4	6
2.2.5 Did this programme take up too much of your time?	yes	4	9
	no	0	9
2.2.6 Did this programme create extra work for you?	yes	2	8
	no	2	10
2.2.7 Will you be able to run this programme using one day of the week for the whole year?	yes	4	18
	no	0	0
2.2.8 Will you be requiring any further assistance in implementing this programme?	yes	4	18
	no	0	0
2.2.9 Was the SMT of your school supportive in seeing that this programme implemented?	yes	4	18
	no	0	0
2.2.10 Do you think that this programme will be of benefit to orphans and vulnerable children?	yes	4	18
	no	0	0
2.2.11 Do you think that you will be able to have a better understanding of learners in your form class upon implementing this life-skills programme?	yes	4	18
	no	0	0
2.2.12 In what ways did the learners directly benefit from this programme? (Tick as many as you can)	All 10	4	17
	3,4,5,10	0	1

### **6.10.1 Interpretation and discussion of results**

There were 22 educators who implemented the life-skills programme for OVCs. Four educators had implemented the programme prior to the intervention, and 18 educators had implemented the programme in the posttest phase. Of the 18 educators who implemented the programme in the posttest phase, 12 (60%) educators were from the experimental school and four were from the comparison school.

#### *6.10.1.1 Prior to intervention*

The four educators who implemented some sort of life-skills programme in the pretest phase had not received an OVC life-skills manual, nor were they workshopped nor given additional time to administer the programme. They had, however, indicated that they had ventured to administer the programme during one of the periods. Two of the educators indicated that the life-skills programme had created extra work for them. All four educators indicated that they were prepared to administer the programme on a continuous basis and had expressed positive views about the efficacy of the programme.

#### *6.10.1.2 The posttest phase*

The success of the life-skills intervention could be gauged by the following:

- In the experimental school 60% of the class teachers had implemented the life-skills programme.
- All 12 educators indicated that they received the manual, were workshopped and were given time to implement the programme as compared with 0 (zero) values in the pretest stage.
- 18 of the 22 educators were willing to run the programme on a continuous basis compared to four in the pretest phase.

- 18 of the 22 educators indicated that they have a better understanding of OVC and they were positive about the benefits of the life-skills programme to OVC.

These educators had indicated that the OVC had shown an improvement in: understanding themselves, their self esteem, communication skills, their decision-making skills, their problem solving skills, and their creative thinking skills. OVC learnt how to maintain a healthy life style, how to be assertive, how to resolve conflicts, and how to cope with stress and emotions.

Gachuchi (1999) concludes that programmes appear to be more effective when teachers use a positive approach emphasising awareness of values, assertiveness, relationship skills, decision-making, real life situations and self esteem. In this regard it was encouraging to note that class teachers in the study reported that learners had benefited from the life-skills programme in the following areas: improvement in their self-esteem, improvement in their communication skills, improvement in their understanding about themselves, and improved decision making skills. Class teachers also noticed that learners were able to resolve conflicts, lead a healthy life style, and learnt to be assertive rather than aggressive.

For any life-skills programme to be effective, teachers must become confident facilitators of open-discussion and problem solving within and outside school. The life-skills programme in the intervention strategy is relationship-driven rather than the rhetoric 'I teach - you listen' approach. Interaction and meaningful engagement with the problems experienced by learners provide for incidental topics which could be discussed at classroom level. Theoretical knowledge should be reinforced with practical training to increase confidence in a flexible approach (Kinghorn, Rugeiyamu, Schierhout, Johnson, McKay, Ndegwa, Coombe, Mendlesohn & Villet, 2002).

With regard to training and implementation of a life-skills programme, teachers who were trained in rural Masaka (Uganda) and Thailand had more knowledge and understanding of HIV/AIDS and OVC issues and were more sensitive towards learner's sexuality and towards people living with HIV/AIDS. Owing to an increased knowledge base, these teachers were willing to use participatory methods, stronger facilitation

skills, improved communication skills and had better relationships with learners (Kinsman, Nakiyingi, Kamali, Carpenter, Quigley, Pool & Whitworth, 2001).

Eighteen educators indicated that they will need further assistance in administering the programme. It is encouraging to note that the SMT supported this programme and restructured the timetable of the school to provide for the implementation of the life-skills programme in the mornings.

Kinsman *et al.* (2001) state that life-skills programmes that address HIV/AIDS and OVC issues are more effective when teachers explore their own attitudes and values, establish a positive personal value system, and nurture an open, positive classroom climate. They recommend that programmes of this nature should be integrated into the national curriculum which would then require a reorientation of the curriculum as outlined in Chapter 3. Further research is required to compare the effectiveness of a class teacher-based life-skills programme for OVC with the effectiveness of life orientation which is taught at schools.

## 6.11. NO follow-up responses (educators who had not implemented the programme)

Table 24 Life-skills programme NO follow-up questions

Question	Answer	number pre	number post
2.3.11 Was it because you were not aware that you had to implement a life-skills programme for orphans and vulnerable children in your class?	yes	35	10
	no	2	13
2.3.2 Was it because you did not have a specifically designed life-skills manual for your form class?	yes	32	11
	no	5	12
2.3.3 Was it because you had no time to implement this life-skills programme?	yes	23	14
	no	14	9
2.3.4 Was it because you were not workshopped or trained to implement this life-skills programme?	yes	32	11
	no	5	12
2.3.5 Was it because the SMT did not support this programme?	yes	3	0
	no	34	23

### 6.11.1 Interpretation and discussion of results

The reasons for non-implementation are as follows:

- Not being aware that they had to implement the OVC life-skills programme.

The 10 educators who indicated that they were not aware that they had to implement the OVC life-skills programme in the posttest phase were from the comparison school. However, Table 26 shows a significant drop from 35 in the pretest phase to 10 in the posttest phase. This drop could be attributed to the success of the intervention.

- Not in possession of a life-skills manual.

All 11 educators who expressed this statement were from the comparison school. There was a significant drop from 32 in the pretest phase to 11 in the posttest phase. OVC life-skills manuals had been delivered to form teacher of the experimental school in the posttest phase.

- Not being aware that they had to implement the OVC life-skills programme.

The 10 educators who indicated that they were not aware they had to implement the OVC life-skills programme in the posttest phase were from the comparison school. However, Table 24 shows a significant drop from 35 in the pretest phase to 10 in the posttest phase. This drop could be attributed to the success of the intervention.

- Lack of time

Fourteen educators in the posttest phase stated that they did not have the time to implement the programme. Despite time being made available to educators to implement the OVC life-skills programme, eight educators from the experimental school did not have enough time to implement the programme. Lack of time poses a major hurdle in implementing an OVC programme.

- Not being workshopped:

All 11 educators belonged to the comparison school.

## 6.12. Pre/post test analysis of response with regard to the facilitation of peer counselling sessions

### 6.12.1 Implementation

Table 25 Implementing peer counselling sessions for orphans and vulnerable children

		alt1		Total
		no	yes	no
School	Comparison	19	1	20
	Experimental	9	11	20
Total		28	12	40

### 6.12.2 Interpretation and discussion of results

Chi-square = 11.109 with p-value = 0.001.

A post-test YES was recorded in the tables if the educator had implemented the adapted Alateen Model in the pretest survey as well as in the posttest survey, or in the case where the educator's NO response in the pretest survey changed to YES in the posttest survey. In almost all cases a YES was recorded due to a change from pretest to posttest. A posttest NO was recorded in those cases where educators had not implemented the peer counselling model in either the pretest or the posttest phase.

The Chi-squared and p-value was used to determine the extent of the change. A high Chi-squared value is associated with a low p-value. A significance level of 0.1 was used. A value greater than 0.1 suggests that there was no change in the responses from the pretest to the posttest. A value less than 0.1 suggests that there was a change with regard to the educator's responses. The p-value of 0.001, according to

Table 25, suggests that the proportion of implementation is significantly higher at the experimental than the comparison school. This finding is indicative of a positive outcome of the intervention strategy. This finding confirms that training is of paramount importance for the effective administration of an OVC programme and that the intervention was successful.

### **6.13. Follow-up questions**

Following from the question on whether the educator had implemented the peer counselling model, educators were then required to respond to a series of questions. The follow-up questions in response to a YES response were different from the follow-up questions in response to a NO response. The follow-up questions were aimed at obtaining a desired outcome. A statistical analysis was done for each set of follow-up questions. The data relating only to the experimental school were analysed. The extent of the paradigm shift relating to the comparison school was fairly insignificant and therefore did not warrant such analysis.

### 6.13.1 YES follow-up responses (educators who had facilitated peer counselling sessions)

Table 26 Peer counselling model questions YES follow-up questions

Question	Answer	number post
3.2.1 Were you workshopped on the contents of the peer counselling model?	yes	12
	no	0
3.2.2 Were you given a handout/manual on the peer counselling model?	yes	12
	no	0
3.2.3 Did this programme take up too much of your time?	yes	4
	no	8
3.2.4 Did this programme create extra work for you?	yes	3
	no	9
3.2.5 Will you be requiring any further assistance in implementing this programme?	yes	11
	no	1
3.2.6 Was the SMT of your school supportive in seeing that this programme is implemented?	yes	12
	no	0
3.2.7 Do you think that this programme will be of a benefit to orphans and vulnerable children?	yes	12
	no	0
3.2.8 Do you think that you will be able to have a better understanding of learners in your form class upon implementing this model?	yes	12
	no	0
3.2.9 In what ways did the learners directly benefit from this programme? (Tick as many as you can)	All 12	12
3.2.10 <sup>2</sup> What problems did you experience whilst implementing this model? (You can tick more than one)	1	6
	2	11
	3	11

Note: 1: More than one option indicated per person, 2: Only post-test responses to these questions

### **6.13.2 Interpretation and discussion of results**

There were 12(60%) educators from the experimental school who implemented the peer counselling model. The peer counselling model was not implemented prior to the intervention.

#### *6.13.2.1 The posttest phase*

The success of the peer counselling model could be gauged by the following:

- In the experimental school 60% of the form teachers had facilitated the implementation of this model.
- All 12 educators indicated that they received the manual, were workshopped and were given time to implement the programme, as compared with 0 (zero) values in the pretest stage.
- All 12 educators indicated that they had a better understanding of OVC and they were positive about the benefits of the peer counselling model.

The underlying rationale for implementing peer counselling programmes is based on the fact that learners approach other learners when they are experiencing difficulties and concerns (De Jager, 1995). According to Carr (1981), teenagers and young adolescents in the past have been ignored as a potential and positive source of help and mentors to their peers.

It was encouraging to note that educators in this study have acknowledged the positive outcomes of peer counselling. Young adolescents can be trained to facilitate effective decision-making, covering virtually all aspects of peer counselling. Training in areas such as listening skills and effective communication are essential for the meaningful execution of a peer counselling programme. Learners seek out peers for assistance with both personal and social problems as these are shared experientially with less social distance and less dependence between the peer who is helping and the learner

who requires assistance (Giddan & Austin, cited in Bowen, McEachern, Pearn & Kerr, 1985).

Orphans and vulnerable children come from backgrounds where abuse, rape, violence, neglect, poverty, subjugation, humiliation, stigmatisation, and drug and alcohol abuse are rife (Kelly, 2003). In this regard orphans and vulnerable children require someone to talk to and share their experiences with others. McEachern *et al.* (1995) indicate that learners who experience similar problems tend to relate better to each other. In support of this statement, Keller (1999) asserts that peer counselling is based on the assumption that individuals assume the role of 'natural helpers' and as such provide spontaneous and informal support to peers. In this regard, the Alateen programme (1976) provides the ideal background against which the teacher could tailor a peer counselling programme for OVC.

Having implemented the peer counselling programme, educators in the study indicated that OVC had shown an improvement in understanding themselves, their self esteem, communication skills, their decision-making skills, their problem solving skills and creative thinking skills. OVC learnt how to maintain a healthy life style, how to be assertive, how to resolve conflicts, and how to cope with stress and emotions. Orphans and vulnerable children also gained support and confidence by sharing their problems.

All educators who implemented the programme indicated that they will need further assistance in administering the programme. The type of assistance related to the how the implementation of the peer counselling programme could border around issues such as recruitment, training, supervision, service delivery and logistics, peer counsellor duties and programme evaluation.

With regard to recruitment, De Rosenroll (1986) indicates that the process of recruitment has to be carefully planned when starting a peer counselling programme. Recruitment at school could start by placing adverts in the school foyer, through assembly talks, in the life orientation classroom and through the Representative Council of Learners. The class teacher could even approach learners in his/her class to serve as peer counsellors. The class teacher has to ensure that he/she selects only

those learners who meet certain criteria. The class teacher could set his/her criteria in terms of guidelines set by Lawson (1989). The criteria could include the desire to help others, good interpersonal communication skills, congruency and genuineness, participation in extra-curricular activities, good listening skills, no previous record of substance abuse, willingness to be trained, absence of emotional problems and no previous record of sexual abuse.

With regard to training, the training models identified in Chapter 3 could be used as guidelines to train peer counsellors. However, when training peer counsellors, due consideration should be given to factors such as minimum training time and duration of sessions, size of the training group, core training content, structure of the training session, additional training and experiential techniques and activities. The envisaged peer counselling programme discussed in Chapter 3 provides a basic guideline for the class teacher.

With regard to the core training content, Keller (1999) indicates that the peer counselling training programme should be designed to fit the context in terms of user needs and to prepare the peer counsellor for the problems and concerns they will have to deal with in a specific setting. In applying Keller's (1999) statement to OVC, the class teacher should select topics and styles that are relevant to OVC. In this regard, Carr (1981) advocates that a 'learner-centred' rather than an 'agenda-centred' approach to training should be followed. A synthesis of suggestions in likely topics for the training programme, according to Blain & Brusko (1985), Bowman (1986), de Jager (1985) and Keller (1999) are the following: an overview of the scope of peer counselling, awareness and understanding of self and others, verbal and non-verbal attending, listening and communication skills, warmth and empathy, roadblocks to effective communication, positive and negative feedback, problem solving and decision making skills, ethics, confidentiality, neutrality and referrals to other resources.

With regard to peer counselling supervision, Blain and Brusko (1985) indicate that regular supervision is an important aspect for peer counsellors and is provided on an on-going basis in some programmes. Supervision creates an opportunity for peer counsellors to deal with the concerns about their functioning and to receive continuous support from their supervisors. Supervision also leads to evaluation of the programme

and necessary action can be taken to alleviate problem areas. A variety of individuals can provide support and supervision to the peer counsellors – these persons could include members from the Alateen programme, members of Teenagers Against Alcohol and Drug Abuse (TADA), officials from the Department of Education; social workers, psychologists, the life orientation teacher, heads of faith-based organisations, and community leaders. Peer counsellors require continuous support and in this regard, Carr (1993) indicates that the educator should avoid making peer counselling the sole responsibility of learners and that a peer counsellor mediator be appointed to oversee and offer support for peer counsellors.

It is encouraging to note that the SMT had supported this programme. Educators expressed that the major problems regarding the implementation of this programme were learners not co-operative (reported by six educators); learners shy to relate their experiences (reported by 11 educators), and learners afraid of being stigmatised (reported by 11 educators).

## 6.14. NO follow-up responses (educators who had not implemented the programme)

Table 27 Peer counselling model NO follow-up questions

Question	Answer	number pre	number post
3.3.1 Was it because you were not aware of the peer counselling model?	yes	40	19
	no	0	10
3.3.2 Was it because you did not have a handout on the peer counselling model?	yes	37	19
	no	3	10
3.3.3 Was it because you had no time to implement this model?	yes	23	17
	no	17	12
3.3.4 Was it because you were not workshopped or trained to implement this model?	yes	35	19
	no	5	10
3.3.5 Was it because the SMT did not support this programme?	yes	2	1
	no	38	28

### 6.14.1 Interpretation and discussion of results

The reasons for non-implementation are as follows:

- Not being aware that they had to implement the OVC life-skills programme.

The 19 educators who had indicated that they were not aware that they had to implement the peer counselling model in the posttest phase were from the comparison school. However, Table 27 shows a significant drop from 40 in the pretest phase to 19 in the posttest phase. This drop could be attributed to the success of the intervention.

- Not in possession of a life-skills manual.

All 19 educators who had expressed this statement were from the comparison school. There was been a significant drop from 37 in the pretest phase to 19 in the posttest phase. A handout on the adapted Alateen Model was been delivered to form teachers of the experimental school in the posttest phase.

- Lack of time.

Seventeen educators in the posttest phase stated that they did not have the time to implement the programme. Eight educators from the experimental school did not have enough time to implement the programme. Lack of time poses a major hurdle in implementing an OVC programme. In a study conducted by Lewis and Lewis (1996) many participants in the study complained about the time and effort it takes to provide, not only ongoing support and supervision for the peer counsellors themselves, but also the huge input required to manage such a programme.

In this regard the researcher suggested that short peer counselling sessions be conducted during the lunch breaks and that supervision of these sessions could be done on a rotation basis. Lewis and Lewis (1996) suggest that mechanisms should be put in place to manage and oversee peer counselling programmes to allow peer counsellors to work closely with programme supervisors, thus creating the opportunity to be observed and to detect problem areas and risk situations at an early stage.

## **6.15. Summary of the results of the survey**

In Chapter 5 and 6 data obtained from the questionnaires were presented and analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. All the respondents were rural primary school educators.

### **6.15.1 First phase**

An analysis of the data of the first phase of the research produced the following results:

It was found that although educators did not have an in-depth knowledge of the HIV/AIDS phenomenon and the orphan phenomenon in South Africa, educators possessed some knowledge on these phenomena. Educators were of the view that the class teacher is best positioned to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. The educator's views on the various tasks involved in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children were seen within the context of routine classroom duties of the class teacher. Educators had mildly agreed or were uncertain whether the duty of the class teacher entailed enlisting aid from external sources.

Educators had generally agreed that lack of time, large number of learners per class, inadequate training, and inadequate support from the SMT and other role players were the major challenges facing educators in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. Educators were of the view that the class teacher is a pivotal role player in facilitating a life-skills programme and the peer counselling model for OVC in his/her class, provided that educators are well trained and time is allocated during the school day for the administration of such programmes.

### ***6.15.2 Second phase***

In the second phase of the study, an intervention programme aimed at building capacity among educators to effectively render support services for OVC was tested using the quasi-experimental pretest-posttest design. In the control school, results emerging from both the pretest and the posttest did not reveal any significant changes with regard to the initiatives taken by educators to provide support services for OVC—despite these educators being exposed to a questionnaire which highlights various class teacher based initiatives.

This finding is not only significant to this study but provides a general overview on the attitudes of educators with regard to providing care and support for OVC. There could be various reasons for this: heavy workload, lack of time, lack of training and lack of motivation – this emerged in the findings in the first phase of the survey. If this is the general trend throughout the country, then OVC face a bleak future.

Also significant to this study is the posttest findings of the experimental school which

showed that 40% of educators had not implemented the intervention programme despite having time available for the implementation, being workshopped and being given a manual. This finding clearly demonstrates that there are some educators who are simply apathetic towards the plight of orphans. This finding also suggests the need to provide continuous supervision of educators and the need to enforce programmes at school. However, for programmes such as OVC intervention programme and HIV/AIDS programmes to be effective, it is imperative that the education authorities mandate school principals and the SMT to oversee the implementation of such programmes.

The findings of the posttest phase, being of significance to this study, show the following: most of the educators (over 60%) had utilised the asset-based approach to enlist aid for orphans and vulnerable children. This entailed contacting and enlisting aid from external as well as internal resources of the school. It was encouraging to note that these bodies were willing to offer food, clothing and educational aid for OVC. The willingness to provide shelter, financial and psychological services was low. The study also revealed that whilst educators had successfully mapped and mobilised internal and external resources, the benefits from these assets were poorly managed – the benefits were not evenly spread out. It is therefore necessary to train educators on asset procurement and asset management.

Most of the educators (over 60%) had facilitated the specially designed life-skills programmes and the peer counselling model. Educators indicated that the lack of time was the major reason for not implementing these programmes. All educators who had implemented this programme indicated that they needed further training with regard to the content and the administration of these programmes. Departmental authorities and other stakeholders should therefore provide continuous training so that educators can be updated on current trends relating to life-skills and peer counselling.

