

THE IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGED POLICIES PERTAINING TO CHILD

AND YOUTH CARE:

VIEWS AND EXPERIENCES OF TEAM MEMBERS

by

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Declaration

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SUMMARY

The changes in child and youth care policies over the last fifteen years have had profound consequences for the staff at Youth Care and Education Centres (hereafter referred to as YCECs). These changes included systemic changes, philosophical changes, and changes in the way services are rendered to children and youth in their care. It was thus expected of team members to not only change their behaviours but to also make mind shifts. The mandates were that they move from working in silos (educators, residential educators and support team) to working in teams; from rendering generic services to developing individualised plans for children and youth; from following a medical (deficit) approach in service delivery to following a strength based- and developmental approach. Whereas a punitive approach to discipline was followed in the past staff members now have to follow a restorative approach. In addition, the emphasis on children's rights, in general, and the abolishment of corporal punishment, in particular, brought about changes in the nature of the adult-child relationship. It was required of the team members to learn to use alternatives to this form of punishment.

The study explored how the members of the institutional level teams at the four YCECs in the Western Cape were experiencing the implementation of changed child and youth policies. A combined quantitative and qualitative research methodology was followed in obtaining the data from the residential educators, as well as the educators and the support team members comprising of psychologists, school social workers, occupational therapists, and school nurses. The points of departure were the organisational learning model and the phases of team development.

Findings derived from the empirical study were that the difference between the way the participants embraced and implemented changed policies and legislation had much to do with the guidance that the principal and senior management provided for them. Where the principal set the tone and conveyed the message that the implementation of the policies were not negotiable and gave staff members the opportunity to thoroughly discuss these changes, they eventually shared the underlying principles of the changed policies. Where the principal provided direction, support and encouragement for the implementation of the changed policies the participants felt secure and empowered. Where this support was not present participants felt uncertain and to some extent let down.

When a shared vision was articulated to them the participants were able to align their personal visions thereto, which further led to a greater understanding of their roles within the team. Where participants, however, were not clear on the shared vision they seemed to struggle with role division and status and

power issues. When team members were left to their own devices a measure of personal mastery still took place due to the commitment of individuals but team learning was either limited or virtually non-existent. Systems thinking remained a challenge due to the forming of subgroups within the YCEC and the limited or nonexistent services rendered by external social workers to the families of the children and youth.

The most important recommendations resulting from the study indicate that provision must be made for frameworks for the implementation of changes in policy and guidelines for team processes. To ensure that new staff is informed about the policies that guide their services an orientation programme must be in place. Training for principals in effective introduction and implementation of change should also be provided. To ascertain what the staff complement should be to effectively implement changes in the policies, a work-study and a fast track pilot project should be conducted. From this, job descriptions should be developed that make provision for the incumbent's role within the team. Consideration should also be given to the incentive system that currently only makes provision for individual performance and could hamper teamwork.

OPSOMMING

Die veranderinge in kinder- en jeugsorgbeleide oor die laaste vyftien jaar het diepgaande gevolge ingehou vir personeel by Jeugsorg- en Onderwysentrums (hierna verwys as JSOS). Hierdie veranderinge het sistemiese en filosofiese veranderinge, asook verandering in die wyse waarop dienste gelewer word, aan kinders en jeug in hul sorg, meegebring. Dit word dus van die spanlede verwag om nie net hul gedrag nie, maar ook hul denkwyse te verander. Die mandate vervat in die beleide is dat personeel skuif van werk in silos (opvoeders, residensiële opvoeders en ondersteuningspan) na werk in spanne; van die lewer van generiese dienste tot die ontwikkeling van individuele planne vir kinders en jeug; van die volg van 'n mediese benadering aangaande dienslewering tot 'n sterkte-gebaseerde- en ontwikkelingsbenadering. Waar daar in die verlede 'n strafgerigte benadering gevolg is moet daar nou beweeg word na 'n helende benadering. Verder het die klem op kinderrechte in die algemeen, en die afskaf van lyfstraf in besonder, veranderinge meegebring in die aard van die volwasse-kind verhouding. Dit was verwag van die spanlede om te leer om alternatiewes tot die vorm van straf aan te leer.

Die studie het ondersoek ingestel na hoe lede van die inrigtingsgebaseerde span by die vier JSOS in die Weskaap die implementering van veranderde kinder- en jeugbeleid ervaar. 'n Gekombineerde kwantitatiewe en kwalitatiewe navorsing metodologie was gevolg in die insamel van data van die residensiële opvoeders, die opvoeders en die lede van die ondersteuningspan (sielkundiges, skool maatskaplike werkers, arbeidsterapeute en skool verpleegkundiges). Die vertrekpunt was die organisasieleer model en die fases van spanontwikkeling.

Bevindinge wat gemaak is uit die empiriese studie was dat die verskille tussen die wyse waarop die deelnemers die veranderde beleid aanvaar en implementeer het baie te doen gehad het met die mate van leiding wat die prinsipaal en senior bestuur vir hul gegee het. Waar die prinsipaal die toon aangegee het en die boodskap oorgedra het dat die implementering van die beleide nie onderhandelbaar was nie en personeellede die geleentheid gebied is om die veranderinge deeglik te bespreek, het hul geleidelik ingekoop in die veranderde werkswyse. Waar die prinsipaal rigting en ondersteuning vir die implementering van die veranderde beleid gebied het, het die deelnemers veilig en bemaagtig gevoel. Waar die ondersteuning egter ontbreek het, het die deelnemers onseker en, tot 'n mate, in die steek gelaat gevoel.

Wanneer 'n gedeelde visie oorgedra is aan hulle was die deelnemers in staat om hul persoonlike visies in lyn te bring daarmee. Dit het verder aanleiding gegee tot beter begrip vir hul rolle binne die span. Waar deelnemers egter nie duidelik was oor die gedeelde visie nie, het dit geblyk dat hulle

probleme gehad het met rolverdeling, status en magaanleenthede in die span. Wanneer spanlede oorgelaat is aan hul eie lot het 'n mate van persoonlike bemeestering nog plaasgevind as gevolg van die persoonlike toewyding van individue, maar spanleer was óf beperk óf feitlik afwesig. Sisteem denke was steeds 'n struikelblok as gevolg van die vorming van subgroepe binne die JSOS en die beperkte of afwesige dienslewering deur eksterne maatskaplike werkers aan gesinne van die kinders en jong mense.