In the first phase of the survey, the researcher surveyed the following: the views of educators regarding the person at school best positioned to address the needs of OVC; the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of OVC; and the views of educators relating to the use of the asset based approach, a life-skills approach and a peer counselling approach for OVC.

## **6.16. Conclusion**

In the second phase of the survey, the researcher used the quasi-experimental pretest-post design to test the effectiveness of an intervention strategy aimed at serving the needs of OVC. Results emerging from the first and the second phases of the survey were analysed, interpreted and the discussed. Recommendations and limitations relating to the study are discussed in Chapter 7.

## **CHAPTER 7. LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **7.1. Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to outline some of the aspects that limited the scope of this study and to make recommendations relating to the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.

### **7.2. Limitations associated with this study**

The educators may not have been frank and truthful in their responses. Due to the sensitive nature of the items in the questionnaire, such as the role of the SMT in addressing the needs of OVC, it is possible that some respondents may have elicited false or misleading responses which probably influenced the reliability of the results. The investigation was confined to rural primary school educators in the Dududu Circuit only. Owing to poor accessibility to rural schools and difficulties in mobilising educators, only two schools were investigated. Other primary schools would have produced different results.

The investigations carried out were limited to questionnaires only. No interviews were conducted with the form teachers. There is also the probability that ignorance, or an unwillingness to make a commitment, could have influenced the decision of the educator to indicate his/her view as 'uncertain'.

### **7.3. Recommendations**

#### ***7.3.1 Guidance counsellors and life-skills curriculum for the class teacher***

If schools are to be recognised as effective centres of learning and teaching and as support centres for orphans, vulnerable and other disadvantaged children, then school managers, including educators, must recognise the potential that a strategic approach

has for the promotion of a conducive learning environment.

Unfortunately, an important educational area has been downsized by the Department of Education mainly in public schools, namely, guidance and counselling. In this regard the comparison and the experimental schools did not have guidance counsellors. This particular portfolio has fallen into a learning area called Life Orientation and many educators that are teaching life orientation are not adequately qualified to serve as counsellors. In 5.8.1 of this study, educators did not view the Life Orientation educator as the one best positioned to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. Guidance and counselling should be included as a compulsory subject in the curriculum for learners.

The Department of Education does not have a structured curriculum that the class teachers could use in order to instil moral and ethical values in their learners. The Department of Education scrapped the 'Right Living' syllabus that used to be in place in the pre-1994 era. This Right Living syllabus and the Right Living period was effective in setting the tone for the day, in identifying challenges faced by learners, and imparting values and building sound attitudes.

One of the most important areas dealing with orphans and vulnerable children presently is the issue of HIV/AIDS and this area needs specialised people at school level and community level to address concerns and provide support. There is evidence in this study, namely, in 5.8.1 to suggest that current prevention programmes among learners in South Africa are generally narrow in content and limited to particular approaches. Parents (guardians in the case of orphans) are the primary educators of their children and educators (school) are secondary educators with whom the learners spend most of the day. Therefore educators play a major role in advising the learners. It is the responsibility of every educator, the management of the school, the school governing body and the Department of Education to ensure that the needs of orphans and vulnerable children are met. Counsellors can assist orphans and vulnerable children to make informed decisions and take control of their lives so that they can cope better with the demands made on them and lead more productive lives.

In view of the above and in view of the findings of this study, namely in 6.7.3 , the researcher recommends the following:

- The Department of Education should consider incorporating guidance and counselling as compulsory subjects in the school curriculum and provide each school with a guidance counsellor.
- The Department of Education should consider the inclusion of 'Right Living' or a 'Class teacher based life-skills' curriculum in the class time table.
- There must be collaborative partnerships with all members of the school community.
- The Department of Education needs to have more professional social workers easily available to provide learner support by arranging for a wide range of support services such as financial aid, foster care and psychological services.

### **7.3.2 Peers and friends**

Educators and learners alike are ignorant of the unique problems and challenges that face each orphan and vulnerable learner. Orphans and vulnerable children are afraid of stigmatisation, afraid of confessing any abusive relationships, afraid of asking for help, and therefore choose to go through the day in silent torture (Giese, *et al.*, 2003). Research has shown that learners turn to their peers and friends for support. The attitudes of peer and friends have a major influence on the value of the OVC attachment to education, personality and character building.

Whilst secondary schools can boast having Representative Council of Learners (RCL), primary schools and as shown in 6.7.3 do not have such a structure. Hence the mechanics to form such learner groups are non-existent in primary schools. Learner groups could provide emotional support, a feeling of acceptance, and a learning environment for such aspects as skills, concepts, values and attitudes.

This study has shown that learners groups were prepared to provide basic as well as educational, and to a certain extent, psychological assistance to orphans and vulnerable children. The experimental school in this study created a peer support group, which is an adapted version of the Alateen Model, whereas none of the schools in the pretest phase had created such a group. This is a positive indication that awareness and training is fundamental to the creation of such structures.

In view of the above and in line with the findings in 6.13.1, the researcher recommends the following:

- The Department of Education should by law extend the RCL component to primary schools.
- In the absence of mandatory learner groups, the school should take the initiative in creating peer support groups. Such a peer support group could follow the principles and guidelines set out in the Alateen Model or the peer support wing of an organisation called 'Teenagers Against Drug and Alcohol Abuse' (TADA).
- Each class teacher should encourage learners to form peer support groups and explain to learners the benefits of such a group. The form teacher should oversee this group and advocate control measures.

### ***7.3.3 The asset-based approach (the school as a hub in the community and within internal role players)***

The asset-based approach, which entails the mapping and utilisation of internal assets of the school (the school management team, the school governing body, the learner group, guidance counsellors and the life orientation teacher) and the external assets of the school (community-based organisations, faith based organisations, non-governmental organisations and health-related organisations) is seen as a cost-effective way of harnessing support for orphans and vulnerable children. This study demonstrated that an asset-based approach is a positive intervention strategy that could be effectively used to garner support for OVC.

All that is required is for the form teacher to identify, record contact details, contact and adopt the various internal and external assets as support structures of the school.

- Training

The findings and outcomes relating to the asset-based approach may be utilised during the training of form teachers and future educators. Training could firstly include exposure to the intervention and specific strategies that have been developed and employed in this study, thereby highlighting a way of becoming involved in community work.

The findings in this study (namely, that educators knew how to map, make contact with and utilise assets as shown in 6.7.2 and 6.7.3) might be relied upon in highlighting the potential role of form teachers, working in collaboration with educational psychologists and other stakeholders.

This study could be used by educators who face challenges similar to the ones highlighted in this study. The school management team should endeavour to study this thesis and workshop the staff on issues such as asset mapping and the procurement of services. It is envisaged that the model designed in this study could be adapted for use by form teachers to address various challenges such as HIV/AIDS, learning disabilities, behavioural problems, alcohol and drug addiction and crime.

- Research

This study could be replicated to investigate whether or not the positive outcomes of the asset-based approach would be of universal application. Similar research projects could further focus on the challenges associated with HIV/AIDS, or even other challenges communities face. In addition, research projects could be initiated to investigate the sustainability of the support efforts that participants are willing to provide to the school.

## **7.4 Conclusion**

This chapter included the limitations of the study and the recommendations stemming from the study. The next chapter concludes the study.

## **CHAPTER 8. CONCLUSIONS**

### **8.1. Introduction**

In this study the aim of the research was to undertake an empirical investigation pertaining to the role of the class teacher in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.

### **8.2. Implications for future research as revealed by findings of this study**

During the course of the investigation the researcher became aware of the following: educators are apathetic towards doing extra work and were not fully motivated to 'go the extra mile' for their learners, and educators are uncertain about the various tools that they could use to meet the various challenges they face. Further research is required to determine the cause of apathy among educators and why educators are not willing to take the initiative in addressing the various challenges they face.

The assumption of this study was that the three dimensional intervention (namely, the life-skills approach, the asset-based approach and the use of peer counselling - the adapted Alateen Model) with class teachers will result in enhancing the confidence of the class teacher and place the class teacher in a better position to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children. The researcher found that the three-dimensional intervention strategy holds the key to provide class teachers with more confidence regarding the support they can provide for OVC.

A serious problem facing schools is alcohol and drug addiction, and crime. The three dimensional model postulated in this study could be adapted to address these problems. Researchers could take the cue from this study and apply the principles contained herein to design a replicated model that could effectively address the aforesaid challenges.

With regard to the asset based approach, researchers could utilise community assets

such as the South African Police Services, faith-based organisations, medical practitioners, rehabilitation centres and the various internal assets to render support services and rehabilitation of drug and alcohol users and potential users in primary schools. The life-skills programme outlined in this study could be used to provide psychological support for learners who have drug and alcohol related problems. Learners could be trained by organisations such as SANCA to provide peer support services. This thesis is therefore of tremendous value to class teachers. In a similar way the three-dimensional model outlined in this study could be employed to address the issue of crime.

### **8.3. Concluding remarks**

At present, the challenge of coping with orphans and vulnerable children is relevant – not only on a global scale, but in local communities as well as the classroom which is generally characterised by limited external aid and support. The class teacher is sandwiched between limited aid from the Department of Education and the challenges facing orphans and vulnerable children. In this study, the researcher explored and developed a three dimensional model to assist the class teacher in coping with the challenges implied by various factors.

The researcher carefully designed a model to fit within the school structure so that orphans and vulnerable children could benefit from the resources at school. The underlying rationale lies in the mandate given in the Education for All conference in Korea. In order to facilitate an awareness and application of the three dimensional model among class teachers, the researcher developed an activist intervention research strategy, whereby class teachers were empowered to employ new approaches in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children, based on their awareness and newly obtained knowledge on the three dimensional model. As an outcome of their involvement and based on their experience as being empowered, class teachers, together with the school management team, facilitated change and development in the experimental school.

This study demonstrates the potential value of focusing on existing resources (basic knowledge of life-skills training, knowledge of external and internal bodies, and basic

knowledge of peer counselling) when facing challenges. Instead of focusing on challenges or problems, findings in this study suggest that class teachers do have the capacity and inertia to implement strategies provided that these educators are well motivated and empowered. This study found that training holds the key to success and in turn results in positive change and development.

The researcher concludes with a statement by Lao Tsu, 700 BC (in Foster, 2001:1) which, in essence summarises this study:

‘Start with what you know, build with what you have’

## REFERENCES

ACORD, (2001). *Research into living conditions of children who are heads of household in Rwanda*. Unpublished manuscript.

Africa Education Initiative. (2005). *South African case study*. Washington DC: USAID.

Ainsworth, M., Beegle, K., Koda, G. (2002). *The impact of adult mortality on primary school enrolment in North-western Tanzania*. Africa region human development. Working paper series. Washington D.C. World Bank. Available [online] <http://www.coregroup.org/resources/schooling.pdf>. Accessed on 23 May 2010.

Ainsworth, M., Filmier, D. (2002). *Poverty, AIDS and children schooling: A targeting dilemma*. Policy research working paper – 2885. Washington DC: World Bank Africa region.

Alateen (1996). *Alcoholics Anonymous Family Group*. New York: Alcoholics Anonymous World Services Incorporated.

Alcoholics Anonymous (1976). *Alcoholics Anonymous*. New York: Alcoholics Anonymous. World Services Incorporated.

Alwang, J., Siegel, P., Jorgensen, S. (2001). *Vulnerability: A View from different disciplines*. World Bank discussion Paper Series No. 115. Washington: World Bank Social Protection Services. Available [online]: [www.conflictrecovery.org/bin/FAO-Tomorrows\\_Hunger\\_Oct2005.pdf](http://www.conflictrecovery.org/bin/FAO-Tomorrows_Hunger_Oct2005.pdf) Accessed on 31 January 2007.

Anderson, W. (2003). *Practical Research Methodology*. Fort Worth: Holt, Reinhart and Winston.

Anderson, W., Okoro, L. (2000). *The Development of Life-skills Education Programmes for Grade 1 Learners*. Mafikeng: University of North-West.

Ary, D., Jacobs, L.C., Razavieh, A. (1990). *Introduction to research in education*. Fort Worth: Holt, Reinhart and Winston.

AVERT – AVERTING HIV AND AIDS (2001). *Effect of AIDS on Education*. Available at <<http://www.avert.org/aidsinafrica/>>. Accessed on 25 November 2007.

Babbie, E. (1998). *The Practice of Social Research*. 8<sup>th</sup> edition. Belmont: Wadsworth.

Babbie, E. R. (2007). *The basics of social research* (4th ed.). Australia: Thomson/Wadsworth.

Babbie, E., Mouton, J. (2000). *The practice of social research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Badcock-Walters, P. (2001). *The Impact of HIV/AIDS on Education in KwaZulu-Natal*. KZN Provincial Education Development Unit and Health, Economics & AIDS Research Division, University of Natal: PEDU Position Paper.

Badcock-Walters, O., Heard, W., Wilson, D. (2002). *Developing district-level early warning and decision support systems to assist in managing and mitigating the impact of HIV/AIDS on education*. Paper presented at the XIVth International AIDS conference. Available [online]: [www.heard.org.za/downloads/heard-annual-review-2002.pdf](http://www.heard.org.za/downloads/heard-annual-review-2002.pdf). Accessed on 3 August 2007.

Bakilana, A., Bundy, D., Brown, J., Fredriksen, B. (2005). *Accelerating the education sector response to HIV/AIDS in Africa. A review of World Bank assistance*. Washington DC: World Bank. Available [online]: [www-wds.worldbank.org/.../372650Schooling0Access01PUBLIC1.pdf](http://www-wds.worldbank.org/.../372650Schooling0Access01PUBLIC1.pdf) Accessed on 9 May 2009.

Battle, J. (1981). *Culture-free SEI: Self-esteem inventories for children and adults*. Washington: Special Child Publications.

Baylis, P.J. (2002). *Promoting resilience: A literature review*. Paper prepared for the Alberta Mental Health Board. Children's Mental Health. Available [online]: <http://www.amhb.ca/chmh/resources/page.cfm?=-promoting%20Resilience%20>. Accessed 18 May 2010.

Bender, C.J.G. (2002). *A life-skills programme for learners in the senior phase: A social work perspective*. Unpublished master's thesis. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

Bennell, P. (2003). *The impact of the AIDS epidemic on schooling in sub-Saharan Africa*. Paris: ADEA.

Bennell, P., Hyde, K., Swainson, N. (2002). *The impact of the HIV/AIDS epidemic on the education sector in sub-Saharan Africa. A synthesis of the findings and recommendations of three country studies*. Brighton: Centre for International education, University of Sussex.

Bennet, S., Saks, L.V. (2006). *A conceptual application of attachment theory and research to the social work student – field instructor-supervisor relationship*. *Journal of Social Work*: 42(3) 669-682.

Berard, R.M.F., Pringle, E.F and Ahmed, N. (2001). *A Preliminary investigation of high-school counselling resources on the Cape Peninsula*. Available [online]: [http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi\\_m2248/is\\_n126\\_v32/ai\\_19619418/](http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m2248/is_n126_v32/ai_19619418/). Accessed on 21 October 2008.

Bhana, A., Brookes, H., Makiwane, M., Naidoo, K. (2005). *Evaluation of the impact of the Life Orientation Programme on HIV/AIDS in Gauteng schools. Pilot study*. Pretoria: HSRC.

Bhargava, A., Bigombe, B. (2003). *Public policies and orphans of AIDS in Africa*. *British Medical Journal*, 326: 1387-1389.

Blain, G.H., Brusco, M. (1985). *Starting Peer Counselling programme in the High*

School. *Journal of School Health*, 55(3), pp 116 – 118.

Blanche, M.T., Durrheim, K. (1999). *Research in practice: applied methods for the social sciences*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.

Bless, C., Higson-Smith. (2000). *Fundamentals of Social Research: An African perspective*. Cape Town: Zebra publications.

Bloome, D., Katz, I., Solsken, J., Wilett, J., Wilson-Keenan, J.A. (2000). *Interpellations of family/community and classroom literacy practices*. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 93(3) 155-163.

Boler, T. (2003). *HIV/AIDS and education. Approaches to examining the impact of HIV/AIDS on teachers*. UK working group on education and HIV/AIDS. London: ActionAid International.

Boler, T., Carroll, K. (2003). *Addressing the educational needs of orphans and vulnerable children*. UK working group on education and HIV/AIDS. London: ActionAid and Save the Children Fund. Available [online]: [www.actionaid.org.uk/content/documents/ovcpaper.pdf](http://www.actionaid.org.uk/content/documents/ovcpaper.pdf) Accessed: 24 April 2007.

Booyesen, F le R., Bachman, M., Matabezi, Z., Meyer, J. (2003). *The social-economic impact of HIV/AIDS on households in South Africa: a pilot study in Welkom and Qwaqwa*. Free State Province: Interim Report.

Bowen, N.H., McEachern, S.K., Pearn, P.I., Kerr, B.A. (1985). *Women helping Women: A peer counselling service*. *Women & Therapy*, 4(2). 43-51.

Bowman, R.P. (1986). *Peer facilitator programmes for middle graders. Students helping each other grow up*. *The School Counsellor*, 33 (3) pages 221 – 229.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1958). *Socialization of social class through time and space*. New York: Holtz.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development: Experiments by nature and design*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Bryceson, D., Fonseca, J., Kadzandira, J. (2004). *Social pathways from the HIV/AIDS deadlock of disease, denial and desperation in rural Malawi*. Malawi: Care International: Malawi.

Buchel, A.J., Hoberg, S.M. (2006). *The Role of the Principal as school manager in dealing with the impact of HIV/AIDS in School Management*. Faculty of Education. UNISA: Pretoria. Available [online]: [ir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/10500/1956/5/09article.pdf](http://ir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/10500/1956/5/09article.pdf). Accessed on: 21 July 2007

Carr, R.A. (1981). *Theory and practice of peer counselling. Presentation made to the National Consultation on Vocational Counselling*. International Association of Educational and Vocational Guidance, 42: 1-9.

Case, A., Paxton, C., Albleidinger, J. (2002). *Orphans in Africa*. National Bureau of economic Research. Massachusetts. Also available [online]: [unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001355/135531e.pdf](http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0013/001355/135531e.pdf). Accessed on 27 August 2009

Castrogiovanni, D. (2004). *Adolescence: Change and community – Peer Groups*. Available [Online]: <http://inside.bord.edu/academic/specialproj/darling/adpeer1.htm>. Accessed on 15 May 2009.

Centre for Actuarial Research, (2006). *The Demographic Impact of HIV/AIDS in South Africa – National and Provincial Indicators for 2006*. Cape Town: Centre for Actuarial Research: South African Medical Research Council and Actuarial Society of South Africa.

Centre for Applied Legal Studies and Social Surveys Africa (CALSA) (2007). *Formative research report. Barriers to education project*, June 2007. Unpublished.

Chambers, R. (2003). *Whose reality counts? Putting the first last*. London: ITD &

Publishing.

Chambers, R. (2004). *Participatory workshops: a sourcebook of 21 sets of ideas and activities*. London: Earthscan.

Chavkin, N.F., Gonzalez, J., Rader, R. (2000). *A home-school programme in a Texas-Mexico border school. Voices from parents, students and school staff*. *The School Community Journal*, 10(2) 127-137.

Children in Distress (CINDI) (2006). *The CINDI network CBO capacity development programme: Concept document and project proposal*. Pietermaritzburg: CINDI. Available [online]: [www.cindi.org.za/files/CINDI-Annual-Report-2005-6-web.pdf](http://www.cindi.org.za/files/CINDI-Annual-Report-2005-6-web.pdf). Accessed on: 21 May 2007

Children in Distress (CINDI) (2007). *Endogenous community-based responses to the needs of children made vulnerable by HIV and AIDS*. Pietermaritzburg: CINDI. Available [online]: [www.cindi.org.za/files/CINDI\\_Annual\\_Report2006-7.pdf](http://www.cindi.org.za/files/CINDI_Annual_Report2006-7.pdf). Accessed on 21 May 2007.