Die belangrikste aanbevelings, wat voortspruit uit die studie, dui aan dat voorsiening gemaak moet word vir raamwerke vir die implementering van beleidsveranderings en riglyne vir spanprosesse. Om te verseker dat nuwe personeel ingelig is omtrent die beleide wat hul dienslewering rig moet 'n oriënteringsprogram in plek wees. Opleiding van prinsipale in die effektiewe bekendstelling en implementering van veranderings moet ook voorsien word. Om vas te stel wat die aanvulling vir personeel moet wees om die veranderings in die beleid te implementeer, behoort 'n werkstudie en 'n snel loodsprojek onderneem word. Hieruit kan pligstate opgestel word wat voorsiening maak vir die ampsdraer se rol in spanverband. Oorweging moet geskenk word aan die aansporingstelsel wat tans net voorsiening maak vir individuele werksverrigting en wat spanwerk kan strem.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BEM	-	Boys' Education Movement
CGE	-	Commission for Gender Equality
CLEAR	-	Challenges in Logic and Emotions causing Actions that lead to Results
CRC	-	Convention on the Rights of the Child
DBST	-	District Based Support Team
DES	-	Department of Education and Science
DIME	-	Diversion In Music Education
DQA	-	Developmental Quality Assurance
DRUMBEAT	-	Discovering Relationships Using Music, Beliefs, Emotions, Attitudes and Thoughts
EBD	-	Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties
ECD	-	Early Childhood Development
ELSED	-	Education for Learners with Special Education Needs
EMDC	-	Education and Management District Office
EP	-	Educational Psychologist
EQ	-	Emotional Intelligence
EST	-	Education Support Teams
FBA	-	Functional Behaviour Assessment
FGC	-	Family Group Conferencing
G.R.E.A.T	-	Gang Resistance Education and Training
HCDS	-	Human Capital Development Strategy
IDEA	-	Individuals with Disabilities Education Act
IDP	-	Individual Development Plan
IEDP	-	Individual Education and Development Plan
IEP	-	Individualised and Educational Plan
IFEC	-	International Federation of Educative Communities
ILST	-	Institutional Level Support Team
IMC	-	Inter-Ministerial Committee
IQMS	-	Integrated Quality Management System
ISP	-	Individual Support Plan
JSOS	-	Jeugsorg- en Onderwyscentrums
LSCI	-	Life Space Crisis Intervention
LSEN	-	Learner with Special Education Needs
LO	-	Life Orientation

MFT	-	Multi-Functional Team
NCESS	-	National Committee for Education Support Services
NCSNET	-	National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training
NICRO	-	National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders
NPA	-	National Programme of Action
NSNP	-	National School Nutrition Programme
OBE	-	Outcomes-Based Education
ORC	-	Offices on the Rights of the Child
OT	-	Occupational Therapist
PPC	-	Positive Peer Culture
RAP	-	Responsibility Pathways
RAPCAN	-	Resources Aimed at Preventing Child Abuse and Neglect
RDP	-	Reconstruction and Development Programme
RNCS	-	Revised National Curriculum Statement
SAHRC	-	South African Human Rights Commission
SAYSTOP	-	South African Youth Sex Offender Programme
VOM	-	Victim Offender Mediation
WCED	-	Western Cape Education Department
YAR	-	Youth At Risk
YCEC	-	Youth Care and Education Centres
YMCA	-	Young Men's Christian Association

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The rendering of services to learners in Youth Care and Education Centres (YCECs) of the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) has changed radically since 1994. This was brought about by, amongst others, the ratification of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) (United Nations, 1989), the Constitution of the RSA (RSA, 1993a), the Children's Act 38 of 2005 (RSA, 2005), the Children's Amendment Act 41 of 2007 and the subsequent application of these policies to child and youth care and education legislation in the various Government Departments.

The WCED developed the Policy on Special Education Services for Learners Manifesting or at Risk of Experiencing Emotional and/or Behavioural Difficulties (WCED, 2001b) based on the CRC. The policy provides for five levels of support for learners in need. The first three levels of support provide for interventions in mainstream schools. Levels 4 (YCECs) and Level 5 (Special Youth Care and Education Centres) provide for institutionalisation of learners who present with serious anti-social behaviours and who can only benefit from training/education if they are temporarily contained. Minimum standards for service delivery in these institutions have also been developed (WCED, 2004b).

The focus of this study is on Youth Care and Education Centres. These centres were previously known as "Schools of Industries" and are soon to be renamed "child and youth care centres". Children and youth are currently referred to these centres via the Children's Court in terms of Section 14(4) of the Child Care Act 1983 (Act 74 of 1983) (RSA, 1983). In future the Children's Court will refer children and youth in terms of Section 50 of the Children's Act 38 of 2005 (RSA, 2005). They can also be referred via the youth court when the criminal trial is converted into a children's court inquiry in terms of Section 254 of the Criminal Procedures Act (Act 51 of 1977) (RSA, 1977a and RSA, 1983). The trial is converted if the Magistrate finds extenuating circumstances, in other words, that personal, familial and/or community influences contributed to the child's / youth's behaviour (RSA, 1977a; RSA, 1983). They are referred to the YCECs for a period of two years but they may be discharged sooner if their progress warrants it.

Given the complex nature of the learners' problems, it is imperative that they have access to appropriate development and therapeutic programmes. In terms of the changed legislation the implementation of these services is the responsibility of an institutional level team (IMC: Discussion Document, 1996(a):19 and 24; Department of Education, 2001; WCED, 2004b; RSA 2005). In the YCECs this team comprises the school social worker, the psychologist, the occupational therapist, the school nurse, the residential educator and the educator.

One of the prescribed tasks of the team is to develop a written Individual Development Plan (IDP) for each learner, based on a developmental assessment. These plans should focus on enabling learners to recover from hardship with greater capacity to endure future challenges (Brendtro, Brokenleg & Van Bockern, 2002). According to the developmental perspective and a strengths-based approach, learners' self-images must be enhanced by a focus on their strengths rather than on pathology. This contributes to a sense of belonging and mastery, greater independence, and a feeling of generosity (Brendtro, Brokenleg & Van Bockern, 2002:22; WCED, 2004b; Weick, Kreider & Chamberlain, 2005:117). The IDP must be reviewed at least every eight months and adapted to meet the changing needs of the children and youth (Department of Education, 2001; WCED, 2004b:43). Team members must focus less on their perceived needs of the children and youth (what they think the children need) and give due consideration to the felt needs of the target group (Manning, 1998:33; Department of Education, 2001; RSA, 2005).

In developing the IDP, barriers to learning at learner, educator, curriculum and institutional levels are identified and curtailed (Department of Education, 2001). This is related to learning and developmental barriers in learners that manifest themselves in various forms that are usually associated with, amongst others, physical, psychological, emotional, social and cognitive factors.

The approach to addressing the barriers to learning (developmental needs) is consistent with a systemic and developmental approach to understanding the needs of children and planning to meet these needs. It corresponds with new international approaches that focus on providing quality education for all learners (Inter Ministerial Committee on Young People At Risk, 1996; Department of Education, 2001; WCED, 2004b).

In order to implement changed policies staff members must embark on a learning process. Senge et al., (1999) proposes the organisational learning process. In essence, it involves the creation and/or introduction of new knowledge into organisations (in this case the YCEC) so as to secure improved adjustment to changing policies and circumstances (Argyris & Schön, 1996; Garvin, 2003). The organisational learning framework makes the learning of everyone of its

members possible and frequently incorporates changes (Pedler, Boydell & Burgoyne, 1998 as cited by Sadler, 2001:416).

In times where institutions need to change, organisational learning assists individuals to accept change. Senge (1999:6) and Mintzberg & Westley (1992) – as cited by Child & Heavens (2001:308) – refer to the connection between change and knowledge acquisition (learning). Learning is a complicated and continuous process where people decode new information, expertise, performance and mindsets (Argyris & Schön, 1979 as cited by Al-Smadi, Qudais & Al-Omari, 2008:14). It means that the organisation as a whole is more or less continually monitored to provide feedback, which is then used as a basis for learning how to improve performance (Sadler, 2001:417).

Furthermore, Senge *et al.* (2007a:5) express their confidence that schools can change if they employ a learning point of reference (orientation). According to these researchers much of the so-called “school-reform”, “educational renewal” and “systems thinking” in the classroom occurred in line with the guidelines in the literature on learning organisations. Learning organisations are defined as “organizations where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspirations are set free and where people are continually learning how to learn together” (Senge, 1999:3). It boils down to learning to do new things or to do the same things for different reasons (Senge 1999).

The organisational learning approach is built on five disciplines, namely (1) team learning, (2) shared vision, (3) personal mastery, (4) systems thinking, and (5) mental models. These disciplines refer to organized “ongoing bodies of study and practice that people adopt as individuals and groups” (Senge, 2000:7). They are also referred to as “personal” disciplines that relate to how individuals reason, what they really would like, and how they cooperate with each other (Senge, 1999:11). Each of these disciplines must be mastered as it presents a fundamental component on the road to developing a learning organisation (Senge, 1999:5). These are further discussed in Chapter 4.

Organisational learning disciplines have also been substantially and keenly supported by educators, principals and community members. The results from the efforts of learning organisations comprise obvious change for the better and “breakthroughs of the mind and heart” on the part of the staff (Senge *et al.* 2007a: 5).

1.1.1 Research Undertaken in South Africa on Staff's Perspectives

A search on studies on staff's perceptions, attitudes and/or experiences regarding implementation of changed policy was done on the Nexus database. It showed eighteen completed studies in this regard. Five of the studies focused on the input of social workers (Examples are Unite, 2001; Isaac, 2002; Forward, 2004 and Mashigo, 2007). Nine of the studies focused on input from managers (Examples are Venter, 2003; Nefdt, 2003). Three of these studies were directed at general challenges in policy implementation. Only one study at the Department of Health and Welfare in the Limpopo Province included respondents from "various occupational categories" (Lesufi, 2004). Not one study could be found that focused on the perceptions of members of teams on the implementation of changed policies. Studies focused on staff from Non-Government Organisations and State departments and none on child and youth care institutions.

A study had been undertaken to ascertain the perceptions of educators regarding their preparedness for inclusive education (Hay, Smit & Paulsen, 2001:213) as well as regarding the perceptions of educators and principals of each other's disposition towards teacher involvement in school reform (Swanepoel, 2008:39-51). These research studies also only considered the perspectives of one profession and one education policy.

1.1.2 Research undertaken on schools as learning organisations

With regard to schools as learning organisations research studies were undertaken in Canada (Leithwood, 1996:1-3; Hajnal, Walker & Sackney, 1998; Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbach, 1998), Australia (Silins & Mulford, 2002:3; Johnson, 1997 as cited by Silins & Mulford, 2002: 569), the United States of America (Marks *et al.*, 2000:239-265), and Jordania (Al-Smadi *et al.*, 2008:21).

Research findings varied from acknowledging that learning appeared to be "a creative lens through which to start to think about schools" (Leithwood, 1996:1-3) to describing the value of the organisational learning approach in schools. These included, amongst others, (1) the development of staff into continuous learning communities (Sheppard & Brown, 2000) and (2) the creation of a trusting and collaborative climate in the schools (Al-Smadi *et al.*, 2008:21). These are of particular relevance to this study as this is precisely what the policies advocate.

Argyris (n.d.) also argued that learning research has been hampered by the defensiveness of different theorists emphasizing incremental or radical learning processes (Johnson, 1998:141). He calls for a new regime of applied interventionist research.

No research on Organisational Learning in South African schools was found. In order to gain more information on the topic the researcher obtained membership of the Society for Organisational Learning (August 2007 to August 2008) in order to ensure that she would be well-informed regarding developments in this field. The researcher also completed a course in leadership, innovation and change management during 2007 at the School of Public Management and Planning, Stellenbosch University. This course included information on the Organisational Learning leadership approach.

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND FOCUS

Within the Department of Education both school-based and systemic reforms have taken place based on international and national child and youth policies. These include mind shifts from:

- Working in silos (the group of educators, the group of residential educators and the group of support staff) to incorporating these services in a team (Department of Education, 2001; WCED, 2004b).
- Working according to the medical model that focuses on deficits of children to a developmental and strengths-based model that focuses on their strengths (United Nations, 1989; Department of Education, 2001; WCED, 2004b).
- Viewing children as passive recipients of services to allowing their direct participation or representation of their view (United Nations, 1989; Department of Education, 2001; RSA, 2005)
- Disciplining children by means of corporal punishment to following a restorative justice approach that focuses on healing relationships rather than inflicting pain (United Nations, 1989; WCED, 2004b)
- Labelling children and expecting them to fit into the status quo to respecting the diversity of learner needs and abilities and the necessity that attitudes, teaching methodologies, curricular and the environment need to make allowances to meet the unique needs of all learners (United Nations, 1989; Department of Education, 2001).
- Following a “one size fits all approach” to planning services for children to developing an IDP for each child to address his/her unique needs (United Nations, 1989; Department of Education, 2001; WCED, 2004b).

Given all these mind shifts that needed to be made, there was a need to explore how these, sometimes radical, changes had affected the staff's service delivery at the YCECs. The focus of this study is therefore to find out what the perspectives of the team members are regarding the implementation of the changed child and youth policies. This included, amongst others, an exploration of the team processes (and therefore knowledge of the structures of the

organisations) and the way in which the structures encroach upon the work within them and the patrons of the services. This emphasises the relevance of the organisational learning framework as theoretical framework for this study.

The implementation of changed policies thus present challenges for staff at YCECs. In terms of the theoretical framework, namely Organisational Learning, the question arises as to how these changed policies are institutionally organized into a shared vision for all staff, how the teams render the services in line with the changes (team learning), how the team members cooperate with each other from their various perspectives (mental models), and how team members develop the skills and self confidence to deliver the services (personal mastery).

The research study was conducted within the Organisational Learning framework (Senge, 1999; Argyris & Schön, 1996; Argyris, 1990; Beer & Nohria, 2000) in order to establish how institutional level teams at YCECs were experiencing and viewing the implementation of child and youth policies. Senge (1999:16) reports that educators found this framework useful when implementing changed policies.