Chisholm, L. (2005). *The role of schools in supporting children affected by HIV/AIDS*. Cape Town: HSRC. Also available [online]: [www33.homepage.villanova.edu/.../Chisholm,%20State%20of%20South%20Africa's%20Schools.pdf](http://www33.homepage.villanova.edu/.../Chisholm,%20State%20of%20South%20Africa's%20Schools.pdf). Accessed on 21 May 2007.

Chisholm, L., Hoadley, U., Wakivulu, M., Brookes, H., Prinsloo, L., Kgobe, A., Mosia, D., Narsee, H., Rule, S. (2005). *Educator workload in South Africa: A report funded and prepared for the Education Labour Relations Council*. Cape Town: HSRC.

Clarke, J.D. (2008). *Heroes and Villains: Teachers in the education response to HIV*. Paris: International Institute for Education Planning. Also available [online]; [www.iiep.unesco.org/fileadmin/user\\_upload/Info.../HIV\\_CLARKE.pdf](http://www.iiep.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/Info.../HIV_CLARKE.pdf). Accessed on 15 May 2010.

Cohen, D. (2002). *Human Capital and the HIV epidemic in sub-Saharan Africa*. Working paper 2. Geneva: International Labour Organization.

Coombe, C. (2002). *Mitigating the impact of HIV/AIDS on education supply, demand and quality: a global review*. Florence: UNICEF, Innocenti Research Centre. Available [online]: [www.hivpolicy.org/Library/HPP001135.pdf](http://www.hivpolicy.org/Library/HPP001135.pdf). Accessed on 24 May 2008.

Cotu, D. (2002). *How resilience works*. Harvard Business Review. [Online] Available: [http://harvardbusinessonline.hbsp.harvard.edu/b01/en/common/item\\_details.jhtm?id=1709](http://harvardbusinessonline.hbsp.harvard.edu/b01/en/common/item_details.jhtm?id=1709). Accessed on 21 July 2009.

Creswell, J.W. (1994). *Research design: qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Creswell, J.W., Clark, V.L. (2007). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Creswell, J.W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approach*. (3<sup>rd</sup> Edition). New York: Sage Publications.

Crouch, L., Perry, H. (2005). *Education: Employment and Skills in South Africa*. In Kraak, A., Perold, H. (eds.). Human Resources Development Review. Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Dane, F. (1990). *Research methods*. Los Angeles: Brooks.

David, D., (2001). *Social research methods*. 4th ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Davids, A., Skinner, D. (2005). A situational analysis of orphans and vulnerable children in four districts of South Africa. Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Dawes, A. (2003). *Improving children's mental health in an era of HIV/AIDS*. Paper

*presented to the colloquium: Improving the health of school age children in an era of HIV/AIDS. Linking policies, programmes and strategies for the 21<sup>st</sup> Century.* Inkosi Albert Luthuli Hospital. Durban: 16-19 March 2003.

DCOF (1999) *Community mobilization for orphans in Zambia: An assessment of the orphans and vulnerable children program of Project Concern International.* Washington: Displaced Children and Orphans Fund and War Victims Fund.

De Jager, M.J. (1995) *An introduction to peer-support training programme.* Unpublished training-the-trainer manual. Port Elizabeth: Technikon, Port Elizabeth.

De Rosenroll, D.A. (1986). *Starting a peer counselling programme.* Elementary School Guidance and Counselling, 21(2), 162-164.

Descombe, Martyn. 2007. *The good research guide for small-scale social research projects.* 3rd ed. Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press.

De Vos, A.S. (Ed). (1998). *Research at grassroots level: A primer for the caring profession.* Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouche', C.B., Iport, C.S.L. (2002). *Research at grassroots: For the Social Sciences and the Human Services Profession.* Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Deininger, K., Garcia, M., Barao, K. (2001). *AIDS induced orphanhood as a systems shock: Magnitude, Impact and Programme Interventions in Africa.* Paper presented at the International Conference on Crises and Disasters: Measurement and mitigation of their human costs, organised by the International Food Policy research Institute and the Inter-American Development Bank, November 13-14. Washington DC. Available [online]:

[siteresources.worldbank.org/INTHIVAIDS/.../ReachingOuttoAfricasOrphans.pdf](http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTHIVAIDS/.../ReachingOuttoAfricasOrphans.pdf)

Accessed on 21 April 2008.

Department of Education (1996). *South African Schools Act. No. 84 of 1996*. Pretoria: Department of Education.

Department of Education (1997a). *Quality education for all: Overcoming barriers to learning and development*. Report of the National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training (NCSNET) and National Committee on Education Support Services (NCESS). Pretoria: Department of Education.

Department of Education (1997b). *Norms and standards for educators*. Pretoria: Department of Education.

Department of Education (1998). *Employment of Educators Act No. 76 of 1998*. Pretoria: Department of Education.

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: National Education Policy Act, 1996 (No. 27 of 1996)*. Pretoria: Department of Education, South Africa.

Department of Education (2001). *White Paper 6 on Special Needs Education*. Pretoria: Department of Education, South Africa.

Department of Education (2004). *National Curriculum Statement – General*. Pretoria: Department of Education.

Department of Education (2005a). *A report on the interim monitoring and evaluation of life-skills and HIV/AIDS education programme in primary and secondary public schools in the Free State*. Bloemfontein: Government Printer.

Department of Education (2006a). *National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development: More teachers, Better teachers*. Pretoria: Department of Education.

Department of Education (2006b). *Regulations relating to the exemption of parents*

*from payments of school fees in public schools.* Pretoria: Department of Education.

Department of Education (2007). *National Norms and Standards for School Funding.* Government Gazette No. 30332. Notice No. 883. Pretoria: Department of Education.

Department of Education (2008). *Subsistence and Provisioning of Orphans and Vulnerable Children.* Pretoria: Government Printer.

Department of Health, Medical Research Council (2007). *South African Demographic and Health survey - 2003.* Pretoria: Department of Health.

Department of Social Development (2005). *Policy framework for orphans and other children made vulnerable by HIV and AIDS in South Africa: 'Building a Caring Society Together'.* Pretoria: Government Printer.

Dercon, S. (2005). *Vulnerability - a micro perspective.* Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Desalegn, A., Tadele, G., Cherinet, H. (2008). *The response to teacher training institutions to HIV/AIDS. A case study of Ethiopia.* Paris: IIEP. Also available [online]: [www.hesa.org.za/heaids/.../HEAIDS%20Conference/HIV%20and%20AIDS%20in%20Teacher%20Education.pdf](http://www.hesa.org.za/heaids/.../HEAIDS%20Conference/HIV%20and%20AIDS%20in%20Teacher%20Education.pdf). Accessed on 25 March 2009.

Devereaux, S. (2002). *Poverty, livelihoods and famine.* Draft paper presented at the conference on ending famine in the 21st Century: 27 February 2006 to 1 March 2006. Brighton: IDS University of Sussex. Available [online]: [www.hsra.ac.za/.../6183\\_Hart\\_Exploringdefinitionsoffoodinsecurity.pdf](http://www.hsra.ac.za/.../6183_Hart_Exploringdefinitionsoffoodinsecurity.pdf). Accessed on 31 May 2007.

Devine, J. (2001). *A multi-sectoral approach to planning services for AIDS orphans.* Sambatong District, Bangkok: UNICEF.

Dieltiens, V., Meny-Gilbert, S. (2008). *School drop-out: Poverty and patterns of exclusion.* In Pendlebury *et al.* (eds.) *South African Child Gauge 2008/2009.* Cape

Town: Children's Institute.

Dockrell, J., Messer, D. (1999). *Developmental Psychology*. London: Hodder Education.

Dodd, A.W., Konzal, J.I. (2002). *How communities build stronger schools: Stories, strategies and promising practices for educating every child*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Donahue J., Williamson J. (1998). *Community mobilization to address the impacts of AIDS: A review of the COPE II program in Malawi*. Washington: Displaced Children and Orphans Fund and War Victims Fund.

Donald, D., Lazarus, S., Lolwana, P. (1997). *Educational psychology in the social context*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Dorrington, R.E., Johnson, L.F., Bradshaw D., Daniel, T-J. (2006). *The Demographic Impact of HIV/AIDS in South Africa – National and Provincial Indicators for 2006*. Cape Town: Centre for Actuarial Research, South African Medical Research and Actuarial Society of South Africa.

Douglas, J. (2005). *Transformation of the South African schooling system: teacher professionalism and education transformation*. Braamfontein: Centre for Education Policy Development. Available [online]: [www.thutong.doe.gov.za/resourcedownload.aspx?id](http://www.thutong.doe.gov.za/resourcedownload.aspx?id) Accessed on 5 July 2009.

Du Toit, A., Ziervogel, G. (2004). *Vulnerability and Food Insecurity: Background concepts for informing the development of a national FIVIMS for South Africa*. FIVIMS-ZA. Unpublished manuscript. Pretoria: FIVIMS.

Ebersöhn, L., Eloff, I. (2006). *Identifying asset-based trends in sustainable programmes which support vulnerable children*. South African Journal of Education. Volume 26(3) 457-472.

Education International (2007). *Training for life. Teacher training on HIV/AIDS*. Brussels: Education International.

Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) (2005). *Educator Supply and Demand in the South African Public Education System: Integrated Report*. Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Eloff, I. (2003). *Understanding the asset-based approach*. In: Ebersöhn L & Eloff, I. Life-skills and assets. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Emerging Voices (2005). *A report on education in South African rural communities*. Houghton: Nelson Mandela Foundation.

Emler, N. (2001). *Self-esteem: The cost and causes of low self-worth*. New York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation.

Epstein, J.L., Simon, B.S., Salinas, K.C. (1997). *Involving parents in work in the middle grades*. Research bulletin No 18. [Online] Available <http://www.pdknit.org/edrs/resbull.8htm>. Accessed: 20 May 2010.

Ferreira, R. (2006). *The relationship between coping with HIV/AIDS and the asset-based approach*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

Fiske, E.B., Ladd, H.F. (2004). *Balance of public and private resources for basic education. School fees in post-apartheid South Africa*. In: Chisholm, L. (2004). *Changing class education and social change in post-apartheid South Africa*. Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Foster, G. (2002). *Understanding community responses to the situation of children affected by AIDS: Lessons for external agencies*. Draft paper prepared for the UNSRID project: HIV/AIDS and Development.

Foster, G. (2003). *Study of the response of Faith-Based Organisations to orphans and*

*vulnerable children – a preliminary summary report.* New York: World Conference of religions for Peace, UNICEF.

Foster, G. (2004). *Safety nets for children affected by AIDS in Southern Africa.* In A generation at risk? HIV/AIDS, vulnerable children and security in Southern Africa. Edited by Pharoah, R. ISS Monograph Services. No. 109. Pretoria: Institute for Security Studies.

Foster, G., Makufa, C., Drew, R., Kanbeu, S., Saurombe, K. (1996). *Supporting children in need through a community-based orphan visiting programme.* *AIDS Care*, 389-403.

Foster, G., Makufa, C., Drew, R., Krahe, E. (1997). *Factors leading to the establishment of child-headed households: The case of Zimbabwe.* *Health Transition Review*, 7 (Supplement 2): 155-168.

Fouche', C.B., Delport, C.S.L. (2002). *Quantitative research designs.* In De Vos, A.S., Strydom, H., Fouche', C.B., Delport, C.S.L. *Research at grassroots for the social sciences and human services profession.* Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Furlong, M.J., Morrisson, G.M. (1994). *School violence and safety in perspective.* *School Psychology Review*, 32; 139-150.

Gachuchi, D. (1999). *The impact of HIV/AIDS on education systems in the Eastern and Southern African Regions and the response of education systems to HIV/AIDS: Life-skills Programme.* Nairobi; UNICEF, Eastern and Southern Africa Regional Office (ESARO).

Garbarino, J., Ganzel, B. (2000). *The human ecology of early risk.* In Shonkoff & Meisels (eds), *Handbook of early childhood intervention* (2<sup>nd</sup> edition). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gazda, G.M., Childers, W.C., Brooks, D.K. (1987). *Foundations of Counselling and*

*Human Services*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Geldard, K., Geldard, D. (1999). *Counselling adolescents: The pro-active approach*. London: Sage Publications.

Geldard, K., Geldard, D. (2005). *Counselling Children: A practical introduction*. London: Sage Publications.

Germann, S.E. (2005). *An Exploratory Study of Quality of Life and Coping Strategies of orphans living in child-headed households in the high HIV/AIDS prevalent city of Bulawayo, Zimbabwe*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Pretoria: UNISA.

Giese, S., Meintjes, H., Croke, R., Chamberlain, R. (2003). *The Role of School in Addressing the Needs of Children Made Vulnerable in the Context Of HIV//AIDS*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town – Children's Institute.

Giese, S., Zide, H., Koch, R., Hall, K (2005). *A study of the implementation and impact of the No-fee and Exemption Policies*. Cape Town: Alliance for Children's Entitlement to Social Security.

Gilbert, N. (1993). *Research, theory and method*. In: Gilbert, N. (Ed.) *Researching Social Life*. London: Sage.

Glasser, W. (1985). *Control theory. A new explanation of how we control our lives*. New York: Harper & Row.

Glasser, W (1992). *The quality school: managing students without coercion*. (2<sup>nd</sup> edition). New York; Harper Perennial.

Glew, G., Rivara, F., Feudtner, C. (2000). *Bullying: Children hurting children*. *Paediatric Review* , 21:183-189. American Academy of Paediatrics. Also available [online]: [www.medscape.com/viewarticle/708250\\_5](http://www.medscape.com/viewarticle/708250_5). Accessed on 8 July 2009.

- Goba L 2009. *Personal interview: District Coordinator for HIV and AIDS teacher training*, Port Elizabeth District.
- Gouws, E., Kruger, N. (1995). *The adolescent: an educational perspective*. Durban: Butterworths.
- Govender P 2004. *Erasing the future: the tragedy of Africa's education*. The South African Institute of International Affairs. *e-Africa*, 2:1-9.
- Graham, S. (2004). *Child-headed households in Uganda. A pilot study*. Unpublished manuscript. Jinja: International Care and Relief & Street Child Africa.
- Grainger, C., Webb, D., Elliott, R. (2001). *Children affected by HIV/AIDS. Rights and responses in the developing world*. (Rep. No 23). London: Save the Children. Available [online]: [www.savethechildren.net/alliance/resources/last\\_res.pdf](http://www.savethechildren.net/alliance/resources/last_res.pdf). Accessed on 19 February 2009.
- Gregson, S., Nyamukapa, C.A., Garnett, G.P., Wambe, M., Lewis, J.J., Mason, P.R., Chandiwana, S.K., Anderson, R.M. (2005). *HIV infection and reproductive health in teenage women orphaned and made vulnerable by AIDS in Zimbabwe*. *AIDS Care*, 17; 785-794.
- Guba, E.G., Lincoln, Y.S. (1994). *Competing paradigms in qualitative research*. In: Denzin, N.K., Lincoln, Y.S. (eds.). *Handbook of qualitative research*. London: Sage.
- Gunderson, C., Kelly, T., Jemison, K. (2004). *The demand for education for orphans in Zimbabwe. African Development and Poverty Reduction*. The macro-micro linkage forum paper: 2004, 13-15 October: Somerset West. Available [online]: [www.thefreelibrary.com/The+impact+of+the+HIV%2FAIDS+and+economic+crises+on+orphans+and+other...-a0206851502](http://www.thefreelibrary.com/The+impact+of+the+HIV%2FAIDS+and+economic+crises+on+orphans+and+other...-a0206851502) Accessed on 27 April 2009.
- Haasbroek, J.B., Beukes, J.H., Carstens, J.H., Bongers, C.J. (1978). *School Guidance: Principles and Methods*. Pretoria: HSRC.

Hallman, K., Grant, M. (2004). *Poverty, educational attainment and livelihoods. How well do young people fare in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa?* Horizons Research Summary. Washington, USA: Populations Council.

Hartley, A., Visser, M.E., Sheppard, C. (1998). *The condition of primary and secondary education in the Northern Province (1995/1996)*. Pretoria: HSRC.

Hartley, A., Visser, M.E., Sheppard, C. (2006). *The condition of primary and secondary education in Limpopo and the Northern Province* Pretoria: HSRC.

Heeralal, P.J.H. (2002). *The influence of educational legislation on the life world of educators*. Unpublished master's dissertation. Umlazi: University of Zululand.

Hepburn, A. (2001). *Primary education in Eastern and Southern Africa. Increasing access for orphans and vulnerable children in AIDS affected areas*. Report prepared for the Displaced Children and Orphans Fund of USAID. Institute of Public Health Policy: Duke University. Available [Online]: [www.usaid.gov/our\\_work/humanitarian.../the\\_funds/.../hepburnfinal.pdf](http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/humanitarian.../the_funds/.../hepburnfinal.pdf) Accessed on 14 August 2009.

Holmes, J. (2001). *In search of the secure base*. London: Routledge.

Holmes, J. (2003). *John Bowlby and attachment theory*. New York: Brunner-Routledge.

Hopson, B., Scally, M. (1986). *Life-skills Teaching*. London: McGraw Hill Book Company.

Howard, G.S. (1985). *Basic research methods in social sciences*. Glenview: Scoll Forsman & Company.

Huber, U.S., Gould, W.T.S. (2003). *The effect of orphanhood on primary school*

*attendance reconsidered: The power of female-headed households in Tanzania.* Liverpool: University of Liverpool. Available [online]: [www.iiep.unesco.org/fileadmin/user\\_upload/Cap\\_Dev.../4\\_3.pdf](http://www.iiep.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/Cap_Dev.../4_3.pdf). Accessed on 13 May 2008.

Human Rights Watch. (2004). *Forgotten schools: Rights to basic education for children on farms in South Africa.* New York: Human Rights Watch.

Human Rights Watch. (2005). *Failing our Children. Barriers to the Rights of Education.* Stockholm: University of Stockholm.

Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) (1981). *Report of the work committee on guidance.* Pretoria: HSRC.

Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) (2006). *Psychosocial Conditions of Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Two Zimbabwean Districts.* Cape Town: HSRC.

Hunter, S., Williamson, J. (2001). *Children on the Brink.* Executive summary. Updated estimates and recommendations for interventions. Washington: USAID.

Huysamen, G.K. (1989). *Beskrywende Stastiek vir die Sociale Wetenskappe.* Pretoria: Academia.

International Institute of Education Planning – Education Sector AIDS Response Trust (ESART) (2007). *Education planning and management in a world of AIDS: A series of training modules.* Paris: IIEP. Available: [online] : [hivaidsclearinghouse.unesco.org/search/resources/iiep\\_hiv\\_clarke.pdf](http://hivaidsclearinghouse.unesco.org/search/resources/iiep_hiv_clarke.pdf). Accessed on 4 June 2010.

International Labour Organisation (ILO), (2004). *HIV/AIDS and Work. Global estimates, impact and response.* Geneva: ILO.

Ivey, A.E., Alschuter, A.S. (1973). *An introduction to the field.* Personal & Guidance

Journal, 51(9), 519 – 597.

Jennings, G. (2001). *Tourism Research*. Brisbane: John-Wiley & Sons.

Jensen, L.C. (1985). *Adolescence*. New York: West Publishing Company.

Johnson, A.R. & Dean, W. (2007) *Applied Multivariate Analysis*. Wichern Publishing Company.

Johnson, D. & Johnson, F. (2003). *Joining together: Group theory and Group Skills*. Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.

Jonsson, U. (2004). *A human rights approach to development programming*. New York: UNICEF. Available [online]: [www.unicef.org/.../A\\_Human\\_Rights\\_Based\\_Approach\\_to\\_Education\\_for\\_All.pdf](http://www.unicef.org/.../A_Human_Rights_Based_Approach_to_Education_for_All.pdf). Accessed on 7 May 2008.

Jordan, C., Orozco, E., and Averett, A. (2001) *Emerging issues in School, Family, & Community Connections – Annual Synthesis – 2001*. National Centre for Family & Community Connections with Schools. South West Educational Development Laboratory: Texas. Available [online] [www.sedi.org/organisation](http://www.sedi.org/organisation). Accessed on 21 October 2009

Joubert, R and Prinsloo, S (2001). *Education law: A practical guide for teachers*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Keller, J.R. (1999). *A formative and summative evaluation of peer counselling training programme at a college of education*. Unpublished master's dissertation. University of Natal. Pietermaritzburg: University of Natal.

Kelly, M.J. (2000). *Planning for education in the context of HIV/AIDS*. Paris: IIEP.

Available [online]: [www.iiep.unesco.org/fileadmin/user\\_upload/Cap\\_Dev.../1\\_2.pdf](http://www.iiep.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/Cap_Dev.../1_2.pdf). Accessed on 21 May 2009.

Kelly, M.J. (2005). *The response of the educational system to the needs of orphans and vulnerable children affected by HIV/AIDS*. In: Fastner, G., Williamson, J., Levinc, C. (eds.). *A generation at risk: The Global impact of HIV/AIDS on orphans and vulnerable children*. London: Cambridge University Press.

Kidder, L.H., Judd, C.M. (1986). *Research method in social relations*. New York: Houghton Mifflin.

Killian, B. (2004). *The development, implementation and evaluation of a community-based programme offering psychosocial support to vulnerable children: Those affected by HIV/AIDS, poverty and violence*. Phd thesis. Durban: University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Kinghorn, A., Rugeiyamu, J., Schierhout, G., Johnson, S., McKay, E., Ndegwa, D., Coombe, C., Mendlesohn, J., Villet, C. (2002). *The impact of HIV/AIDS on education in Namibia*. Ministry of Higher Education Training and Employment Creation. Department of International Development (UK) and UNAIDS.

Kinsman, J., Nakiyingi, J., Kamali, A., Carpenter, L., Quigley, M., Pool, R., Whitworth, J. (2001). *Evaluation of a comprehensive school-based AIDS programme in rural Masaka*. Uganda Health Education Research, 16(1) 85-100.

Kretzmann, J.P., McKnight, J.L. (1993). *Building communities from the inside out. A path toward finding and mobilizing a community's assets*. Chicago: ACTA Publications.

Kumakech, E., Elizabeth, C-G., Samuel, M., Bajunirwe, F. (2009). *Peer support intervention improves the psychological well-being of AIDS orphans. Cluster randomized trial*. Social Science and Medicine, 68, 1038-1043. Available [online]: [http://www.elsevier.com/wps/find/journaldescription.cws\\_home/315/description#description](http://www.elsevier.com/wps/find/journaldescription.cws_home/315/description#description) Accessed on 21 July 2010.

Lawson, D. (1989). Peer helping programmes in the college and universities of Quebec and Ontario. *Canadian Journal of Counselling*, 23(1), 41-54.

Lee, T. (1999). *FOCUS - Evaluation Report: Report of a participatory self-evaluation of the FACT Families, Orphans and Children Under Stress (FOCUS) programme*. Mutare: FACT. [Online] Available at [www.safaid.org](http://www.safaid.org). Accessed 15 June 2008.

Leedy, P.D. (1992). *Practical Research Planning and Design*. New York: Mcmillan.

Lewis, M.W., Lewis, A.C. (1996). *Peer helping programmes: Helper role, supervisor training and suicidal behaviour*. *Journal of Counselling and Development*, 74(3), 307-313.

Life-skills Foundation (2003). *Child friendly community schools approach for promoting health, psychosocial schools approach for promoting health, psychosocial resilience in children and youth affected by AIDS*. China:Chiang Main Life-skills Foundation.

Light, M. (2004). *Adolescence: Change and Continuity: Cognitive Transfers*. [Online] Available: <http://insidebord.Edu/academic/specialproj/darling/adpeer1.htm>. Accessed on 15 May 2009.

Lopez, G. R. (2001). *On whose terms? Understanding involvement through the eyes of migrant parents*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Seattle, WA.

Louw, L. (2005). *The experiences of adolescents orphaned by HIV/AIDS related conditions*. Unpublished master's dissertation. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

Louw, J., Shisana, O., Peltzer, K., Zungu, N. (2009). *Examining the impact of HIV/AIDS on South African educators*. *South African Journal of Education*, 29(2). 205-207

Lovell, K. (1967). *Educational psychology and children*. London: University of London Press.

Lloyd, B.D. (2005). *The effects of reality therapy/choice theory principles on high school student's perceptions on needs satisfaction and behavioural change*. *Journal of Reality Therapy* 25 (1), 5-9.

Lubisi, C. (2006). *Media Release on No-Fee Schools*: Department of Education, KZN, 20th July 2006, Pietermaritzburg.

Luzze, F. (2002). *Survival in child-headed households: a study on the impact of the World Vision Support on coping strategies in child-headed households in Kakuuto country, Rakai District, Uganda*. Unpublished master's thesis. Leeds: University of Leeds, Oxford Centre for Mission Studies/World Vision. Available:[online]: [www.lac.org.na/projects/grap/Pdf/unravellingt.pdf](http://www.lac.org.na/projects/grap/Pdf/unravellingt.pdf). Accessed on 12 May 200.

Mahlangu, D.M.D. (1987). *Educational Research Methodology*. Pretoria: De Jager Haum.

Makufa, C., Xaba, B. (2001). *Appraisal of CARITAS Orphanaid Programme*. Mbababane: CARITAS.

Maphutha, M.M. (2006). *Identifying the needs and assets of a primary school in a rural community: A case study*. Unpublished Masters thesis. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

Maslow, A. (1971). *The Farther Reaches of Human Nature*. New York: The Viking Press.

Massey, A. (2000). *Methodological triangulation*. [Online] Available at <http://www.freeyourvoice.co.uk/htm/triangulation3.htm>. Accessed: 16 June 2010.

Masten, A. (2000). *Children who overcome adversity to succeed in life*. Minnesota: University of Minnesota Extension Service. Available [online]: [www.extension.umn.edu/distribution/.../7565\\_06.html](http://www.extension.umn.edu/distribution/.../7565_06.html). Accessed on 26 June 2009.

May, I. (2000). *Poverty and Inequality in South Africa. Meeting the challenge*. Cape

Town: David Phillip Publishers.

Meintjies, H., Giese, S. (2006). *Spinning the epidemic. The making of mythologies of orphanhood in the context of AIDS*. *Childhood*, 13 (3): 407-430.

Mobile Task Team (MTT). (2003). *HIV/AIDS and Education in KwaZulu-Natal. A pilot study of education mortality*. Durban: HEARD, University of Natal. Also available [online] [www.iiep.unesco.org/fileadmin/user\\_upload/Cap\\_Dev.../3\\_2.pdf](http://www.iiep.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/Cap_Dev.../3_2.pdf). Accessed on 26 March 2008.

Morley D. G.. (2002). *Social research: A simple guide*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Morsink, J. (1999). *The Universal Declaration of Human Rights: Origins, Drafting and Intent*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Motepe, M. (2006). *A life-skills programme for early adolescent AIDS orphans*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

Mouton, J. (2009). *How to succeed in your Master's and Doctoral Studies: A South African Guide and Resource Book*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Mukuyogo, M.C., Williams, G. (1991). *AIDS orphans: A community perspective from Tanzania*. Strategies for Hope, 5 (Action Aid / AMREF / World in Need).

Mulder, J.C. (1989). *Statistical techniques in education*. Pretoria: Academica.

Nachmias, C., Nachmias, D. (1981). *Research methods in social sciences*. New York: St Martins Press.

Nelson Mandela Children's Fund Report (2001). *Report on a study into the situation and special needs of children in child-headed households*. Johannesburg: Nelson Mandela Children's Fund. Available: [Online]: [www.nelsonmandelachildrensfund.com/.../DOC1228132423.pdf](http://www.nelsonmandelachildrensfund.com/.../DOC1228132423.pdf) Accessed on 3 June

2006.

Netshithame, N.E., Van Vollenhoven, M.J. (2002). *School safety in rural schools: Are schools safe as we think they are?* South African Journal of Education, 22(4) 313-318.

Neuman, W.L. (1997). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. 3<sup>rd</sup> Edition. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Neuman, W. L. (2006). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. 6<sup>th</sup>ed. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Neuman, P.R., Newman, B.M. (1997). *Childhood and adolescence*. Pacific Grove: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.

Newman, L. (1995). *School agency-community partnerships. What is the early impact on student school performance?* Menlo Park: California Healthy Start.

Noguera, PA. (1996). *The critical stub of violence prevention*. The School Administration, 53: 8-13.

Nyambedha, E., Wandiba, S., Agaard-Hansen, J. (2003). *Changing patterns of orphan care cure to the HIV epidemic in Western Kenya*. Social Science and Medicine, 57: 301-311.

Nyamukapa, C.A, Gregson, S. (2004). *Extended families and women's role in safeguarding orphan's education in AIDS afflicted rural Zimbabwe*. Social Science and Medicine, 60 2155-2167.

Ogina, T.A. (2007). *Redefining the role of educators in managing the needs of orphaned learners*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

Olsen, L., Chang, H., Sulazar, D.D., Leong, C., Perez, M., McClain, G., Raffel, L. (1994). *The unfinished journey: Restructuring schools in diverse society*. San

Francisco: California Tomorrow Publications.

Oppenheim, A. (1992). *Questionnaire Design, Interviewing and Attitude Measurement*. London: Printer Publications.

OSSA. (2003). *Community realities and responses to HIV/AIDS in Sub-Saharan Africa*. United Nations: New York. Available [online]: [www.un.org/africa/osaa/reports.html](http://www.un.org/africa/osaa/reports.html). Accessed on 31 August 2007.

Paisley, P.O. (2001). *Maintaining and Enhancing the Developmental Focus on School Counselling Programmes*. In *Professional School Counselling* 4(4) p. 271-277

Peltzer, K., Shisana, O., Udjo, C., Wilson, D., Rehle, D., Connolly, C., Zama, K., Leflape, L., Louw, J., Simbayi, L., Zungu-Dirwayi, N., Ramlagan, S., Magome, K., Hall, E., Phurutse, M. (2005). *Educator supply and demand in the South African public education system: Integrated Report*. Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Pendlebury, S., Lake, L., Smith, C. (2009). *South African Child Gauge 2008/2009*. Cape Town: Children's Institute, University of Cape Town.

Piron, L.H., Watkins, F. (2004). *DFID Human rights Review: A review of how DFID has integrated human rights into its work*. London: ODI. Available [online]: [www.odi.org.uk/resources/download/1555.pdf](http://www.odi.org.uk/resources/download/1555.pdf). Accessed on 16 September 2008.

Qulai, D., Carr-Hill, R. (1993). *The impact of HIV/AIDS on education*. Report of the International Institute for Educational Planning seminar. Paris: IIEP. Also Available [online] at: [www.ibe.unesco.org/International/.../6-ADEA-HIVQualityEducation-E.pdf](http://www.ibe.unesco.org/International/.../6-ADEA-HIVQualityEducation-E.pdf). Accessed on 23 September 2007.

Rehle, T., Shisana, O. (2005). *Epidemiological and demographic projections: South Africa*. *African Journal of AIDS Research*, (2), 1-8.

Republic of South Africa (1996a). *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act no.*

108 of 1996. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (1996b). *National Education Policy, Act No 27 of 1996*. Pretoria: Department of Education.

Republic of South Africa (1998a). *South African Schools Act 1996 (No 84 of 1996): Exemption of Parents from the Payment of School Fees Regulations, 1998*. Government Notice 1293, Government Gazette 19347 of 1998. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (1998b). *The Employment Of Educators Act 76 Of 1998*. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa (1999). *National Policy on HIV and AIDS for Learners and Educators in Public Schools and Students and Educators in Further Education and Training Institutions*. 10 August 1999 Vol. 410 No. 2. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Richter, L. (2003). *The impact of HIV/AIDS on the development of children*. Paper presented at the Institute for Security Studies Seminar 'HIV/AIDS, vulnerability and children: Dynamics and long-term implications for Southern Africa's security', Pretoria, 4 April.

Riet, M., Hough, A., Killian, V., Ram, A. (2006). *Mapping Barriers to Basic Education in the Context of HIV and AIDS*. A report on research conducted in the Richmond District, KwaZulu-Natal. Researched and written by the research team, led by Professor Nithi Muthukrishna, School of Education and Development, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg campus, KwaZulu-Natal.

Rihani, M. (2000). *Girls' education: A key intervention to mitigate HIV/AIDS*. Executive summary. Duke University, Durham: Academy for Educational Development.

Saidi, M., Rosenzweig, L., Karuri, G. (2003). *I am (community): Integrated community asset-mapping, mobilization and management*. Paper presented at HSRC Seminar

Series, 4 November 2003. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council.

Sanders, M.G. (1998). *The effects of school, family, community support on the academic achievement of African-American adolescents. Urban education*, 33(3), 385-409.

Sanders, M.G. (2001). *The role of community in comprehensive school, family and community partnership programmes. Elementary School Journal*, 102, 19-34.

Schumacher, S., McMillan, J.M. (1983). *Understanding educational research*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Seifert, K.L., Hoffnung, R.J. (2000). *Child and adolescent development*. 5<sup>th</sup> Edition. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company

Senderowitz, J., Kirby, D. (2006). *Standards for curriculum-based reproductive health and HIV education programmes*. Arlington: Family Health International YouthNet.

Shaver, A.V., Walls, R.T. (1998). *Effect of title 1: parental involvement on student reading and mathematics achievement. Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 3(2) 90-97.

Sengendo, J., Nambi, J. (1997). *The psychological effects of orphanhood. A study of orphans in the Rakai District. Health Transition Review*, supplement 7, 105-124.

Shisana, O., Peltzer, K., Zungu-Dirwayi, N., Louw, J. (2005). *The health of our educators: A focus on HIV/AIDS in South African schools*. Cape Town: HSRC.

Skinner, D., Tsheko, N., Metro-Munyati, S., Segwabe, M., Chibatamoto, P., Mfecane, S., Chandiwana, N., Nkomop, S., Chitiyo G. (2004). *Defining Orphanhood and Vulnerable Children*. Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Smart, R. (2003). *Policies for orphans and vulnerable children. A framework for*

moving ahead: Washington DC, Futures Group. [Online] Available at <http://www.policyproject.com/pubs/generalreport/ovcpolicies.pdf>. Accessed: 12 May 2010.

Statistics South Africa (2005). *General Household Survey – 2005*. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

Statistics South Africa. (2007). *Quarterly Labour Force Review*. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Statistics South Africa (2008). *General household survey – 2007*. In: Children Count – Abantwana Babalukekile (229). Cape Town: Children’s Institute. Available [online] [www.childrencount.ci.org.za/content.asp?toplinkID=10&PageID=64](http://www.childrencount.ci.org.za/content.asp?toplinkID=10&PageID=64). Accessed: 23 May 2010.

Statistics South Africa. (2009). *Basic results of a community survey- 2007*. [Online] Available [www.statssa.gov.za/community\\_new/content.asp](http://www.statssa.gov.za/community_new/content.asp). Accessed on 15 May 2010.

Subbarao, K., Coury, D. (2004). *Reaching out to Africa’s orphans: A framework for public action*. Washington: World Bank.

Tager, N. (2003). *Bridging the gap: rural education needs to address sustainability of the community*. In Education Africa Forum: Delivering Africa’s education renaissance in South Africa. (6<sup>th</sup> Edition.) Pietermaritzburg: Education Africa.

Terre Blanche, M., Durrheim, K. (1999). *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town.

Thandanani Children’s Foundation. (2003). *Observations about access to basic social services for children*. Pietermaritzburg: Thandanani Children’s Foundation.

Theron, L., Dalzell, C. (2006). *The specific life orientation needs of Grade 9 learners in*

*the Vaal triangle region.* South African Journal of Education, 26. 397-412.

Tolfree, D.K. (2003). *Community Based Care for Separated Children.* Sweden: Save the Children. Available [online]: [www.unicef.org/adolescence/cypguide/index\\_protection.htm](http://www.unicef.org/adolescence/cypguide/index_protection.htm). Accessed on 21 February 2007

Tolfree, D.K. (2004). *Whose children? Separated children's protection and participation in emergencies.* Stokholm: Save the Children. Torrance, E.P. (1994). *Just wanting to know.* Pretoria: Benedict Books. Available [online]: [www.disastermh.nebraska.edu/files/psychosocial\\_bibliography.pdf](http://www.disastermh.nebraska.edu/files/psychosocial_bibliography.pdf) Accessed on 21 February 2007.

Trusty, J. (1999). *Effects of eight-grade parental involvement on late adolescent's educational experiences.* Journal of Research and Development in Education, 32(4), 224-233.

Uganda Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development. (2004). *National Orphans and other Vulnerable Children Policy: Hope never runs dry.* Kampala: Uganda Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development.

UNAIDS (1997). *Children living in a world of AIDS.* Geneva: UNAIDS.

UNAIDS (2001). *Investing in our future: Psychosocial support for children affected by HIV/AIDS: A case study in Zimbabwe and United Republic of Tanzania.* Geneva: UNAIDS.

UNAIDS (2001). *Best Practice Collection.* Geneva: UNAIDS.

UNAIDS (2004). *AIDS and Orphans: A tragedy unfolding.* Geneva: UNAIDS. Available [online]: [www.searo.who.int/.../Facts\\_and\\_Figures\\_UNAIDSGlobalReport2004\\_en.pdf](http://www.searo.who.int/.../Facts_and_Figures_UNAIDSGlobalReport2004_en.pdf). Accessed on 13 May 2007.

UNAIDS (2006). *Report on the global AIDS epidemic*. Geneva: UNAIDS.

UNAIDS IATT on Education (2004). *HIV/AIDS and Education: The role of education in the protection, care and support of orphans and vulnerable children living in a world with HIV/AIDS*. Paris: UNESCO. [online] Available:[http://data.unaids.org/.../Globalreport/2006/2006\\_GR-ExecutiveSummary\\_en.pdf](http://data.unaids.org/.../Globalreport/2006/2006_GR-ExecutiveSummary_en.pdf)

UNESCO (2000). *Education for All, Dakar, Framework for Action*. [Online] Available:[http://unesco.org/education/efa/ed\\_for\\_all/framework.shtml](http://unesco.org/education/efa/ed_for_all/framework.shtml). Accessed: 12 July 2008.

UNESCO (2004). *Education for ALL: The quality imperative*. EFA global monitoring report. Paris: UNESCO.

UNESCO (2006). *HIV/AIDS and safe, secure and supportive learning environments*. (Good policy and practice in HIV/AIDS and education, booklet 3). Paris: UNESCO.

UNICEF (1999). *Children orphaned by AIDS: Frontline responses from Eastern and Southern Africa*. Geneva: UNICEF.

UNICEF (2002). *HIV/AIDS education: a gender perspective, tips and tools*. New York: UNICEF. Available [online]:  
[www.unicef.org/.../Eliminating\\_Gender\\_Disparity\\_in\\_Primary\\_Education\\_Turkey\(1\).pdf](http://www.unicef.org/.../Eliminating_Gender_Disparity_in_Primary_Education_Turkey(1).pdf). Accessed on 19 August 2007.

UNICEF (2003a). *Protection and support of orphans and families affected by HIV/AIDS*. Geneva: UNICEF Press release.

UNICEF (2003b). *Hope never dries up: facing the challenges*. A situational assessment analysis of children in Zimbabwe, 2002 update. Harare: United Nations Children's Fund.

UNICEF, (2006). *Africa's AIDS orphans and vulnerable generations*. Children affected

by AIDS. [Online] Available at: <http://www.unicef.org/publications/index35645html>. Accessed: 14 June 2010.

UNICEF (2007). *Life-skills: A human rights-based approach to education for all*. New York: UNICEF. Available [online]: [www.unicef.org/.../A\\_Human\\_Rights\\_Based\\_Approach\\_to\\_Education\\_for\\_All](http://www.unicef.org/.../A_Human_Rights_Based_Approach_to_Education_for_All) . Accessed on 31 May 2008.