1.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK, GOAL AND OBJECTIVES

The goal of the research was to gain an understanding of how members of institutional level teams were experiencing the implementation of changed child and youth policies in YCECs.

In order to reach the goal of the study the following objectives were pursued:

- To describe and analyse changed policy and legislation regarding the care, support and development pertaining to children and youth in YCECs
- To consider the shift from working in silos to following a teamwork approach in service delivery
- To explore the development of individualized services for children and youth
- To describe the shift from a dearth of programmes and services to a range of programmes and services to children and youth in YCECs
- To ascertain the dynamics, experiences and strategies of the team regarding the changed policies

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1.4.1 Literature Study

The literature study assisted with gaining a clearer understanding of the nature and meaning of the research field (Fouché & Delport, 2005:127), getting a broad perspective of reference, and

knowledge enrichment (Strydom, 2005:207). Furthermore, the study informed the researcher of existing knowledge that could be useful to the study. This was necessary to avoid replicating previous research and to determine which features of the problem had not been explored at the time (Mouton, 2000:87; Welman, Kruger and Mitchell, 2008:38, 39).

Literature sources studied included the study of various international, national and provincial policy documents pertaining to children and youth; country reports and minutes of meetings. Literature on teamwork, change management and organizational learning were also studied.

1.4.2 Research Design and Methods

A research design is the plan used to engage respondents to obtain information from them (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2008:52). As this researcher wanted to study team members in their work environment and subjectively elicit their accounts of their views from an insider perspective (Yegidis & Weinbach, 1996:92; Tutty, Rothery & Grinnell, 1996:50-87; McRoy, 1995:2009-2015) the qualitative research approach was deemed appropriate. Qualitative research is appropriate when the researcher seeks to understand rather than explain; to embark on naturalistic observation rather than controlled measurement; and is interested in an insider rather than an outsider perspective on the research topic (De Vos *et al.*, 2005:9). Furthermore, qualitative research allows for reflection on the words of the subjects (Mouton, 1996:130; Greeff, 2005:287). This research approach does not test, but rather discovers, exploratory theories (Padgett, 1998). Hypotheses are not formulated beforehand but are developed during the data collection process.

In order to also obtain objective data, from an outsider's perspective, a quantitative research approach was also used. Information obtained (age, previous experience, years experience at the YCEC) was presented relatively free of bias (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2008:8).

The study was exploratory-descriptive in nature. The exploratory design was chosen because the study of the subjects (members of the institutional level team at YCECs) was relatively new and understudied (Rubin & Babbie, 2001:123 as cited by Fouché & De Vos, 2005:134). The descriptive design was chosen in order to explain the behaviour of staff at the YCEC in response to changed policies by indicating how variables are related to one another and in what manner one variable affects another. On the basis of these findings the researcher hopes to predict in what way the changed child and youth policies have an influence on the implementation thereof by team members at the YCECs.

1.4.3 Sampling

When analysing the research problem the researcher realized that information on the perspectives of those who implement the changed policies at the YCECs needed to be ascertained. Before drawing a sample of the population for analysis, she obtained clarity about the population (Welman *et al.*, 2008:57). It was determined that the population at the four YCECs in the Western Cape comprised four school psychologists, four school social workers, four occupational therapists, four school nurses, 80 educators, and 32 residential educators. At each of the four YCECs the school psychologist, school social worker, occupational therapist and school nurse attend all the meetings of the institutional level team. Normally one educator and one residential educator, who have the most meaningful contact with the learner, should attend the team meetings. The two samples drawn are reflected in Table 1.1.

TABLE 1.1: SAMPLES DRAWN FOR STUDY

	PHASE 1	PHASE 2
YCEC 1	<p>FOCUS GROUP:</p> <p><i>The number of participants that participated was:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 Psychologist (100%) 1 School social worker (100%) 1 School nurse (100%) 1 Occupational Therapist (100%) 1 Residential Educator (12,5%) 2 Educators (10%) <p>N=32 n=7 Sample 21,8% of population</p>	<p>SELF-ADMINISTERED QUESTIONNAIRES:</p> <p><i>The number of participants that participated was:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 Psychologist (100%) 1 School social worker (100%) 1 School nurse (100%) 1 Occupational Therapist (100%) 1 Residential Educator (12,5%) 3 Educators (15%) <p>N=32 n=8 Sample 25%</p>
YCEC 2	<p>INTERVIEWS:</p> <p><i>The number of participants that participated was:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 Psychologist (100%) 1 School social worker (100%) 1 School nurse (100%) 1 Occupational Therapist (100%) 1 Residential Educator (12,5%) 2 Educators (10%) <p>N=32 n=7 Sample 21,8% of population</p>	<p>SELF ADMINISTERED QUESTIONNAIRES:</p> <p><i>The number of participants that participated was:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 Psychologist (100%) 1 School social worker (100%) 1 School nurse (100%) 1 Occupational Therapist (100%) 2 Residential Educators (25%) 5 Educators (25%) <p>N=32 n=11 Sample 34,3% of population</p>

<p>YCEC 3</p>	<p><u>FOCUS GROUP COMPRISING:</u></p> <p>The number of participants that participated was:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 Psychologist (100%) 1 School social worker (100%) 1 School nurse (100%) 1 Occupational Therapist (100%) 1 Residential Educator (12,5%) 2 Educators (10%) <p>N=32 n=7 Sample 21,87% of population</p>	<p><u>SELF ADMINISTERED QUESTIONNAIRES:</u></p> <p>The number of participants that participated was:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 Psychologist (100%) 1 School social worker (100%) 1 School nurse (100%) 1 Occupational Therapist (100%) 3 Residential Educators (37, 5%) 13 Educators (65%) <p>N=32 n=20 Sample 62,5% of population</p>
<p>YCEC 4</p>	<p><u>INTERVIEWS WITH:</u></p> <p>The number of participants that participated was:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1 Psychologist (100%) 1 School social worker (100%) 1 School nurse (100%) 1 Occupational Therapist (100%) 1 Residential Educator (12,5%) 2 Educators (10%) <p>N=32 n=7 Sample 21,87% of population</p>	<p><u>SELF ADMINISTERED QUESTIONNAIRES:</u></p> <p>All team members from this YCEC did not participate in phase 2 as the YCEC closed down and the staff was deployed to various other schools.</p> <p>The information received in phase 1 was added to this information where possible.</p> <p>This included the information of 1 school social worker, 1 occupational therapist, 1 school nurse and 1 psychologist (n=4)</p>

Two sampling processes were followed.

1.4.3.1 Phase 1 of sampling

For the first sample it was decided to involve all the school social workers (4), school psychologists (4), occupational therapists (4), and school nurses (4). The principals suggested which educators and residential educators should be involved in the study based on their involvement in the institutional level teams and eight (10%) educators and four (12,5%) residential educators from the four YCECs were included in the sample. All the disciplines represented in the multidisciplinary team were therefore included in the research and participated in two focus groups (at two of the YCECs comprising seven participants each) and two sets of interviews (including seven participants in each of the two other YCECs).

Participants of the study were thus selected by means of non-probability purposive sampling in order to ensure the inclusion of a representative group of the population (in this case team members of the YCECs) (Welman *et al.*, 2008:67). These participants were selected because they are all members of an institutional level team of a YCEC with differing backgrounds and disciplines that have been directly affected by changed child and youth policies. It was believed that they would provide a great deal of insight from different perspectives. They were deemed to contain the most relevant characteristics and were the most representative of the population. This purposive sampling is in line with qualitative research (Miles & Huberman, 1994 as cited by Welman *et al.*, 2008:56, 69). This sampling method is also suggested for focus group participants because homogeneity (in background and not in attitudes) allows for “more free-flowing conversation among participants” (Morgan, 1997:35).

The purpose of the study was also for participants to provide information on “shared experiences and events and challenge any discrepancies between expressed beliefs and actual behaviour” because they already belonged to a team (Bloor *et al.*, 2002:22).

1.4.3.2 Phase 2 of sampling

During the second phase all the team members at three of the four YCECs in the Western Cape were invited to complete a self-administered questionnaire to gain further quantitative information and qualitative data (De Vos *et al.*, 2005:168). Table 1.1 indicated that these included twelve support team members (three school social workers, three school nurses, three occupational therapists, three psychologists), 24 residential educators and 60 educators. The participants that participated in interviews (seven at one of the YCECs) and two focus discussion groups (14) at other two YCECs of the four YCECs, during the first phase, were also included in the second sample group as the questions were posed in a more comprehensive way based on, amongst others, the themes that emerged from the two focus discussion groups (seven members at each of the YCECs) and two sets of interviews (involving seven participants from each of two of the YCECs). The fourth YCEC closed down shortly after the focus groups and interviews were conducted with the seven team members in phase one and was therefore not requested to complete the self administered questionnaires. The information that 4 staff members provided during the interviews was however incorporated into the questionnaires as the feedback was comprehensive enough to add to the quantitative data.

1.4.4 Data Collection

Qualitative studies typically employ interviews with the aid of an interview schedule (Addendum 1). In the development of the interview schedule the researcher drew upon the literature review.

The researcher endeavoured to keep the questions conversational and the language clear and one dimensional as suggested by Krueger & Casey (2000:40, 41).

A mixed approach was followed in that both interviews and focus groups were used to gather data (Morgan, 1997:2). The focus groups added to the data that were gathered through interviews since it contributed to a deeper understanding of the phenomenon under study. In addition, self-administered questionnaires were completed during the second phase.

1.4.4.1 Phase 1 of data collection

Using an interview schedule (Addendum 1), interviews at two of the YCECs were conducted with seven members of the institutional level teams. The interviews focussed on their views of their mandated tasks and their experiences of the functions of the team. The same interview schedule was used for the focus groups at two of the YCECs. The interviews were tape-recorded with their consent.

The focus groups at two of the YCECs were each conducted with seven participants. Researchers suggest a range of 6-10 participants (Morgan, 1997:34), 6 to 8 participants (Bloor *et al.*, 2002:26), or 5-10 participants (Krueger & Casey, 2000:10). The number of participants chosen for the sample in this study (7) made it possible for the facilitator to manage the group dynamics.

The participants selected for inclusion in the study (at three of the YCECs) were invited to a meeting at the YCEC with the assistance of the principal. At the meeting the researcher introduced the study and its purpose as well as what would be expected of them should they participate. Every one of these persons agreed to participate and signed Form 1. The participants indicated when and where the interview and/or focus group should take place.

Because of the distance of the fourth YCEC from the researcher's base, the same information that was discussed during the meeting with the participants of the other three YCECs was given to the proposed participants via the team leader. He was willing to assist and was provided with the necessary information regarding the purpose of the study. The participants signed Form 1 on the day the focus groups were held. The enthusiasm of the staff was demonstrated by their request that the focus group be conducted before the end of the term as one of the staff members would then be emigrating to Australia and they felt that, as an important team member, she should be included in the focus group. This request was gladly accommodated. Closer to the date of the focus group a reminder call was made to the participants.

Qualitative studies typically employ unstructured or semi-structured interviews to engage participants (Greeff, 2005:292; Welman *et al.*, 2008:166). In this study non-directive semi-structured interviews using open-ended questions (Addendum 1) were used. This allowed for participants to participate without setting boundaries (Krueger & Casey, 2000:6).

As the researcher wanted to know what the participants really think and feel about the implementation of changed child and youth policy, the mixed method to data collection was used. Thus, both focus groups and individual interviews were used (Willis, 1977 as cited by Morgan, 1997:3). The focus groups contributed to the data that were gathered through interviews by leading to a deeper understanding of the phenomenon under study – in this case the implementation of changed child and youth policies by members of the institutional level team at YCECs. The focus groups were used to listen to participants and to encourage self-disclosure (Krueger & Casey, 2000:7, 12; Morgan, 1997:2) on their perspectives. In order to obtain this information it was viewed as important that a process of sharing be created among the participants (Greeff, 2005:301) so that a multiple viewpoints could be heard (Bloor *et al.*, 2002:49; Krueger & Casey, 2000:24). Data (Addendum 1) was collected via group interaction in focus groups whilst interviews focused more on the individual perspective of the participant. Interactions were natural and provided direct evidence about similarities and differences in participants' views and experiences.

During interviews a greater amount of in-depth and detailed information was received. Various authors, such as Sussman, Burton, Dent, Stacey and Flay (1991 as cited by Morgan, 1997:1), believe that individuals may reveal information privately that they may hold back in focus groups. This was not found to be the case in this study. Focus group data was used to compare with other data on the same topic gathered by individuals. It was found that the one method of data collection did not produce more in-depth or clearer data than the other. This is in line with the findings of Fern (1982 as cited by Morgan, 1997:14). The two seven-person focus groups produced as many ideas as the fourteen individual interviews.

The researcher made sure that all participants were clear that they were welcome to provide a range of perspectives (Greeff, 2005:300) and that there were no right or wrong answers. She facilitated the two focus groups and tape-recorded the proceedings with their permission. The study's focus on the perspectives of the team members provided the focus in the group (Morgan, 1997:6). Although, in focus groups, there is typically less of a burden placed on individuals to explain themselves to the facilitator (Morgan, 1997:11) it was significant how the participants did just that. It often happened that one of the participants made a point and that another participant added to this in order to further clarify the issue. Due to this a host of interaction on the topic could be collected in a short space of time. In addition, by witnessing the group dialogue the

indirect verification (body language for instance) by other participants could be ascertained with reference to similarities or diverse views and perspectives (Morgan, 1997:10).