UNICEF and UNAIDS (2004). *Strategic framework for the protection, care and support of orphans and other children made vulnerable by HIV/AIDS*. New York: UNICEF.

United Nations (2001). *Declaration of commitment on HIV/AIDS*. United Nations General Assembly Special Session on HIV/AIDS: 25-27 June 2001. New York UNAIDS.

United Nations (2003). *Report on the secondary interagency workshops on implementing a human rights approach in the context of UN reform*. Stamford, USA.

United Nations. (2009). *Overcoming inequality: Why governance matters*. Education for All, Global Monitoring Report. Paris: UN.

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2005). *Millennium Development Goals*. New York: Oxford University Press.

United Nations General Assembly (1998). *Convention on the Rights of the Child*. Document A/RES/44/25, 12 December 1998.

USAID, (2003). *Increasing learning opportunities for orphans and vulnerable children in Africa*. Africa Bureau Brief No, 3. Washington: USAID.

Van de Berg, D.N. (2004). *Contextual factors affecting adolescents risk for HIV/AIDS infection: Implications for education*. Unpublished master's dissertation. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

Van Den Aardweg, E.M., Van Den Aardweg, E.D. (1993). *Dictionary of empirical education*. Pretoria: E & E Enterprises.

Van Deventer, K. (2009). *Perspectives of teachers on the implementation of life orientation in Grades R-11 from selected Western Cape schools*. Unpublished research report, Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch.

Van Deventer, L., Kruger, A.G., Van der Merwe, H.M., Prinsloo, I.J., Steinmann, C.F. (2003). *An educators' guide to school management skills*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Van Dyk, A. (2001). *Moral and Social Complexities of AIDS in Africa*. *Journal of Medicine and Philosophy*, 27(2): 143-162.

Van Niekerk, E., Van Eeden, C., Botha, K. (2001). *Reflections on psychological strengths and vulnerabilities*. In: Van Niekerk, Prins, A. *Counselling in Southern Africa: A youth perspective*. Sandown: Heinemann Publishers.

Van Rensburg, C.J.J., Landmann, W.A., Bodenstein, H.C.A. (1994). *Basic concepts in education*. Halfway House: Orion.

Van Rooyen, L., Hartell, C. (2001). *HIV and Education – Beyond 2000*. In: Calitz, L, Fugelstad, O.L., Lillejord, S. (eds). *Leadership in Education*. Cape Town: Heinemann.

Varenhorst, B.B. (1984). *Peer counselling: past promises, current status and future discussions*. In Brown, S.D., Lent, R.W. (Eds.) *Handbook of Counselling Psychology*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Veal, A.J. (1997). *Research methods for leisure and tourism: a practical guide*. London: Pittman.

Vermaak, K., Mavimbela, N., Chege, J., Esu-Williams, E. (2004). *Challenges faced by households in caring for orphans and vulnerable children*. Research paper in

conjunction with Horizons, Frontiers, DRA, USAID and Nelson Mandela Children's Fund. Washington DC: Populations Council/Horizon Frontiers Communication Unit.

Veriava, F. (2005). *Free to Learn: A discussion paper on the school fee exemption policy*. In: Leatt, A., Rosa, S. (Eds.). *Towards a means to live: Targeting poverty alleviation to make children's rights real*. Cape Town: Children's Institute (UCT).

Visser, M.J. (2005). *Life-skills training as HIV/AIDS preventative strategy in secondary schools: evaluation of a large scale implementation programme*. *Journal des Aspects Sociaux du VIH/SIDA*, Vol. 2 No. 1, AVRIL 2005. Available at University of Pretoria. Department of Psychology, University of Pretoria, Brooklyn, 0002 South Africa. E-mail: mjvisser@postino.up.ac.za.

Vockell, E.L., Asher, J.W. (1995). *Educational Research*. Englewoods Cliff:: Prentice Hall.

Walonick, D. (2004). *Excerpts from survival statistics*. [Online] Available: <http://wwwstatpac.com/surveys/surveys.doc>. Accessed 22 April, 2010.

Welman, J.C., Kruger, S.J. (2001). *Research Methodology - for the Business and Administrative Sciences*. 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition, , Cape Town: South Africa. Oxford University Press.

Welman J.C., Kruger, S.J., Mitchell B. (2005). *Research Methodology*. (3<sup>rd</sup> ed). Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Welman J.C. (2006). *Research Methodology*. (3<sup>rd</sup> ed). Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Wertsch, J.V. (1985). *Culture, communication and cognition: Vygotskian Perspectives*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wildeman, R.A. (2008). *Reviewing eight years of the implementation of the school*

*funding norm: 2000 -2008.* Cape Town: IDASA.

Winberg, C. (1997). *How to research and evaluate.* Cape Town: Juta.

World Bank. (2000). *Exploring the implications of the HIV/AIDS epidemic for educational planning in selected African countries: The demographic question.* Paper presented at a workshop on impact of HIV/AIDS on education. Paris: World Bank.

World Bank. (2002). *Education and HIV/AIDS: A window of hope.* Washington: World Bank.

World Bank. (2005). *Expanding opportunities and building capacities for young people: A new agenda for secondary education.* Washington DC: World Bank.

World Health Organisation (WHO) (1994). *Training workshops for the development and implementation of life-skills programmes.* Division of Mental Health. Geneva: World Health Organization.

World Health Organisation (WHO) (2004). *Participatory learning activities from EI/WHO Training and Resources Manual on School Health and HIV/AIDS prevention.* WHO Information services on school Health Department – a Teachers Manual. Geneva: World Health Organization.

Zigler, E., Muenchow, S. (1992). *Headstart: The inside story of America's most successful educational experiment.* New York: Basic Books.

Zuberi, F., Ebersöhn, L., Mampane, K., Maritz, J., Lubbe, C., Mboweni, H., Pieterse, J. (2006). *Construction of safety and risk factors by learners in the Limpopo Province, South Africa. Results of a baseline survey of learners in Sekhukhume, Bohlabela and Vhembe districts.* Unpublished research report. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1 Letter to Superintendent of Education (Management)

Mr. L. Naidoo  
C/o Umkomaas Secondary School  
Private Bag X1029  
Umkomaas  
4170

2008:04:30

Superintendent of Education:  
ATTENTION: Mr. C.K. Ngcobo  
Dududu Ward  
Scottburgh Circuit

Sir

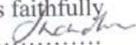
REF: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT SURVEY

I am registered for a Doctor of Education Degree in the Department of Educational Psychology at the University of Zululand.

I am conducting research for a dissertation titled *The role of the educator in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.* (A copy of the questionnaire is attached).

I wish to administer the questionnaire to educators selected randomly in the Dududu ward. It should take approximately 10-15 minutes and will not interfere with the normal functioning of the school.

Yours faithfully

  
.....  
L. Naidoo

---

Attention Mr. L. Naidoo

Date: *13 May 2008*

You are granted/~~not granted~~ permission to conduct the research.

Yours faithfully

  
.....  
Mr. C. K. Ngcobo  
(Superintendent of Education – Dududu Ward)

---

PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION & CULTURE UMNYANGO WEMPHOUMI ASIKO
2008 -05- 13
PRIVATE BAG X0515 UMZINTO 4200 SCOTTBURGH CIRCUIT OFFICE

**STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL**

**QUESTIONNAIRE**

**The Role of the Educator in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children**

L. Naidoo

Kindly answer all the questions by supplying the requested information in writing. Please complete by making a cross (X) in the appropriate bloc. Where a question requires a comment, please write in the space provided

**SECTION ONE: INFORMATION**

**BIOGRAPHICAL**

1.1 GENDER:

Male		Female	
------	--	--------	--

1.2 AGE GROUP

Under 25		26- 30		31- 35		36- 40		41- 45		46- 50		51- 54		55- 60		Over 60	
-------------	--	-----------	--	-----------	--	-----------	--	-----------	--	-----------	--	-----------	--	-----------	--	------------	--

Your professional qualification e.g. B. Ed .....

Your academic qualification e.g. B.A. ....

Occupation status

Permanent		Temporary	
-----------	--	-----------	--

Status of school

Primary		Secondary	
---------	--	-----------	--

1.6 Location of the school

Urban		Rural	
-------	--	-------	--

**Instructions**

Please read through each statement carefully before giving your opinion.  
Please make sure that you do not omit a question, or skip a page.  
Please be honest when giving your opinion.  
Please do not discuss statements with anyone.  
Mark with a cross (X) in the appropriate block.

OVC – refers to orphans and vulnerable children.

**GENERAL**

**THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ARE GENERAL AND IS USED TO GAUGE THE EDUCATORS UNDERSTANDING OF THE EFFECTS OF HIV/AIDS ON ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN.**

NO		Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
2.1.1	HIV/AIDS threatens the lives of many South African children					
2.1.2	HIV/AIDS is the primary cause of the high incidence of orphans and vulnerable children.					
2.1.3	Orphans generally drop out of school at an early age.					
2.1.4	Orphans experience great difficulty in paying school fees and purchasing material required at school					
2.1.5	Orphans have many					

	household chores					
2.1.6	Orphans do not have enough time to complete their homework at home					
2.1.7	Orphans generally experience severe economic hardships					
2.1.8	Orphans do not get the love and care as one would expect from a parent					
2.1.9	The performance of orphans at school is poor					
2.1.10	Late coming and high absenteeism is prevalent among orphans					
2.1.11	Orphans require additional care in the form of psychological counselling, food and fellowship.					
2.1.12	Orphans are subject to abuse					
2.1.13	Orphans display behavioural problems at school					

YOUR VIEWS ON ROLE PLAYERS AT SCHOOL INVOLVED IN ADDRESSING THE NEEDS OF ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN

NO		Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
2.2.1	The principal of the school is best suited to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children					
2.2.2	The Life Orientation educator is best positioned to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children					
2.2.3	The class teacher is best positioned to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children					

**YOUR VIEWS ON THE ROLE OF THE CLASS TEACHER IN ADDRESSING THE NEEDS OF ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN**

NO		Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
2.3.1	Class teachers are not properly trained to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children					
2.3.2	The work load of class teachers prevents them from doing their best for orphans and vulnerable children					
2.3.3	The class teacher does not have enough time to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children					
2.3.4	The class teacher is saddled with huge class sizes					

2.3.5	Educators feel that the extra work they do is not duly acknowledged					
2.3.6	Limited resources inhibit the class teacher's enthusiasm in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children.					
2.3.7	The class teacher has the best understanding of the overall academic performance of orphans and vulnerable children in his class					
2.3.8	The class teacher has the best understanding of the psychological make-up orphans and vulnerable children					

2.3.9	The class teacher has the best understanding of the learners in his/her class					
2.3.10	The class teacher has the best understanding of the attendance patterns of orphans and vulnerable children.					
2.3.11	The class teacher has the best understanding of the drop-out rate of orphans and vulnerable children					
2.3.12	The class teacher can easily detect signs of depression in learners					
2.3.13	The class teacher is best positioned to identify those learners who are orphans					

2.3.14	The class teacher is best positioned to keep a detailed record of each child's personal circumstances					
2.3.15	If time is made available to class teachers to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children, the class teacher would ensure that the needs of orphans and vulnerable children are met					
2.3.16	The class teacher should take the initiative in interacting with other role players at school in assisting orphans and vulnerable children					

2.3.17	The class teacher should interact with institutions and organizations in the community to provide support and care for orphans and vulnerable children					
2.3.18	The class teacher has the best understanding of the orphan's economic circumstances.					
2.3.19	The class teacher should ensure that all orphans and vulnerable children in his/her class are familiar with the regulations regarding school fees and the school fee exemption policy.					
2.3.20	The class teacher should ensure that all orphans and vulnerable children in his/her class are well nourished.					

2.3.21	The class teacher must ensure that all orphans and vulnerable children in his/her class have received the relevant textbooks and stationery.					
2.3.22	The class teacher should liaise with the parent/guardian of the orphan with regard to absenteeism, late coming etc.					
2.3.23	The class teacher should ask the principal of the school to create structures to assist in providing for the needs of OVC					
2.3.24	The class teacher should ask the School Governing Body to create structures to assist in providing for the needs of OVCs					

2.3.25	The class teacher should liaise with churches to provide OVCs with food, clothing, school fees and other basic necessities.					
2.3.26	The class teacher should liaise with businesses to provide OVC with food, clothing, school fees and other basic necessities.					
2.3.27	The class teacher should liaise with the learner population to form associations to provide OVC with food, clothing, school fees and other basic necessities.					

2.3.28	The class teacher should liaise with community-based organisations to provide OVC with food, clothing, school fees and other basic necessities.					
2.3.29	The class teacher should network with other schools to provide assistance to OVC.					
2.3.30	The class teacher should be involved in the holistic development of orphans and vulnerable children.					

**YOUR VIEWS ON THE ROLE OF THE CLASS TEACHER AS A FACILITATOR OF LIFE SKILLS PROGRAMMES SPECIFIC FOR HIS/HER CLASS**

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
2.4.1	It is not the duty of the class teacher to impart life skills to orphans and vulnerable children in his/her class					
2.4.2	Class teachers are not adequately trained in administering life skills programmes for OVCs in his/her class					
2.4.3	Life skills programmes conducted by class teachers for orphans and vulnerable children will work if additional time during normal school hours is made available to form teachers.					
2.4.4	The best time for the class teacher to administer life skills programmes for orphans and vulnerable children is in the morning immediately after registration.					

2.4.5	The class teacher should at some time or the other make the effort to impart life skills to orphans and vulnerable children in his/her class					
2.4.6	Life skills programmes conducted by class teachers for orphans and vulnerable children will work if a comprehensive life skills manual (which will not entail additional preparation work by the class teacher) is made available to class teachers					
2.4.7	As a facilitator of life skills programmes for OVC in his/her class, the class teacher should seek assistance from the life skills and/or Life Orientation educator.					
2.4.8	The Principal, Deputy Principal or Head of Department should request support services from Life Orientation and/or Life Skills subject advisors for class teachers.					

2.4.9	In facilitating life skills programmes for OVC in his/her class, the class teacher will obtain a better understanding of the needs of OVCs in his/her class.					
2.4.10	The class teacher should facilitate peer-support groups in his/her class.					

YOUR VIEWS IN FACILITATING PEER COUNSELLING PROGRAMMES (MORAL SUPPORT) FOR ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN.

Peer counselling entails the coming together of young people to:

- Share experience, strength and hope with each other
- Discuss their difficulties
- Learn effective ways to cope with their problems
- Encourage one another

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
2.5.1	Schools should invite support groups to offer moral support services to OVC.					
2.5.2	OVC relate more openly to their peers than to educators					
2.5.3	OVC learn coping strategies more effectively from those who experience similar problems than from educators.					
2.5.4	Peer counselling programmes will enable OVC to free themselves from abusive situations and to take control over their lives.					

2.5.5	Peer counselling programmes will enable OVC to gain emotional maturity.					
2.5.6	OVC will realise that there is hope for them in the form of love, care and support.					

**STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL**

**QUESTIONNAIRE**

**The Role of the Educator in addressing the needs of orphans and vulnerable children**

This is a pretest-posttest questionnaire

L. Naidoo

Kindly answer all the questions by supplying the requested information in writing. Please complete by making a cross (X) in the appropriate bloc. Where a question requires a comment, please write in the space provided

**SECTION ONE: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION**

**1.1 GENDER:**

Male		Female	
------	--	--------	--

**1.2 AGE GROUP**

Under 25		26- 30		31- 35		36- 40		41- 45		46- 50		51- 54		55- 60		Over 60
-------------	--	-----------	--	-----------	--	-----------	--	-----------	--	-----------	--	-----------	--	-----------	--	------------

Your professional qualification e.g. B. Ed

Your academic qualification e.g. B.A.

Occupation status

Permanent		Temporary	
-----------	--	-----------	--

Status of school

Primary		Secondary	
---------	--	-----------	--

Location of the school

Urban		Rural	
-------	--	-------	--

## **SECTION ONE**

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE ASSETS-BASED APPROACH TO ADDRESSING THE NEEDS OF ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN

### **EXTERNAL RESOURCES/ASSETS**

#### **COMMUNITY-BASED ORGANISATION (CBO)**

1.1.1.1 Can you identify a Community-based organization in the area in which your school is situated?

YES	NO
-----	----

Did you at any time contact a Community-based organization to enlist their aid and support for OVC at your school?

YES	NO
-----	----

If you answered YES to 1.1.1.2, then proceed to answer the following questions:

Was it easy for you to contact this organization?

YES	NO
-----	----

How did you contact this organization?

Telephone	email	Letter	Personal visit	Through another person
-----------	-------	--------	----------------	------------------------

What type of response did you enjoy from this organization?

Friendly and approachable	Not friendly and not approachable
---------------------------	-----------------------------------

Was this organization willing to aid and support orphans at your school?

YES	NO
-----	----

What type of assistance was this organization willing to render to OVC at your school

Food	Clothing	Shelter	Educational	Psychological	Medical
------	----------	---------	-------------	---------------	---------

If you answered NO to 1.1.1.2, then proceed to answer the following questions

Was it because you had no time to contact this organisation?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because you did not think it was your job to contact this organisation?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because you did not know of any CBOs in the area in which your school is situated?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because you did not have the contact numbers of CBOs?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because the CBO was not accessible(within easy reach) to you

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because these organisations did not exist in the area in which the school is situated.

YES	NO
-----	----

**FAITH-BASED ORGANISATIONS (FBO)**

1.1.2.1 Can you identify a FBO in the area in which your school is situated?

YES	NO
-----	----

1.1.2.2 Did you at any time contact a FBO in order enlist their aid and support for OVC at your school?

YES	NO
-----	----

If you answered YES to 1.1.2.2, then proceed to answer the following questions:

1.1.2.3.1 Was it easy for you to contact this organization?

YES	NO
-----	----

How did you contact this organization?

Telephone	Email	Letter	Personal visit	Through another person
-----------	-------	--------	----------------	------------------------

What type of response did you enjoy from this organization?

Friendly and approachable	Not friendly and not approachable

Was this organization willing to aid and support orphans at your school?

YES	NO
-----	----

What type of assistance was this organization willing to render to OVC at your school

Food	Clothing	Shelter	Educational	Psychological	Medical
------	----------	---------	-------------	---------------	---------

If you answered NO to 1.1.2.2, then proceed to answer the following questions

Was it because you had no time to contact this organisation?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because you did not think it was your job to contact this organisation?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because you did not know of any FBOs in the area in which your school is situated?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because you did not have the contact numbers of FBOs?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because the FBO was not accessible(within easy reach) to you

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because this organisation did not exist in the area in which the school is situated.

YES	NO
-----	----

### **NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS (NGO)**

Can you identify a NGO in the area in which your school is situated?

YES	NO
-----	----

1.1.3.2 Did you at any time contact a Non-governmental organization to enlist their aid and support for OVC at your school?

YES	NO
-----	----

**If you answered YES to 1.1.3.2, then proceed to answer the following questions:**

1.1.3.3.1 Was it easy for you to contact this organization?

YES	NO
-----	----

1.1.3.3.2 How did you contact this organization?

Telephone	Email	Letter	Personal visit	Through another person
-----------	-------	--------	----------------	------------------------

What type of response did you enjoy from this organization?

Friendly and approachable	Not friendly and not approachable

Was this organization willing to aid and support orphans at your school?

YES	NO
-----	----

What type of assistance was this organization willing to render to OVC at your school

Food	Clothing	Shelter	Educational	Psychological	Medical
------	----------	---------	-------------	---------------	---------

**If you answered NO to 1.1.3.2, then proceed to answer the following questions**

Was it because you had no time to contact this organisation?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because you did not think it was your job to contact this organisation?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because you did not know of any NGOs in the area in which your school is situated?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because you did not have the contact numbers of NGOs?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because the NGOs was not accessible(within easy reach) to you

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because this organisation did not exist in the area in which the school is situated.

YES	NO
-----	----

**CLINICS/DOCTORS SURGERY/HOSPITAL/TRADITIONAL HEALERS (Health related bodies)**

1.1.4.1 Can you identify any of the above in the area in which your school is situated?

YES	NO
-----	----

Did you at any time contact a health related body to enlist their aid and support for OVC at your school?