The impression was never gained that the members of the focus group were not able to communicate their feelings due to feeling intimidated by the presence of others. They already knew each other and communicated freely. The success of the focus groups could be contributed to effective planning, relevant questions, the way the discussions were facilitated and the selection of the participants (Krueger & Casey, 2000). One would expect that the participants in focus groups would not be so open as they would be in an interview situation. This did not prove to be the case. The participants were open and honest in their responses whether they were positive or negative. Overall the comparison between focus group data and data gathered via interviews contributed to deepening and increasing the researcher's insight into the topic and acted as an aid to analysis (Bloor *et al.*, 2002:12).

1.4.4.2 Phase 2 of data collection

During phase two of the research study self-administered questionnaires were circulated to all team members at three of the YCECs (N=96). These comprise 60 educators, 24 residential educators, three school social workers, three psychologists, three occupational therapists and three school nurses (N=96). Twenty-one educators (35%), 6 residential educators (25%) and twelve support team members comprising three school social workers (100%), three school nurses (100%), three psychologists (100%), and three occupational therapists (100%) completed the questionnaires. Information received from 4 team members at the 4th YCEC was incorporated in the questionnaires. They comprised 1 school social worker, 1 school nurse, 1 psychologist and 1 occupational therapist (n=43). This information is reflected in Table 1.1.

The data received from the focus groups, interviews and self-administered questionnaires differed in their degree of contextualization. Furthermore, it was found that specific narratives of focus groups and interviews were qualified and elaborated on in the responses provided in the self-administered questionnaires. The analysis of different kinds of data on the same topic served to expand and enhance the researcher's understanding of the topic. It acted as an aid to interpretation.

1.4.4.3 Questionnaires

Two questionnaires were administered. The first questionnaire was used during interviews and focus groups in phase one and the participants completed the second questionnaire during phase two.

(a) Questionnaire for Interviews and Focus Groups (Phase 1)

The researcher developed open-ended questions on an interview schedule (Addendum 1) based on the literature review to guide (not dictate) the interviews and focus groups. The questions were carefully predetermined. The same questions were posed to the interviewees and the participants in the focus groups. As suggested by Krueger & Casey (2000:43), the first few questions were more general and the following questions became more specific in order to assist the participants to feel free to make contributions to the discussion. The same questions were posed to all participants in the same order. None of the questions were of such a nature that it would inhibit sharing.

The participants were given a copy of the interview schedule as suggested by Greef (2005:297). The questions were drawn on as a resource to sustain the balance between the “researcher’s focus and the group discussion” (Morgan, 1997:48).

Even though flexibility is allowed in the scope and intensity depth of semi-structured interviews, the questions are prearranged around themes of specific importance. In this study, these included the participants’ views on systems thinking, personal mastery, mental models, shared vision and team learning within the YCEC that facilitate or hinder effective policy implementation. Their experiences of the implementation of changed policy were also investigated.

(b) Self-Administered Questionnaire (Phase 2)

During phase 2 self-administered questionnaires, with closed and open-ended questions were posed to participants (Addendum 2). The questions dealt with their knowledge of the changed child and youth policies, focused specifically on who introduced these policies and the ways in which these were introduced. Qualitative data was obtained on the views of the participants on the shift from working in silos to working in teams, the phase of team development at the YCEC, development of the IDP, the children’s rights perspective, and adherence to the principles of organisational learning.

Closed questions were posed to obtain quantitative data as it offered the participants a range of answers from which to choose and, therefore, all possible responses had to be anticipated and included in the questionnaire. Although some quantitative data was provided, it was not the intention of the researcher to quantify information but rather to establish a range of perspectives of team members on the implementation of changed child and youth policies in YCECs.

1.4.5 Ethical Considerations

The researcher is registered with the South African Council for Social Service Professions and therefore has to adhere to the Code of Ethics, which covers issues such as confidentiality, client self-determination as well as advertising and public statements. The Code of Ethics is applicable in all areas where social workers render services. The WCED has strict requirements for research in its institutions and approved the application to conduct this research. The application, submitted to the Ethics Committee of Stellenbosch University for clearance, was also approved.

Permission to undertake the research was obtained at provincial, district and institutional level of the WCED. At provincial level, the written permission was obtained from Dr Ronald Cornelissen at the research section. The conditions that the researcher had to adhere to were clearly spelt out in a letter. At district level the written permission of the Heads: SLES was obtained. The principals of the YCECs report to these officials. At institutional level, the principal of the YCECs granted permission for his staff members to participate in the research project.

The researcher also obtained the participants' informed written consent. She met with the participants prior to scheduling the interviews and focus groups. During that session she explained the purpose of the study, why they were deemed to be suitable participants, what would be expected from them, that a range of perspectives would be welcomed and that there would be no right or wrong answers. She also obtained their permission to tape-record the sessions and explained to them how she would ensure the confidentiality and their anonymity. All the respondents signed the consent forms. In addition, it was explained how the results would be utilised (Bloor *et al.*, 2002:55).

The researcher's representative engaged the staff at the furthest YCEC. This representative was prepared to finalize the arrangements in conjunction with the researcher. This information was provided in written form to those individuals. Just before the focus group commenced, the participants were asked if they had any questions. All of the participants were satisfied with the process followed and the content of the consent form.

1.4.6 Data Analysis

All the participants were asked the same open-ended questions during focus discussion groups and interviews, allowing coding of responses and analysis of themes, sub-themes and participants' responses (Greeff, 2005:292). The researcher transcribed the interviews while

Veritas International Transcribers transcribed the focus groups. This firm also does the transcriptions of the courts and is completely reliable in terms of maintaining confidentiality. Furthermore, identifying information was not included in the documents.

As suggested by Krueger & Casey (2000:129) the researcher, prior to conducting the focus groups and interviews reconsidered the series of questions to assess whether these would meet research requirements and generate insights from the respondents. During the groups it was made sure that the maximum range of relevant topics was covered. Interaction was facilitated in a non-judgemental way so that the feelings of the participants regarding policy implementation could be explored (Merton *et al.*, 1990 as cited by Morgan, 1997:45). This proved to be successful as the participants were prepared to be very open and honest during sessions and had no difficulty in expressing their feelings, both negative and positive.

After completion of the interviews and facilitation of the focus groups, a transcript-based analysis was done. These transcripts were supplemented by fieldnotes. The researcher typed the data, obtained from the interviews, by listening to the tape recordings of the interviews and developing an abridged transcript of the discussions. The information was typed verbatim in order to ensure that the emotions behind the words would be captured. A firm specialising in transcription of, amongst others, court proceedings transcribed the data of the focus groups.

The researcher then embarked on a process of familiarisation with the material through repeated reading and rereading of the transcripts. From this it was possible to identify the themes that were common across the interviews and focus groups (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2008:211). All extracts of data pertinent to a particular theme was coded (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996 as cited by Bloor *et al.*, 2002:62) in order to make sense of the collected data. The researcher ensured that this accurately reflected the views of all participants (Bloor *et al.*, 2002:62). These themes were categorised onto a *pro forma* to assist with the analysis and subsequently organised into sub-themes and categories that emerged from the interviews and focus groups. These themes were regularly tested against both the data and the theoretical framework (organisational learning) of the research. The analysis of the interviews focused on the individual whilst the analysis of the focus groups focused on the group (Morgan, 1997:60). For instance, it was established what topics “generated a consistent level of energy among a consistent proportion of the participants across nearly all groups” (Morgan, 1997:63).

The data in the self-administered questionnaires were analysed by hand. Themes that emerged from the questionnaires were clustered into sub-themes and categories and these were incorporated into the data received from the interviews and focus groups.

1.4.7 Method of data verification

De Vos (2005:346) refers to norms that serve as criteria against which the trustworthiness of a qualitative research study can be assessed. These are credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability.

1.4.7.1 Credibility

The fact that the researcher used a mixed method approach to data collection (interviews, focus groups and self-administered questionnaires) and that the responses received were corresponding add to the credibility of the information received.

1.4.7.2 Transferability

Transferability refers to the extent to which the findings can be applied to other contexts, locations or groupings (De Vos *et al.*, 2005:35). With regard to this study, it is believed that the findings could be transferred to other childcare settings such as children's homes and secure care facilities as well as to public ordinary schools and special schools. Teams at human service organisations can also benefit by the recommendations made in this study.

1.4.7.3 Dependability

The fact that this study is about *changed* child and youth policies that endeavour to address the changing social context indicates that the social world is indeed changing. This refutes the assumption of the positivist researchers that the universe is unchanging and that investigation can easily be replicated (De Vos *et al.*, 2005:346).

1.4.7.4 Conformability

Conformability encapsulates the conventional notion of objectivity (De Vos *et al.*, 2005:347). This is about the question whether the findings of the study could be verified by another study. The fact that the narratives of the participants in this study were reflected without any adaptation or corroboration on the part of the researcher indicates that it is free of the researcher's biases and prejudices. It is believed that the participants would give the same responses to other researchers.

1.4.8 Limitations of Study

Consideration was given to providing a summary of the interviews to the participants for approval. The goal would be to capture the richness of themes emerging from the participants' contribution (Greeff, 2005:299). This was, however, not done as one of the YCECs was closed down after the interviews were already underway and it would have been difficult to reach all the participants who had been relocated to different schools.

The relatively small sample of educators included in interviews and focus groups could be seen as a limitation but this was done to ensure relatively equal representation of all the disciplines in the team at the YCECs. All the residential educators and educators were, however, invited to complete self-administered questionnaires and the offer was made that the researcher would assist them with the completion if requested.

Although data is transferable, it is not possible to generalise from this study as it was only undertaken in one province.

1.4.9 Content of the Research Report

The research report is divided into seven chapters. The funnel structure is followed in that a broad overview is given whereafter the chapters become more focused (See diagram 1).

The *first chapter* provides information regarding the research methodology. *Chapter 2* starts with a broad overview of the child and youth policy changes that impact on child and youth residential facilities and *Chapter 3* focuses on the legal mandate that the staff at the YCEC shift their focus from working in silos to working in team context. In *Chapter 4* attention is on the move from a generic ("one-size-fits-all") approach to individualised services to children and youth in YCECs and in chapter 5 to the move from a dearth of services and programmes in YCECs to the provision of developmental and therapeutic programmes for the children and youth, was discussed.

The perspectives of individual team members of the YCEC are reflected in *Chapter 6* and the report concludes with the conclusions and recommendations based on the findings in *Chapter 7*.