YES	NO
-----	----

**If you answered YES to 1.1.4.2, then proceed to answer the following questions:**

1.1.4.3.1 Was it easy for you to contact a health related body?

YES	NO
-----	----

How did you contact this body?

Telephone	Email	Letter	Personal visit	Through another person
-----------	-------	--------	----------------	------------------------

What type of response did you enjoy from this body?

Friendly and approachable	Not friendly and not approachable

Was this body willing to aid and support orphans at your school?

YES	NO
-----	----

What type of assistance was this body willing to render to OVC at your school

Food	Clothing	Shelter	Educational	Psychological	Medical
------	----------	---------	-------------	---------------	---------

**If you answered NO to any of the questions above:**

Was it because you had no time to contact this body?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because you did not think it was your job to contact any of these bodies?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because you did not know of any health related bodies in the area in which your school is situated.

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because you did not have the contact numbers of any health related bodies.

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because the health related body was not accessible(within easy reach) to you

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because the health related body did not exist in the area in which the school is situated.

YES	NO
-----	----

**INTERNAL RESOURCES (Assets)**

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT TEAM (SMT)(PRINCIPAL; DEPUTY PRINCIPAL; HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS)

1.2.1.1 Were you able to enlist the aid of the SMT to address the needs of OVC

YES	NO
-----	----

**If you answered YES to 1.2.1.1, proceed to answer the following questions:**

1.2.1.2.1 What was the attitude of the SMT to your request?

Approachable	Not approachable
--------------	------------------

1.2.1.2.2 Did the SMT make any endeavour in providing for the needs of OVC at your school?

YES	NO
-----	----

What type of assistance was the SMT willing to render to OVC at your school

Food	Clothing	Shelter	Educational	Psychological	Medical	Financial
------	----------	---------	-------------	---------------	---------	-----------

**If you answered NO to 1.2.1.1**

1.2.1.2.1. Was it because you had no time to liaise with the SMT of your school?

YES	NO
-----	----

1.2.1.2.2 Was it because you did not think it was your job to liaise with the SMT to enlist aid for OVCs.?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because the SMT is too busy attending to routine school matters

YES	NO
-----	----

**THE SCHOOL GOVERNING BODY (SGB)**

1.2.2.1 Were you able to enlist the aid of the SGB to address the needs of OVC

YES	NO
-----	----

**If you answer YES to 1.2.2.1, proceed to answer the following questions:**

1.2.2.2.1 What was the attitude of the SGB to your request?

Approachable	Not approachable
--------------	------------------

1.2.2.2 Did the SGB make any endeavour in providing for the needs of OVC at your school?

YES	NO
-----	----

What type of assistance was the SGB willing to render to OVC at your school

Food	Clothing	Shelter	Educational	Psychological	Medical	Financial
------	----------	---------	-------------	---------------	---------	-----------

**If you answered NO to 1.2.2.1**

1.2.2.3.1 Was it because you had no time to liaise with the SGB of your school?

YES	NO
-----	----

1.2.2.3.2 Was it because you did not think it was your job to liaise with the SGB to enlist aid for OVCs?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because the SGB is too busy attending to routine school matters?

YES	NO
-----	----

## THE LEARNER GROUP

1.2.3.1 Were you able to enlist the aid of the learner group to address the needs of OVC?

YES	NO
-----	----

**If you answered YES to 1.2.3.1, proceed to answer the following questions:**

1.2.3.2.1 What was the attitude of the learners to your suggestion in forming an organisation to aid and support OVC?

Enthusiastic	Not Enthusiastic
--------------	------------------

1.2.3.2.2 Did the learners make any endeavour in forming an organisation to deal specifically with providing for the needs of OVCs?

YES	NO
-----	----

What type of assistance was the learner organisation willing to render to OVC at your school

Food	Clothing	Shelter	Educational	Psychological	Medical	Financial
------	----------	---------	-------------	---------------	---------	-----------

**If you answered NO to 1.2.3.1**

1.2.3.3.1 Was it because you had no time to liaise with the learner group of your school?

YES	NO
-----	----

1.2.3.3.2 Was it because you did not think it was your job to liaise with the learner group to enlist aid for OVC?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because the learner group is too busy attending to routine school matters?

YES	NO
-----	----

**SPECIALIST EDUCATORS (GUIDANCE COUNSELLORS)**

Does your school have a guidance counsellor?

YES	NO
-----	----

**ANSWER THE QUESTIONS BELOW ONLY IF YOUR SCHOOL HAS A GUIDANCE COUNSELLOR**

1.2.4.2.1 Were you able to enlist the aid of the guidance counsellor to address the needs of OVC?

YES	NO
-----	----

**If you answered YES to 1.2.4.2.1, proceed to answer the following questions:**

1.2.4.2.2.1 What was the attitude of the guidance counsellor to your request?

Enthusiastic	Not Enthusiastic
--------------	------------------

1.2.4.2.2.2 Did the guidance counsellor make any endeavour to directly deal specifically with providing for the needs of OVC?

YES	NO
-----	----

1.2.4.2.2.3 What type of assistance was the guidance counsellor willing to render to OVC at your school?

Food	Clothing	Shelter	Educational	Psychological	Medical	Financial
------	----------	---------	-------------	---------------	---------	-----------

**If you answered NO to 1.2.4.2.1 proceed to answer the following questions.**

1.2.4.2.3.1 Was it because you had no time to liaise with the guidance counsellor of your school?

YES	NO
-----	----

1.2.4.2.3.2 Was it because you did not think it was your job to liaise with the guidance counsellor to enlist aid for OVC?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because the guidance counsellor is too busy attending to his/her job matters?

YES	NO
-----	----

### **SPECIALIST EDUCATOR (LIFE ORIENTATION)**

1.2.5.1 Were you able to enlist the aid of the life orientation educator to address the needs of OVC?

YES	NO
-----	----

**If you answered YES to 1.2.5.1, proceed to answer the following questions:**

1.2.5.2.1 What was the attitude of the life orientation educator to your request?

Enthusiastic	Not Enthusiastic
--------------	------------------

1.2.5.2.2 Did the life orientation educator make any endeavour to directly deal specifically with providing for the needs of OVC?

YES	NO
-----	----

1.2.5.2.3 What type of assistance was the life orientation educator counsellor willing to render to OVC at your school

Food	Clothing	Shelter	Educational	Psychological	Medical	Financial
------	----------	---------	-------------	---------------	---------	-----------

**If you answered NO to 1.2.5.1**

Was it because the school does not have a trained life orientation educator counsellor?

YES	NO
-----	----

1.2.5.3.2 Was it because you had no time to liaise with the life orientation educator of your school?

YES	NO
-----	----

1.2.5.3.3 Was it because you did not think it was your job to liaise with the life orientation educator to enlist aid for OVC?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because the guidance counsellor is too busy attending to his/her job matters?

YES	NO
-----	----

## SECTION TWO

### LIFE SKILLS IMPLEMENTATION BY THE FORM TEACHER FOR ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE CHILDREN IN HIS/HER FORM CLASS

2.1 Did you at any time implement a specially designed life skills programme for orphans and vulnerable children in your form class?

YES	NO
-----	----

**If you answered YES to 2.1, then proceed to answer the following questions.**

2.2.1 Were you workshopped on the contents of this life skills programme?

YES	NO
-----	----

2.2.2 Were you given a manual on this life skills programme?

YES	NO
-----	----

2.2.3 Were you given time to implement this life skills programme?

YES	NO
-----	----

2.2.4 At which part of the day did you implement this programme?

Morning	Afternoon	During one of your periods
---------	-----------	----------------------------

2.2.5 Did this programme take up too much of your time?

YES	NO
-----	----

2.2.6 Did this programme create extra work for you?

YES	NO
-----	----

2.2.7 Will you be able to run this programme using one day of the week for the whole year?

YES	NO
-----	----

2.2.8 Will you be requiring any further assistance in implementing this programme?

YES	NO
-----	----

2.2.9 Was the SMT of your school supportive in seeing that this programme is implemented?

YES	NO
-----	----

2.2.10 Do you think that this programme will be of a benefit to orphans and vulnerable children?

YES	NO
-----	----

2.2.11 Do you think that you will be able to have a better understanding of learners in your form class upon implementing this life skills programme?

YES	NO
-----	----

2.2.12 In what ways did the learners directly benefit from this programme? (Tick as many as you can)

1. Improved their self esteem	
2. Improved their communication skills	
3. Improved their understanding about themselves	
4. Helped learners to better cope with stress and emotions	
5. Improved their decision making skills	
6. Improved their problem solving skills	
7. Learnt how to maintain a healthy life style.	
8. Improved their creative thinking skills	
9. Learnt how to resolve conflicts	
10. Learnt how to be assertive rather than aggressive	

**If you answered NO to question 2.1, then proceed to answer the following questions.**

2.3.1 Was it because you were not aware that you had to implement a life skills programme for orphans and vulnerable children in your class?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because you did not have a specifically designed life skills manual for your form class?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because you had not time to implement this life skills programme?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because you were not workshopped or trained to implement this life skills programme?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because the SMT did not support this programme?

YES	NO
-----	----

## SECTION THREE

### PEER COUNSELLING PROGRAMME

3.1 Did you implement a peer counselling programme for orphans and vulnerable children in your class?

YES	NO
-----	----

**If you answered YES to 3.1, then proceed to answer the following questions.**

3.2.1 Were you work shopped on the contents of the peer counselling programme?

YES	NO
-----	----

3.2.2 Were you given a handout/manual on the peer counselling programme?

YES	NO
-----	----

3.2.3 Did this programme take up too much of your time?

YES	NO
-----	----

3.2.4 Did this programme create extra work for you?

YES	NO
-----	----

3.2.5 Will you be requiring any further assistance in implementing this programme?

YES	NO
-----	----

3.2.6 Was the SMT of your school supportive in seeing that this programme is implemented?

YES	NO
-----	----

3.2.7 Do you think that this programme will be of a benefit to orphans and vulnerable children?

YES	NO
-----	----

3.2.8 Do you think that you will be able to have a better understanding of learners in your form class upon implementing this model?

YES	NO
-----	----

3.2.9 In what ways did the learners directly benefit from this programme? (Tick as many as you can)

1. Improved their self esteem	
2. Improved their communication skills	
3. Improved their understanding about themselves	
4. Helped learners to better cope with stress and emotions	
5. Improved their decision making skills	
6. Improved their problem solving skills	
7. Learnt how to maintain a healthy life style.	
8. Improved their creative thinking skills	
9. Learnt how to resolve conflicts	
10. Learnt how to be assertive rather than aggressive	
11. Learnt how to cope with their problems	
12. Gained confidence and support by sharing their experience	

2.3.10 What problems did you experience whilst implementing this model? (You can tick more than one)

1. Learners were not co-operative	
2. Learners were shy to relate their experiences	
3. Learners were afraid of being stigmatized	

If you answered NO to question 3.1, then proceed to answer the following questions.

3.3.1 Was it because you were not aware of the peer counselling programme?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because you did not have a handout on the peer counselling programme?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because you had no time to implement this model?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because you were not workshopped or trained to implement this model?

YES	NO
-----	----

Was it because the SMT did not support this programme?

YES	NO
-----	----

## LIFE SKILLS PROGRAMME

This life skills programme has been engineered by the researcher for use by the class teacher for OVC in her class.

### **AIDS Orphans and life skills programme**

AIDS orphans life skills programme is a comprehensive educational programme, which promotes abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable early adolescent AIDS orphans to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life. It includes all those skills that enable people to maximize their choices, to enhance their personal well-being and to improve their quality of life. Life skills enable the individual to translate knowledge, attitudes and values into actual abilities, that is, “what to do and how to do it.” The objective of the programme is to help this group of people increase the probability of making good rather than poor choices in targeted skills. The point of departure is based on efforts to internalize an accepted life-style (primary prevention) and avoid dangerous behaviour (Motepe, 2005; Bender, 2002).

AIDS orphans life skills programme creates opportunities for participants to practice life skills so they can make healthy and informed choices. AIDS orphans life skills programme help young people to acquire necessary tools to take charge and effectively manage their lives. According to Hoelson and Van Schalkwyk (2002) the local need for life skills programmes is associated with the gradual erosion of traditional systems of societies and the families. Life skills programmes can make a significant contribution in equipping the youth to adequately cope with challenges of modern societies.

The programme deals with key topics which are shown in the table below:

In the AIDS orphans life skills programme, early adolescent AIDS orphans are actively involved in a dynamic teaching and learning process. The methods used to facilitate

this active involvement include working in small groups, brainstorming and role-play. These methods to teach life skills are based on experimental learning (learning through active participation) rather than didactic teaching. The teaching skill is both theoretical and practical. It is intended to equip the learner with new or improved skills. It is based on the principle that people learn best when they are actively involved in their lessons. AIDS orphans life skills programme therefore employs activities at the end of every session. The aim is that participants will immediately identify with the activities employed and recognize their own life experiences reflected in the activities. These activities encourage the participants to learn new knowledge and develop a range of skills at the same time. Some of the activities require participants to remember the right information, while others encourage them to think for themselves or write about their feelings.

The programme does not aim at telling people how to live their lives, but it focuses on giving early adolescent AIDS orphans accurate information and opportunities to develop skills and positive values. This will help them to make responsible and healthy choices for their lives.

The programme is primarily designed for class teachers in the field of education. A class teacher is called to provide a holistic programme for orphans and vulnerable children in his/her class.

### **Theoretical background to the life skills programme**

Theories and models help people to understand how a particular phenomenon is developed or formed and how it affects other phenomena that are linked to it (Motepe, 2006). In this section the ecological perspective, the empowerment approach, the experimental/observational learning theory approach and the analytical approach will be looked at. This will enable one to obtain a better understanding of how life skills enhance human capabilities, that is, physically, socially and psychologically. These models will underpin the ideologies relating to the life skills model developed by the researcher.

- The analytical approach

There are taxonomies of generic life skills for categorizing and arranging a wide range of life skills. Barrie Hopson and Mike Scally of the Counselling and Career Development Unit, Leeds University, use an analytical approach to categorizing life skills. In their model (which is a revised version of a model which they had originally developed in 1980), they identified four categories of life skills: learning, relating, working and playing, developing self and others (Hopson & Scally, 1986).

**Revised classification of life skills according to Hopson and Scally (1986)**

SKILLS OF LEARNING	SKILLS OF RELATING	SKILLS OF WORKING AND PLAYING	SKILLS OF DEVELOPING SELF AND OTHERS
Literacy Numeracy Information-seeking Learning from experience Using whole-brain approaches Computer literacy Study skills	Making, keeping and ending relationships Communication Assertiveness Being an effective member of a group Conflict management Giving and receiving feedback Parenting Influencing	Career management Time management Money management Entrepreneurship Choosing and using leisure options Preparation for retirement Seeking and keeping a job Managing unemployment Home management Setting objectives and action planning	Being positive about yourself Creative problem-solving Decision-making Stress management Transition management Managing sexuality Maintaining physical well-being Making the most of the present Pro-activity Managing negative emotions Discovering interests, values and skills Discovering what makes us do the things we do Developing the spiritual self Helping others Developing the political self

Source: Hopson and Scally (1986)

- The empirical approach

The empirical approach to classify life skills was used by David Brooks, professor of guidance and counselling at Syracuse University (Erikson, 1963). In conjunction with developmental psychology theorists as well as the results of a national Delphi Study, Brooks classified over 300 life skills descriptors into four categories (Erikson, 1963; Havighurst, 1972; Kohlberg, 1973). The four categories together with their respective definitions as outlined by Gazda, Childers and Brooks (1987)

Although the exact nature and description of life skills are likely to differ across social and cultural contexts, an analysis of the life skills field suggests that a core set of skills is integral to the initiatives to promote social functioning, health, cognitive development and well-being. This set of skills includes decision-making, problem-solving, creative thinking, critical thinking, effective communication, interpersonal communication, interpersonal relating, self-awareness, ability to empathize, coping with emotions and coping with stress (Division of Mental Health, World Health Organisation, 1994).

The facilitation of a life skills programme that seeks to incorporate the above life skills for orphans and vulnerable children hinges on the use of an appropriate perspective. In this regard the following approaches and perspectives are of relevance.

- Ecological perspective

The ecological perspective focuses on promoting people's adaptive capacities and enhancing the mutuality between people and the environment. This perspective views individual human beings as living in constant reciprocity with their environment (Rooth, 1995). Rooth (1995) emphasizes the importance of life skills in human environment relationships. According to Leff cited in Rooth (1995), an understanding of ecological processes and continuing awareness of how these processes operate in one's life and surroundings are of great importance. Rooth (1995) further mentions that to separate life skills intervention from environmental contextuality is to do a disservice both to people and the environment. In explaining life skills in terms of the ecological perspective, emphasis is placed on the following concepts: clarity, locus of control and participant's feelings of being in charge of their environment. These concepts within

the context of OVC primary school children are discussed below.

With regard to clarity, an environment that is conducive for people to learn, participate and make decisions will enable them to be clear of what they want and need and in turn will be responsive to their needs. As noted in chapter two, there are many environmental factors that impede the fulfilment of the educational need of orphans. The classroom as well as the school environment should epitomize an ideal setting for the facilitation of an effective life skills programme. Furthermore, the class teacher should strive to create specific facilities at school, which orphans generally lack at home – these could include playing fields, ‘homework rooms’, sick bays and rest rooms.

Locus of control involves how a person will respond to a specific situation (Rooth, 1995). Bandura (1997) indicates that self efficacy, which is marked by internality of locus of control is related to positive self concept, being less anxious, having less psychological symptoms and coping better with stress. According to Motepe (2006), this indicates that life skills education is intrinsically concerned with encouraging internality of locus of control, efficacy and pro-activity for greater community and environmental benefits. From this it can be deduced that life skills in the context of OVC paradigm, is concerned with enhancing the OVC’s locus of control so that they could develop strategies and skills to deal with environmental pressure.

- The empowerment approach

The empowerment approach to life skills education should form an intrinsic construct of a life skills programme for OVC. As noted in chapter two, many OVC are subjected to varying degrees of abuse, domination as well as subjugation.

Life skills education is deeply rooted in the empowerment approach. Empowerment is a process in which people are involved, that generates growth and enablement (Carl, 2002; Gore, 1989; Hoelson & Van Schalkwyk, 2001). Hepworth and Larsen (1993) and Carl (2002) state that empowerment is closely linked to competence, self-esteem, support systems and belief that individual actions can lead to improvement in real life situations. Life skills facilitation aims to empower people with skills to cope better with

their immediate and future problems and focuses on development of the individual as well as collective potential (Carl, 2002). According to Motepe (2006), empowered persons can make a contribution and that they can in turn make a real difference.

Of the numerous assumptions upon which the empowerment approach is based, the following according to Du Bois and Miley (1996), are critical to a life skills programme for OVC: empowerment requires a climate which focuses on strengths and assets of people; competence rests on acquired life skills – the ability to make sound decisions and solve problems; empowerment requires resources and the ability to utilize these effectively; environmental differences tend to foster powerlessness, helplessness and low self esteem and empowerment should not result in power struggle – increasing the power of one system does not mean decreasing the power of another.

According to Carl (2002), the empowerment process through life skills education involves the following steps: building up confidence; the promotion of social interaction; the maintenance and promotion of good personal relationships; the maintenance of good communication; carrying out effective conflict resolution; drawing and following clear objectives as well as the maintenance of healthy working relationships.

Motepe (2006) argues that if the above steps are religiously adhered to in a life skills programme for orphans and vulnerable children, orphans as well as vulnerable children will find themselves empowered and enabled to make independent decisions and to act autonomously with a view to making a contribution towards the development of his/her particular environment.

## **Life skills classification according to Gazda, Childers and Brooks (1987)**

### **Interpersonal communication and human relations skills**

Skills necessary for-

- Effective communication, both verbal and non-verbal, with others, leading to ease in establishing relationships;
- small and large group and community membership and participation;
- management of interpersonal intimacy;
- clear expression of ideas and opinions;
- giving and receiving feedback.

### **Problem-solving and decision-making skills**

Skills necessary for-

- information seeking;
- information assessment and analysis
- problem identification, solutions, implementation and evaluation;
- goal setting;
- systematic planning and forecasting;
- time management;
- critical thinking;
- conflict resolution.

### **Physical fitness and health maintenance skills**

Skills necessary for-

- motor development and co-ordination; nutritional maintenance;
- weight control;
- physical fitness;
- athletics participation;
- understanding the physiological aspects of sexuality;
- stress management;
- selection and practice of leisure activities.

### **Identify development/purpose in life skills**

Skills and awareness necessary for-

- Ongoing development of personal identity and emotional awareness, including self-monitoring, maintenance of self-esteem;
- Manipulating and accommodating to one's environment;
- Sex-role development;
- Developing meaning of life;
- Clarifying morals and values.

Source: Gazda, Childers & Brooks (1987)

- Experiential Learning Theory

The experiential learning theory is also appropriate to a life skills programme for OVC. As noted in chapter two, more particularly, the study by Hirasawa (2007), OVC display extraordinary coping skills and acquires varying degrees of resilience. The researcher is of the view that these skills provide an invaluable body of knowledge for the development of a life skills programme for OVC. This view is also shared by Johnson and Johnson (2003) who argue that in experiential learning, people believe in the knowledge that they have discovered themselves than in the knowledge presented by

others.

Drawing on life's experiences requires reflection. Rooth (1995) indicates that reflection is an important ingredient of experiential learning. Reflection refers to the ability to think about what has been experienced and learnt, to become aware of feelings, the realization and insights as well as an idea of knowledge acquisition and future work required for skill enhancement (Rooth, 1995). Motepe (2006) argues that OVC are always engaged in experiential learning. The researcher argues that the experiences of each orphan or vulnerable child is unique and that a collective body of knowledge based on the unique experiences of each orphan or vulnerable child will be of more use to the life skills facilitator than theoretical knowledge found in textbooks.

- Learning theories

The present study relates to orphans and vulnerable children in a primary school. These learners are categorised as follows: learners in the foundation phase (ideally between 6 and 8 years of age, that is, from Grade 1 to Grade 3) and learners in the intermediate phase (ideally between 9 and 11 years of age, that is, from Grade 4 to Grade 6) and learners in the senior phase (ideally between 12 and 14 years of age, that is, from Grade 7 to Grade 9). However, in most primary schools, learners exit the school upon completion of Grade 7 and enrol at secondary schools to complete the General Education and Training qualification as well as the Further Education and Training qualification. Owing to various factors as discussed in chapter two, a particular grade will not necessarily comprise of learners who belong to the same age group. The age band of learners in rural primary schools could range from 6 years to 15 years (Riet, et al. 2006) – there could be children who are older than 7 years in a Grade 1 class. This section will therefore focus on developmental theories relating learners between 6 years of age and 15 years of age.

There are four major stages in Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development: sensorimotor (thought is focused on the world of here and now); preoperational (thought is egocentric; perception-dominated; intuitive rather than logical); concrete operational (thought is more logical but tied to real objects and events) and formal operational (thought is potentially logical; hypothetical, idealistic reasoning)(Lovell,

1967). In Piaget's theory, children who are between 7 year of age and 11 years of age are in the 'concrete operational' stage of development.

Children in this age band should be able to: solve concrete (hands-on) problems in a logical fashion; understand laws of conservation; classify; seriate and understand reversibility. A person who is older than 11 years is in the 'formal operational' stage of development. This person is able to solve abstract problems in a logical fashion; becomes more scientific in thinking and develops concerns about social issues.

Sigmund Freud describes five developmental stages (oral, anal, phallic, latency and genital) – each stage is differentiated from each other in terms of the area of the child's body, which is the main source of sexual gratification at that stage (Freud, 1930). In Sigmund Freud's psychosexual stages of human development, children between 6 years of age and 12 years of age are in the 'latency stage' stage of development. According to Freud (1930), children in this stage of development tend to suppress their sexual urges and develop social skills. He argues that an adolescent is in the genital stage of human development. In stage, sexuality reappears in a more mature form.

Erik Erikson's psychosocial theory of child development describes conflict-driven progress through stages that require increasing social competence (trust versus mistrust; autonomy versus shame and doubt; initiative versus guilt; industry versus inferiority and identity versus diffusion) (Erikson, 1960). Children between 6 years of age and puberty, in Erikson's theory of psychosocial stages of human development, are identified as being in the 'industry vs. inferiority' zone. In this stage children who are able to master tasks feel competent and those who fail to master tasks feel inferior. An adolescent (between 11 years of age and 18 years of age) in terms of Erikson's theory (1960) is in the 'identity vs. identity diffusion' zone. In this stage the person will form a sense of self, including occupational and gender roles, or feels confused about who he/she is.

Flavell in De Villiers (1996) focuses on a theory developed by Lev Vygotsky of cognitive development, which centres on the idea that higher levels of thinking are dependent on social transactions and social relationship with a mediator, while the internalizing of regulative processes such as meta-cognition is necessary for effective

individual learning. In other words, there is a difference between what a child is capable of independently and what a child is capable of with the guidance of a mediator.

Vygotsky called this the zone of proximal development which he defined as the “distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (Wertsch, 1985). This would suggest that cognitive development is not static, but can be influenced by remediation in most cases. Vygotsky believed that thinking patterns are more a result of our interactions in social and cultural situations than from biological attributes.

According to Vygotsky, children develop cognitive patterns from internalizing cultural tools such as language and that social interaction is vital to the development of cognition. Research done by Vygotsky and Luria in the 1920s, show that abstract cognitive skills do not develop in social environments that are concrete and functional in nature (Torrance, 1994). This theory is backed up by studies conducted by Ginsburg and Opper (in Fritz, 1995) which reveal that a lack of environmental stimulation could hamper the development of the ability to use advanced mental skill; and research by Fritz (1995) which suggests that controlling parents may also contribute to limited cognitive skills.

According to Lawrence Kohlberg there are six stages of moral development (Kohlberg, 1973): these stages relate to: conformity to cultural rules, norms and standards maintained in various environments and instructions; understanding personal rights; the ability to distinguish right from wrong and the application of fairness and equality.

Having understood the various life skills theories and the various learning theories, the class teacher should have an understanding of various educational methodologies. These are: role-playing, group discussion, drama, question and answer techniques, sand-box techniques, the worksheet method and art. The management of the life skills programme is discussed in the envisaged model designed by the researcher.

The programme is designed for all learners from grades one to grade seven. Grades

one to three and grades four to seven form different phases and have their own specific programmes. The programme will require twenty school weeks. There are ten topics that have to be covered within twenty weeks. Each topic will therefore require two weeks or ten school days. The researcher suggests that the programme should commence in the first term and be spread evenly throughout the year – allocating four or six weeks each term for facilitating the life skills programme. The class teacher should use the balance of the time to compile a detailed profile of all learners in her form class, identify orphans and vulnerable children, identify the specific needs of orphans and vulnerable children, garner support (using the asset-based approach) from various sectors to assist OVC in her class and facilitate the formation of peer support groups to provide moral support for orphans and vulnerable children.

**CLASS TEACHER –BASED LIFE SKILLS PROGRAMME FOR GRADES 1 TO 3**

<p>TOPIC ONE</p> <p>TALKING TO STRANGERS</p> <p>RATIONALE: Orphans are generally vulnerable and should exercise care (Riet et al, 2006)</p> <p>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION Skills of relating according to Hopson and Scally (1986)</p> <p>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES Erikson’s (1960) psychosocial theory trust versus mistrust</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register Who is a stranger – educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register Discussion continues	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marking of register Taking sweets from strangers – learner’s reaction – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marking of register Taking sweets from strangers – group 1 presentation	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marking of register Taking sweets from strangers – group 1 presentation	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marking of register Rules for pedestrians	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marking of register Discussions with strangers – what to say and what not to say – Group 2 presentation	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marking of register Discussions with strangers – what to say and what not to say – Group 3 presentation	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marking of register Discussions with strangers – what to say and what not to say – Group 4 presentation	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marking of register Not taking lifts with strangers – educator’s discussion	10 min 10 min

<p>TOPIC TWO THE UNIQUENESS OF ME</p> <p>RATIONALE Owing to abuse and domination, OVC not given opportunity to express their unique talents (Hirasawa, 2007)</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Empowerment approach and skills of developing self and others (Hopson and Sally, 1986)</p> <p><b>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES</b></p> <p>Piaget's sensorimotor development; and competence in terms of Erikson's theory</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register Educator to discuss concept of road safety	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register Discussion continues	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marking of register Road signs (drawing)	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marking of register Road signs (drawing)	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marking of register Robots (drawing)	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marking of register Rules for pedestrians	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marking of register Rules for pedestrians	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marking of register Role play – crossing the road	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marking of register Role play – walking in a straight line	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marking of register Role play helping another to cross the road	10 min 10 min

<p><b>TOPIC THREE</b></p> <p><b>RESPECT</b></p> <p><b>RATIONALE</b></p> <p>Respect is a fundamental requirement for building strong relationships (Motepe, 2005)</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Interpersonal communication and human relations skills according to Gazda, Childers and Brooks, 1987)</p> <p><b>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES</b></p> <p>Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (Torrance, 1994) and Erikson's psychosocial theory (1960)</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register Meaning of respect– educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register Discussion continues	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marking of register Respect for elders - general discussion	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marking of register Respect for friends – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marking of register Respect for educators – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marking of register Showing disrespect to friends – Group 1 presentation	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marking of register Showing disrespect to elders – Group 2 presentation	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marking of register Showing disrespect to teachers Group 3 presentation	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marking of register Self respect – educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marking of register Self-respect – Group 4 presentation	10 min 10 min

<p><b>TOPIC FOUR</b></p> <p>HONESTY</p> <p><b>RATIONALE</b></p> <p>OVC must inculcate strong values such as honesty as these values will prevent them from engaging in illegal activities to sustain a living</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Identify development/purpose in life skills according to Gazda, Childers and Brooks (1987)</p> <p><b>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES</b></p> <p>Kohlberg's six stages of moral development (1973)</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register Meaning of respect– educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register Discussion continues	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marking of register Being honest at home – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marking of register Being honest at school – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marking of register Being honest to your friends – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marking of register Forms of dishonesty at home – Group 1 presentation	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marking of register Forms of dishonesty at school – Group 2 presentation	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marking of register Forms of dishonesty with friends - Group 3 presentation	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marking of register Consequences of dishonest – educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marking of register Consequences of dishonesty – Group 4 presentation	10 min 10 min

<p><b>TOPIC FIVE</b></p> <p><b>FRIENDLINESS</b></p> <p><b>RATIONALE</b></p> <p>Friendliness is a fundamental requirement for building strong relationships (Motepe, 2005)</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Interpersonal communication and human relations skills according to Gazda, Childers and Brooks, 1987)</p> <p><b>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES</b></p> <p>Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (Torrance, 1994) and Erikson's psychosocial theory, 1960)</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register Meaning of friendliness- educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register Discussion continues	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marking of register Being friendly at home – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marking of register Being friendly at school – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marking of register Being friendly to your friends – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marking of register Is it good to be unfriendly at home? – Group 1 presentation	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marking of register Is it good to be unfriendly at school? - Group 2 presentation	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marking of register Is it good to be unfriendly to relatives? Group 3 presentation	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marking of register Choice of friends – educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marking of register Choice of friends – Group 4 presentation	10 min 10 min

<p><b>TOPIC SIX</b></p> <p>HEALTHY LIFE STYLE</p> <p><b>RATIONALE</b></p> <p>Poverty denies OVC the opportunity of leading a healthy life style (Motepe, 2005).</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Physical fitness and health maintenance skills according to Gazda, Childers and Brooks (1987).</p> <p><b>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES</b></p> <p>Experiential learning theory (Rooth, 1995)</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register Meaning of healthy life style- educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register Discussion continues	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marking of register Healthy foods – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marking of register Being active – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marking of register Sports and recreation- general discussion	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marking of register Drawing pictures of healthy foods – Group 1 presentation	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marking of register Drawing pictures of sporting activities - Group 2 presentation	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marking of register Drawing pictures of recreational activities – Group 3 presentation	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marking of register Collecting pictures of healthy persons – Group 4 presentation	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marking of register Conclusion Educators discussion	10 min 10 min

<p><b>TOPIC SEVEN</b></p> <p><b>SUBSTANCE ABUSE (SMOKING/ALCOHOL AND DRUG ABUSE)</b></p> <p><b>RATIONALE</b></p> <p>Owing to the fragile domestic and social systems in which OVC live, OVC are easily susceptible to substance abuse (Van Schalkwyk, 2002).</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Physical fitness and health maintenance skills according to Gazda, Childers and Brooks (1987). Development of assertiveness skills according to Hopson and Scally 1986).</p> <p><b>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES</b></p> <p>Experiential learning theory (Rooth, 1995)</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register Meaning of substance abuse-educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register Discussion continues	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marking of register Why you should not smoke? general discussion	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marking of register Why you should not take drugs? general discussion	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marking of register Why you should not take alcohol? General discussion? - general discussion	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marking of register Dangers of smoking– Group 1 presentation – pictures and posters	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marking of register Dangers of drug abuse Group 2 presentation – pictures and posters	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marking of register Dangers of alcohol abuse - Group 3 presentation – pictures and posters	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marking of register Conclusion - Educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marking of register Helping someone who is smoking– Group 4 presentation.	10 min 10 min

<p><b>TOPIC EIGHT</b></p> <p>UNHEALTHY LIFE STYLE</p> <p><b>RATIONALE</b></p> <p>Poverty denies OVC the opportunity of leading a healthy life style (Motepe, 2005).</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Physical fitness and health maintenance skills according to Gazda, Childers and Brooks (1987).</p> <p><b>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES</b></p> <p>Experiential learning theory (Rooth, 1995)</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register Meaning of unhealthy life style- educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register Discussion continues	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marking of register Unhealthy foods – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marking of register Being inactive – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marking of register Forms of inactivity – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marking of register Drawing pictures of unhealthy foods – Group 1 presentation	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marking of register Drawing pictures of inactive situations - Group 2 presentation	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marking of register Collecting pictures of unhealthy people activities –Group 3 presentation	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marking of register Dangers of unhealthy life styles – Educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marking of register Dangers of unhealthy life styles – Group 4 presentation on sugar diabetes	10 min 10 min

<p><b>TOPIC NINE</b></p> <p>HIV/AIDS</p> <p><b>RATIONALE</b></p> <p>The AIDS epidemic threatens the viability, perhaps the very existence of OVC (Bender, 2002), therefore the need for HIV/AIDS education</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Skills of learning according to Hopson and Scally (1986)</p> <p><b>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES</b></p> <p>Experiential learning theory (Rooth, 1995); Sensorimotor development according to Piaget's cognitive development theory (Lovell, 1967)</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register Meaning of HIV-educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register Meaning of AIDS –educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marking of register The HIV/AIDS symbol general discussion	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marking of register What happens to HIV/AIDS patients- general discussion	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marking of register Prevention of HIV/AIDS- General discussion	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marking of register Prevention of HIV/AIDS - Group 1 presentation – pictures	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marking of register Prevention of HIV/AIDS Group 2 presentation posters	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marking of register Prevention of HIV/AIDS Group 3 presentation discussion	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marking of register Helping someone with HIV/AIDS – Group 4 presentation	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marking of register Conclusion – Educators discussion	10 min 10 min

<p><b>TOPIC TEN</b></p> <p><b>EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION</b></p> <p><b>RATIONALE</b></p> <p>Effective communication is a fundamental requirement for building strong relationships (Motepe, 2005)</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Interpersonal communication and human relations skills according to Gazda, Childers and Brooks, 1987)</p> <p><b>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES</b></p> <p>Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (Torrance, 1994) and Erikson's psychosocial theory (1960)</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register Meaning of communication – educators discussion –more than talking	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register Meaning of communication - educators discussion – importance of communication	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marking of register Communication at home -general discussion	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marking of register Communication with friend - general discussion	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marking of register Communication with teachers -General discussion	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marking of register How to communicate at home - Group 1 presentation – citing examples	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marking of register How to communicate with friends - Group 2 presentation – citing examples	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marking of register How to communicate with teachers Group 3 presentation – citing examples	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marking of register What happens to a person who does not communicate Group 4 presentation	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marking of register Conclusion – Educators discussion	10 min 10 min

**CLASS TEACHER –BASED LIFE SKILLS PROGRAMME FOR GRADES 4 TO 7**

<p><b>TOPIC ONE</b></p> <p><b>THE UNIQUENESS OF ME</b></p> <p><b>RATIONALE</b></p> <p>Owing to abuse and domination, OVC not given opportunity to express their unique talents (Hirasawa, 2007)</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Empowerment approach and skills of developing self and others (Hopson and Scally, 1986)</p> <p><b>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES</b></p> <p>Piaget’s sensorimotor development; and competence in terms of Erikson’s theory</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register Meaning of uniqueness of me – educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register Meaning of self-identity - educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marketing of register What makes each of us different from our friends - general discussion	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marketing of register What make s each of us different from our siblings - general discussion	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marketing of register Why I cannot be like my brother or sister? Group 1 presentation	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marketing of register Why I cannot be like my friend? Group 2 presentation	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marketing of register Why do I love myself? Group 3 presentation	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marketing of register Being content with ourselves – general discussion 3 presentation	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marketing of register Dangers of trying to be like someone else Group 4 presentation	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marketing of register Conclusion – Educators discussion	10 min 10 min

<p><b>TOPIC TWO</b></p> <p><b>ASSERTIVENESS</b></p> <p><b>RATIONALE</b></p> <p>Owing to the fragile domestic and social systems in which OVC live, OVC are easily susceptible to substance abuse (Van Schalkwyk, 2002).</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Physical fitness and health maintenance skills according to Gazda, Childers and Brooks (1987). Development of assertiveness skills according to Hopson and Scally 1986)</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register Meaning of assertiveness – how to say no educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register Meaning of assertiveness speaking without being impolite or aggressive - educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marketing of register Example given to class – you are offered drugs – how do you say no – class discussion	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marketing of register Group 1 presentation – how to say no to drugs	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marketing of register Example given to class – You are incited to a secret party and you don't want to go - how do you say no – class discussion	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marketing of register Group 2 presentation – no to party	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marketing of register Example given to class – You are asked by a group of friends to bunk class with them – you don't want to – how do you say no – general class discussion	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marketing of register Group 3 presentation – no to bunking.	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marketing of register You discovered that a learner has stolen your pen – how do address this – general class discussion	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marketing of register Group 4 presentation – addressing the issue of the stolen pen	10 min 10 min

<p><b>TOPIC THREE</b></p> <p><b>BEING PROUD OF MYSELF</b></p> <p><b>RATIONALE</b></p> <p>Lack of psychological support structures in domestic environment and being dominated and abused subdues egocentricity – therefore the need to internalize the notion that the child should be proud of himself/herself.</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Empowerment approach and skills of developing self and others (Hopson and Scally, 1986)</p> <p><b>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES</b></p> <p>Piaget’s sensorimotor development; and competence in terms of Erikson’s theory</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register Difference between being proud and having an ego.	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register What can one do to be proud of themselves educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marking of register Being proud of oneself at home – what are some of the things that you can do? general discussion	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marking of register Being proud of oneself at home – Group 1 presentation	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marking of register Being proud of oneself at school - what are some of the things that you can do?	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marking of register Being proud of oneself at school - Group 2 presentation	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marking of register Being proud of oneself in the community – what are some of the things that I can do? – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marking of register Being proud of oneself in the community – Group three presentation	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marking of register Difference between being macho and being proud – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marking of register Difference between being macho and being proud – Group 4 presentation	10 min 10 min

<p><b>TOPIC FOUR</b></p> <p>HEALTHY LIFESTYLE</p> <p><b>RATIONALE</b></p> <p>Poverty denies OVC the opportunity of leading a healthy life style (Motepe, 2005).</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Physical fitness and health maintenance skills according to Gazda, Childers and Brooks (1987).</p> <p><b>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES</b></p> <p>Experiential learning theory (Rooth, 1995)</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register Meaning of healthy life style– educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register Discussion continues	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marking of register Do cellphones lead us to lead healthy lifestyles? – class discussion	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marking of register Cellphones and healthy lifestyles – Group 1 presentation	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marking of register Does watching too much television lead to healthy lifestyles? Class discussion	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marking of register Television and healthy lifestyles – Group 2 presentation	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marking of register What is the meaning of leading a balanced lifestyle – class discussion	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marking of register Balanced lifestyle – Group 3 presentation	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marking of register Dangers of eating junk food – class discussion	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marking of register Dangers of eating junk food – Group 4 presentation	10 min 10 min

<p><b>TOPIC FIVE</b></p> <p><b>SUBSTANCE ABUSE (SMOKING/ALCOHOL AND DRUG ABUSE)</b></p> <p><b>RATIONALE</b></p> <p>Owing to the fragile domestic and social systems in which OVC live, OVC are easily susceptible to substance abuse (Van Schalkwyk, 2002).</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Physical fitness and health maintenance skills according to Gazda, Childers and Brooks (1987). Development of assertiveness skills according to Hopson and Scally 1986)</p> <p><b>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES</b></p> <p>Experiential learning theory (Rooth, 1995)</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register VARIOUS DRUGS educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register VARIOUS DRUGS Discussion continues	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marking of register GROUP 1 TO DO A PRESENTATION ON CANNABIS AND CIGARETTES	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marking of register GROUP 2 TO DO A PRESENTATION ON ALCOHOL	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marking of register GROUP THREE TO DO A PRESENTATION ON SUGARS AND ECSTASY	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marking of register GROUP 4 TO DO A PRESENTATION ON HEROINE	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marking of register Dangers of drug abuse GROUP 1 TO DO A PRESENTATION ON HOW DRUGS ARE RELATED TO HIV/AIDS	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marking of register GROUP 2 T TO DO A PRESENTATION ON HOW ALCOHOL IS RELATED TO HIV/AIDS	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marking of register GROUP 3 TO DO A PRESENTATION ON HOW DRUGS AFFECTS SCHOOL WORK	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marking of register GROUP FOUR TO DO A PRESENTATION ON HOW DRUGS ARE RELATED TO CRIME	10 min 10 min

<p><b>TOPIC SIX</b></p> <p>SUBSTANCE ABUSE (CONTINUED) (SMOKING/ALCOHOL AND DRUG ABUSE)</p> <p><b>RATIONALE</b></p> <p>Owing to the fragile domestic and social systems in which OVC live, OVC are easily susceptible to substance abuse (Van Schalkwyk, 2002).</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Physical fitness and health maintenance skills according to Gazda, Childers and Brooks (1987). Development of assertiveness skills according to Hopson and Scally 1986)</p> <p><b>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES</b></p> <p>Experiential learning theory (Rooth, 1995)</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register Meaning of substance abuse-educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register Discussion continues	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marking of register Why you should not smoke? general discussion	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marking of register Why you should not take drugs? general discussion	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marking of register Why you should not take alcohol? General discussion? - general discussion	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marking of register Dangers of smoking– Group 1 presentation – pictures and posters	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marking of register Dangers of drug abuse Group 2 presentation – pictures and posters	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marking of register Dangers of alcohol abuse - Group 3 presentation – pictures and posters	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marking of register Conclusion - Educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marking of register Helping someone who is smoking– Group 4 presentation.	10 min 10 min

<p><b>TOPIC SEVEN</b></p> <p><b>TEENAGE PREGNANCY</b></p> <p><b>RATIONALE</b></p> <p>Motepe (2005) and Bender (2002) argue that pregnancy among teenage girls, especially orphans and vulnerable girls, is on the increase – hence the need for this education.</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Skills of learning according to Hopson and Scally (1986)</p> <p><b>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES</b></p> <p>Experiential learning theory (Rooth, 1995); Sensorimotor development according to Piaget's cognitive development theory (Lovell, 1967)</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register Teenage pregnancy – educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register Discussion continues	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marketing of register Is it cool for teenage girls to fall pregnant? – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marketing of register Is it cool for teenage girls to fall pregnant? General discussion continued?	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marketing of register How does teenage pregnancy affect schooling?	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marketing of register Group 1 to do a presentation on how teenage pregnancy affects schooling	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marketing of register How does teenage pregnancy affect one's future outlook – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marketing of register How does teenage pregnancy affect one's future outlook – Group 2 presentation	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marketing of register Are teenagers equipped to deal with babies? Group three presentation	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marketing of register How does teenage pregnancies affect the families of the teenager – Group 4 presentation	10 min 10 min

<p><b>TOPIC EIGHT</b></p> <p>HIV/AIDS</p> <p><b>RATIONALE</b></p> <p>The AIDS epidemic threatens the viability, perhaps the very existence of OVC (Bender, 2002), therefore the need for HIV/AIDS education</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Skills of learning according to Hopson and Scally (1986)</p> <p><b>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES</b></p> <p>Experiential learning theory (Rooth, 1995); Sensorimotor development according to Piaget's cognitive development theory (Lovell, 1967)</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register What is HIV educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register What is AIDS? Discussion continues	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marking of register What causes HIV/AIDS – general discussion	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marking of register Group 1 to do a presentation on causes of HIV/AIDS	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marking of register Group 2 to do a presentation on the causes of HIV/AIDS	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marking of register What can I do to prevent myself from contracting HIV/AIDS	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marking of register Preventing myself from contracting HIV/AIDS – Group 3 presentation	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marking of register Preventing myself from contracting HIV/AIDS – Group 4 presentation	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marking of register Conclusion - educator	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marking of register Conclusion - educator	10 min 10 min

<p><b>TOPIC NINE</b></p> <p><b>EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION</b></p> <p><b>RATIONALE</b></p> <p>Effective communication is a fundamental requirement for building strong relationships (Motepe, 2005)</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Interpersonal communication and human relations skills according to Gazda, Childers and Brooks, 1987)</p> <p><b>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES</b></p> <p>Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (Torrance, 1994) and Erikson's psychosocial theory (1960)</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register Meaning of communication – educators discussion –more than talking	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register Meaning of communication - educators discussion – importance of communication	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marketing of register Communication at home -general discussion	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marketing of register Communication with friend - general discussion	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marketing of register Communication with teachers -General discussion	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marketing of register How to communicate at home - Group 1 presentation – citing examples	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marketing of register How to communicate with friends - Group 2 presentation – citing examples	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marketing of register How to communicate with teachers Group 3 presentation – citing examples	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marketing of register What happens to a person who does not communicate Group 4 presentation	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marketing of register Conclusion – Educators discussion	10 min 10 min

<p><b>TOPIC TEN</b></p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; margin: 10px 0;">COPING SKILLS</div> <p><b>RATIONALE</b></p> <p>OVC undergo all forms of stress and are subject to various stressors – the capacity to cope and build resilience is therefore needed.</p> <p><b>LIFE SKILLS THEORETICAL APPLICATION</b></p> <p>Identity development/purpose in life skills according to Gazda, Childers and Brooks (1987)</p> <p>Empowerment approach (Carl, 2002)</p> <p><b>APPLICATION OF LEARNING THEORIES</b></p> <p>Experiential learning theory (Rooth, 1995); Sensorimotor development according to Piaget’s cognitive development theory (Lovell, 1967)</p>	1	Prayer and marking of register Coping with schoolwork and housework – educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	2	Prayer and marking of register Coping with the loss of loved ones – educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	3	Prayer/marking of register Coping with emotions – educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	4	Prayer/marking of register Coping with stress – educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	5	Prayer/marking of register Coping with schoolwork and housework – How do I cope – group 1 presentation	10 min 10 min
	6	Prayer/marking of register Coping with the loss of loved ones – How do I cope – Group 2 presentation	10 min 10 min
	7	Prayer/marking of register Coping with emotions – How do I cope – Group 3 presentation	10 min 10 min
	8	Prayer/marking of register Coping with stress – How do I cope – Group 4 presentation	10 min 10 min
	9	Prayer/marking of register Conclusion – Educators discussion	10 min 10 min
	10	Prayer/marking of register Conclusion – Educators discussion	10 min 10 min

**Orphans and  
Vulnerable Children  
(OVC)**

By Mr. L. Naidoo

I AM MR L. NAIDOO  
EDUCATOR AT THE UMKOMAAS  
SECONDARY SCHOOL

I AM DOING MY DOCTORATES  
IN EDUCATION

I AM RESEARCHING THE ROLE  
OF THE CLASS TEACHER IN  
ADDRESSING THE NEEDS OF  
ORPHANS AND VULNERABLE  
CHILDREN

THIS RESEARCH INVOLVES THE  
DEVELOPMENT OF A MODEL  
THAT COULD BE USED BY  
CLASS TEACHERS TO ADDRESS  
THE NEEDS OF ORPHANS AND  
VULNERABLE CHILDREN

PERMISSION HAS BEEN  
OBTAINED FROM THE  
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION  
AND PRINCIPALS OF VARIOUS  
PRIMARY SCHOOLS

**PURPOSE OF THIS RESEARCH**

1. TO EXAMINE THE ROLE PLAYED BY EDUCATORS IN ADDRESSING THE NEEDS OF OVC.
2. TO EXAMINE THE EDUCATIONAL CHALLENGES CHALLENGES FACED BY OVC.
3. TO EVALUATE THE PROPOSED MODEL.

## WHY ORPHANS?

1. THE UMDONI/ VULAMEHLO AREA HAS OVER 3000 ORPHANS.
2. ORPHANS NEED FOOD, CLOTHING, SHELTER, EDUCATION, EMOTIONAL SUPPORT, RECREATION AND QUALITY LIFE LIKE ANY OTHER CHILD THAT COMES FROM A STABLE FAMILY BACKGROUND
3. RESEARCH HAS SHOWN THAT ORPHANS FACE NUMEROUS CHALLENGES AND MANY OF THEIR BASIC AS WELL AS SECONDARY NEEDS GO UNFILLED.
4. MANY ORPHANS DROP OUT OF SCHOOL AT AN EARLY AGE.
5. MANY ORPHANS END UP BEING STREET CHILDREN AND RESORT TO CRIME AND OTHER SOCIAL EVILS AT A VERY YOUNG AGE

## WHY THE CLASS TEACHER?

1. THE CLASS TEACHER IS THE FIRST OF ALL EDUCATORS THAT THE ORPHAN COMES IN CONTACT WITH.
2. THE CLASS TEACHER IS BEST POSITIONED TO KNOW THE ATTENDANCE PATTERN OF THE ORPHAN
3. THE CLASS TEACHER IS BEST POSITIONED TO KNOW THE NUTRITIONAL NEEDS OF ORPHANS.
4. THE CLASS TEACHER IS BEST POSITIONED TO KNOW THE OVERALL ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE OF THE ORPHAN.
5. THE CLASS TEACHER IS BEST POSITIONED TO KNOW A BIT ABOUT THE ORPHAN'S BACKGROUND
6. THE CLASS TEACHER IS BEST POSITIONED TO KNOW THE FINANCIAL CIRCUMSTANCES OF ORPHANS.

## CHALLENGES FACING THE CLASS TEACHER

1. THE CLASS TEACHER DOES NOT HAVE CLEAR GUIDELINES FROM THE DEPARTMENT ON HOW TO ADDRESS THE NEEDS OF OVC.
2. THE CLASS TEACHER HAS NO TIME
3. THE CLASS TEACHER IS NOT MOTIVATED ENOUGH
4. THE CLASS TEACHER HAS A HEAVY WORK LOAD
5. LACK OF RESOURCES AT SCHOOL
6. DIFFICULT TO CONTACT PERSONS TO ASSIST
7. THE SCHOOL DOES NOT HAVE A POLICY TO DEAL WITH OVC.

## THE ASSET-BASED APPROACH

### WHAT IS THE ASSET-BASED APPROACH?

ACCORDING TO KRETZMANN AND McNIGHT (1993), THE ASSET-BASED APPROACH DEALS WITH THE IDENTIFICATION OF VARIOUS ASSETS – INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL AND THE UTILIZATION OF THESE ASSETS.

WITHIN THE SCHOOL CONTEXT, ASSETS SIMPLY REFERS TO RESOURCES. SCHOOLS HAVE INTERNAL RESOURCES AS WELL AS EXTERNAL RESOURCES

## INTERNAL RESOURCES OF THE SCHOOL

1. THE SCHOOL MANAGEMENT TEAM (SMT)
  2. THE SCHOOL GOVERNING BODY
  3. THE LIBRARIAN
  4. SPECIALIST EDUCATORS
  5. LEARNER ASSOCIATIONS
  6. GUIDANCE COUNSELLORS
- CAN YOU THINK OF OTHERS

## THE EXTERNAL RESOURCES OF THE SCHOOL

1. COMMUNITY-BASED ORGANISATIONS FOR EXAMPLE, SENIOR CITIZENS CLUBS, FEEDING CLUBS.
2. FAITH-BASED ORGANISATIONS, FOR EXAMPLE THE CHURCH.
3. TRADITIONAL TRIBAL ORGANISATIONS –
4. NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS- FOR, EXAMPLE, THE UMDONI AND VULAMEHLO HIV AND AIDS ASSOCIATION, THE ROTARY CLUB.

**HOW CAN THE CLASS TEACHER USE THE ASSET-BASED APPROACH TO ADDRESS THE NEEDS OF OVCs**

1. IDENTIFY ALL EXTERNAL ASSETS AND INTERNAL ASSETS
2. CONTACT ALL INTERNAL ASSETS AND EXTERNAL ASSETS
3. DRAW UP A PROGRAMME TO INCLUDE INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL ASSETS
- 4 IMPLEMENT THE PROGRAMME
- 5 EVALUATE THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE PROGRAMME.

**IMPLEMENTING THE ASSET- BASED MODEL**

**EXTERNAL RESOURCES/ASSETS**

1. IDENTIFY A CBO, FBO AND NGO IN THE AREA IN WHICH THE SCHOOL IS SITUATED.
2. MAKE CONTACT WITH THE CBO, NGO AND FBO AND REQUEST THAT YOU NEED TO ENLIST THEIR HELP TO SUPPORT OVCs.
3. NOTE THE PROBLEMS YOU HAVE ENCOUNTERED IN CONTACTING THE FBO, CBO AND NGO.
- 4 NOTE THEIR RESPONSE – HELPFUL OR NOT HELPFUL.

**INTERNAL RESOURCES/ASSETS**

1. THE SMT
  - 1.1 LIAISE WITH THE SMT TO ENLIST THEIR ASSISTANCE WITH REGARD TO SUPPORT PROGRAMMES FOR OVCs.
  - 1.2 NOTE THE PROBLEMS YOU HAVE ENCOUNTERED IN DOING SO.
  - 1.3 NOTE WHETHER THE SMT WAS SUPPORTIVE OR NOT.

2. THE SCHOOL GOVERNING BODY
  - 2.1 LIAISE WITH THE SGB TO ENLIST THEIR ASSISTANCE WITH REGARD TO SUPPORT PROGRAMMES FOR OVCs.
  - 2.2 NOTE THE PROBLEMS YOU HAVE ENCOUNTERED IN DOING SO.
  - 2.3 NOTE WHETHER THE SGB WAS SUPPORTIVE OR NOT.

**3. LEARNER ASSOCIATIONS**

- 3.1 SET UP A LEARNER ASSOCIATION TO CREATE SUPPORT PROGRAMMES FOR OVCs.
- 2.2 NOTE THE PROBLEMS YOU HAVE ENCOUNTERED IN DOING SO.
- 2.3 NOTE WHETHER THE LEARNER ASSOCIATION WAS SUPPORTIVE OR NOT.

**4. SPECIALIST EDUCATORS/LIBRARIAN/GUIDANCE COUNSELLOR**

- 4.1 LIAISE WITH THESE EDUCATORS TO ENLIST THEIR EXPERTISE TO CREATE SUPPORT PROGRAMMES FOR OVCs.
- 4.2 NOTE THE PROBLEMS YOU HAVE ENCOUNTERED IN DOING SO.
- 4.3 NOTE WHETHER THESE EDUCATORS WERE SUPPORTIVE OR NOT.

## IMPLEMENTING A LIFE SKILLS PROGRAMME FOR OVCS.

1. YOU NEED ABOUT TWENTY MINUTES IN THE MORNINGS OR DURING ANY PART OF THE DAY FOR THE CLASS TEACHER-BASED LIFE SKILLS PROGRAMME.
2. THERE ARE TEN TOPICS – THESE TOPICS COULD BE SPREAD OUT EVENLY THROUGHOUT THE YEAR – WILL WORK OUT TO 3 IN FIRST TERM, 2 IN SECOND TERM 3 IN THIRD TERM AND TWO IN THE LAST TERM.
3. EVERY FRIDAY OR ANY OTHER DAY COULD BE UTILIZED FOR THIS PROGRAMME.
4. USE DISCUSSION AND GENERAL TEACHING METHODS TO IMPART THE LIFE SKILLS PROGRAMME.

## TOPICS TO COVER IN THE LIFE SKILLS PROGRAMME

### TERM 1

GRADE 1-3 Talking to Strangers  
Grade 1-3 The uniqueness of me  
Grade 4-7 The uniqueness of me  
Grade 4-7 Assertiveness

### TERM 2

GRADE 1-3 Respect  
GRADE 1-3 Honesty  
GRADE 1-3 Friendliness  
GRADE 4-7 Being proud of myself  
GRADE 4-7 Healthy lifestyle  
GRADE 4-7 Substance abuse

### PROGRAMME (CONT)

- **TERM 3**  
GRADE 1-3 Healthy life style  
GRADE 1-3 Unhealthy life style  
GRADE 1-3 Substance abuse  
GRADE 4-7 Substance abuse (continued)  
GRADE 4-7 Teenage pregnancy  
GRADE 4-7 HIV/AIDS
- **TERM 4**  
GRADE 1-3 HIV/AIDS  
GRADE 1-3 Effective communication  
GRADE 4-7 Effective communication  
GRADE 4-7 Coping skills

## THE PEER COUNSELLING PROGRAMME

### WHAT IS THE PEER COUNSELLING PROGRAMME ?

Peer counselling entails counselling by teenagers, more especially those teenagers who go through a wide range of problems such as physical abuse, emotional abuse, economic hardships, psychological problems, behavioral problem and stigmatization. These young people come together to:

- share experience, strength and hope with each other.
- discuss their difficulties.
- learn effective ways to cope with their problems.
- encourage one another.
- help each other understand the principles of their programme.

Alateen members and orphans and vulnerable children. The Alateen programme offers group psychotherapy and centres around empathy for one another. As such affected teenagers could relate with another, share their strengths and hope and offer moral as well as spiritual support for orphans and vulnerable children affected by AIDS. Teenage OVCS could form a support group called Ovuteen (Orphan and Vulnerable Teenagers).

### HOW TO IMPLEMENT THE PEER COUNSELLING PROGRAMME

1. FORM A GROUP OF ORPHANS
2. INDICATE TO THEM THAT THEY NEED TO MEET ABOUT TWICE A WEEK.
3. THE GROUP HAS TO BE TOLD THAT THEY HAVE TO DISCUSS THE PROBLEMS THAT THEY EXPERIENCE AND HOW THEY COPE WITH THESE PROBLEMS.  
TOPICS COULD INCLUDE: SCHOOL FEES, FOOD, UNIFORM, ABUSE, NEGLECT, HOMEWORK, DOMESTIC CHORES, CHILD MINDING.
4. THE GROUP HAS TO BE TOLD THAT THE MAIN PURPOSE IS TO OFFER STRENGTH AND HOPE TO THEIR COLLEAGUES.

CONCLUSLION

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND  
ATTENTION

THANKS TO THE PRINCIPALFOR  
AFFORDING ME THE TIME

I WILL MEET WITH YOU AGAIN IN  
ABOUT A MONTHS TIME TO EVALUTE  
THE MODEL