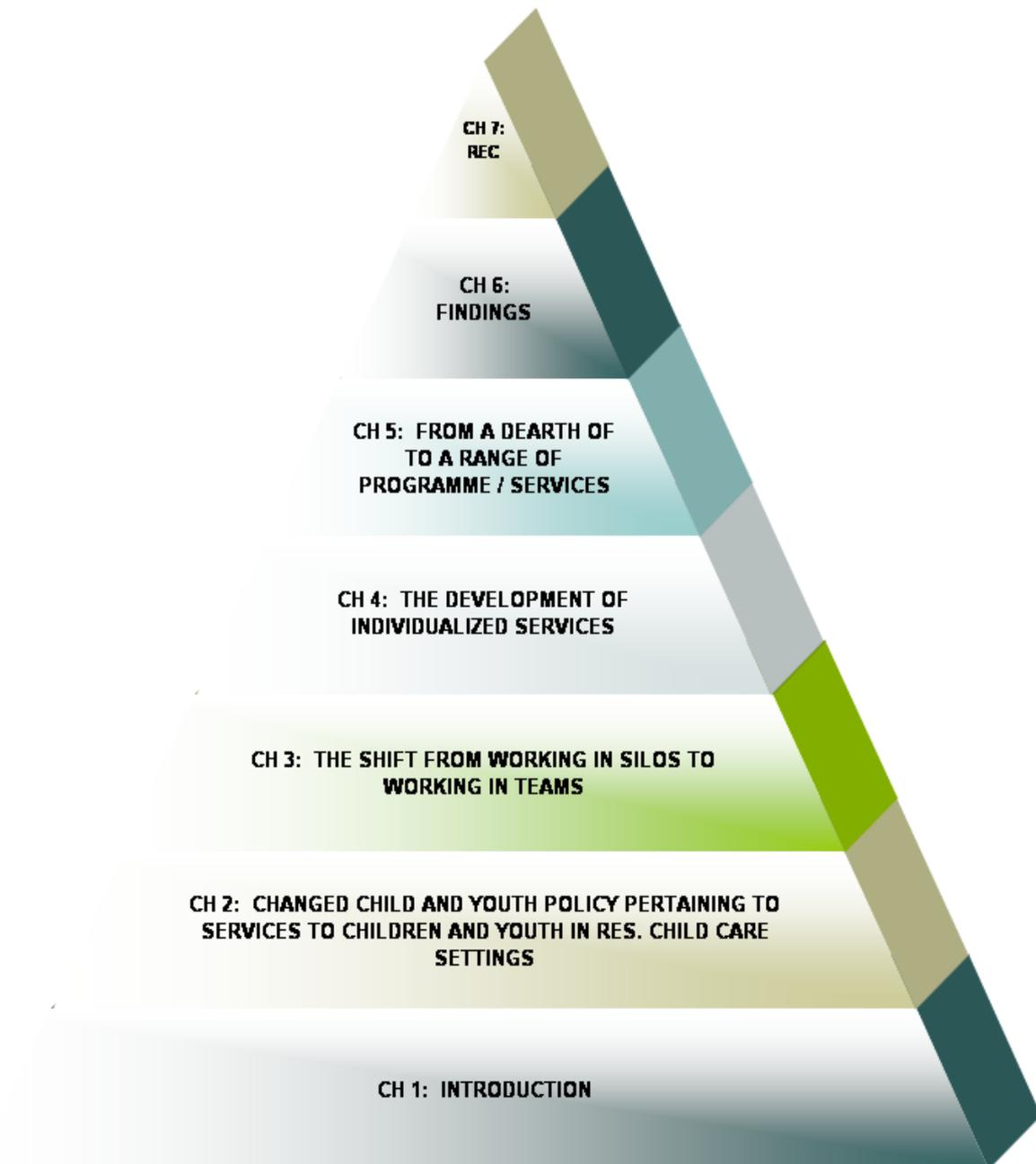


Diagram 1.1: Chapters in Research Report

CHAPTER 2

CHANGED POLICY AND LEGISLATION REGARDING SERVICE DELIVERY TO YOUTH IN YOUTH CARE AND EDUCATION CENTRES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Child and youth policies have, over the past fifteen years, aimed at improving the circumstances of children and young people in various ways. One of the target groups that are affected by these changes is the children and youth that are cared for in out-of-home residential care facilities. Some of the policy changes affect them directly whilst the impact of others is indirect. Given that the intent of the policy makers is to change practice, the members of the team at the youth care and education centres (YCECs) are also affected. The objective of this chapter is to ascertain the impact of these policy changes in terms of its translation at YCEC level. The contents and nature of these changed policies are therefore explored. This study focuses on legislation regarding the rights of children that are, like the children in the YCECs, wards of the state. Particular attention is given to their rights to certain minimum standards of care and support within the institution and education that address their particular learning needs and barriers to learning.

2.2 INTERNATIONAL AND NATIONAL FRAMEWORK FOR CHILD AND YOUTH CARE POLICIES REGARDING ALTERNATIVE CARE

In South Africa the realization of a democratic system in 1994 presented government with major challenges. Considerable institutional transformation had to take place and new policies had to be developed in line with the democratic Constitution. The government had to take care of the legacy of a deeply divided country whilst simultaneously facing new challenges of integrating the country in a fast changing global environment (The Presidency, 2003:2-3).

Global changes included transformation in the social policies regarding family and children. These had an influence in determining policies and practice in child welfare. Social policy is defined as “a set of goals, pursued by a coherent set of policies and implemented through an institutional framework of a designated government department” (Millar, 1998:121). Existing models or ideologies of child welfare influenced policies for children’s well-being. These

influenced the notion about the needs, abilities and rights of children, the responsibilities and rights of parents and the role of the state (Hallett, 1998:237).

The international and national legal framework comprise, but are not limited to, (1) the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, (2) The African Charter, (3) the Constitution of the RSA, (3) the White Paper for Social Welfare, (4) the Children's Act 38 of 2005, and (5) the Children's Amendment Act 41 of 2007. These are reflected in Figure 2.1 and in the next section It will be shown how these policies are relevant for South Africa.

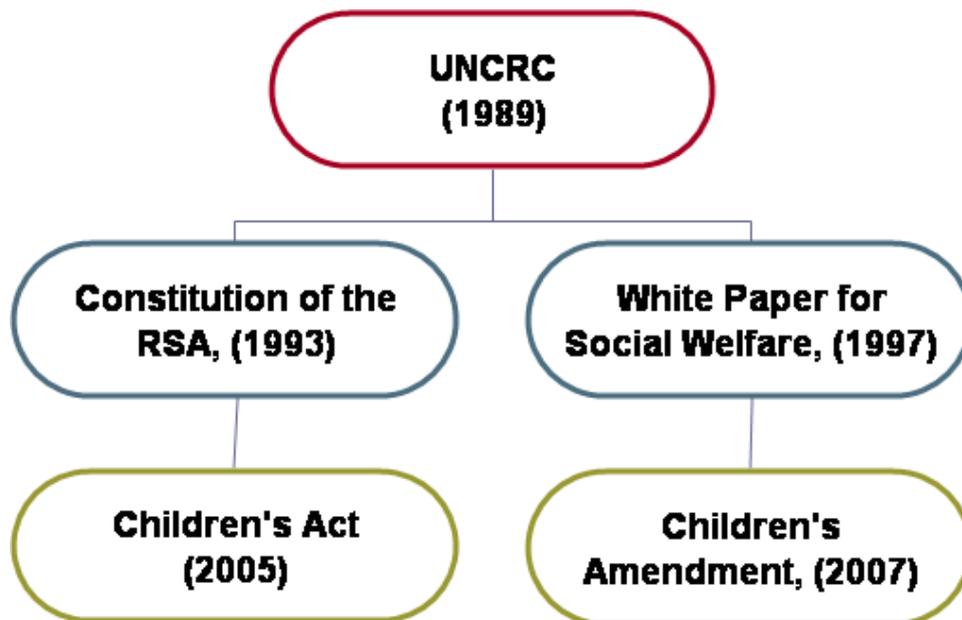


Figure 2.1: International and National child and youth care policies

2.2.1 International Obligations: United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), one of the most widely endorsed human rights treaties was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on 20 November 1989. It is a legally binding international treaty that addresses children's issues comprehensively and forms an extensive baseline for children's rights. The document makes provision for four groups of rights, namely, survival rights (adequate living standards), developmental rights, protection rights and participation rights (inclusion in decisions affecting them) (United Nations, 1989 and Donald, Dawes & Louw, 2000:3). The CRC is an agreement between nations that is recognized by 191 countries. Only two members of the United Nations, USA and Somalia, have not ratified the CRC (Wilkins, Becker, Harris & Thayer, 2007).

By ratifying the CRC and adopting its goals for children and youth, South Africa strengthened the commitment made by President Nelson Mandela (on 16 June 1995), to give high priority to children's issues. It was also undertaken that, amongst others, the principles of the welfare of the child and the statutory requirements to ascertain the views of children would be adhered to and taken into account when decisions affecting their lives are made. The CRC is informed by Western concepts of human rights and mental wisdom that informs the practices of numerous humanitarian programmes for families and children in developing areas.

It is crucial that signatory State parties must consequently have the political will to ensure that the human rights described in the existing agreements (conventions) be extended to every child within their jurisdiction. This must be done without bias of any kind irrespective of the child's or his parents' / guardians' ethnic group, colour, gender, mother tongue, religious conviction, political affiliation, social origin, property, disability or other standing (Article 2.1). This places children in positions of equal value and gives them an equal basis in an unequal society (United Nations, 1989). It is understood that these rights mean nothing to people if they are not informed thereof. In this regard, Article 42 of the CRC compels governments to make the CRC widely known to adults and children so that they can be conscious of their human rights and be better able to claim them. This is particularly relevant to children in residential care settings such as the YCECs. Furthermore, governments must submit a report on the progress made regarding children's issues every five years. All the plans that governments develop for children must come together in the framework provided by the CRC and the goals of the 1999 World Summit (United Nations, 1989).

An African based document, which is based on the CRC and other human rights agreements, is the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare on the African Child.

2.2.2 The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child: OAU – 1990

The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (hereafter referred to as the Charter) was adopted by the Assembly of Heads of State and government in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia in July 1990. It recognizes African children's unique and privileged place in African society, that African children need protection and are entitled to freedom of expression, thought, religion and conscience (African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child, 1990). The charter improves on the CRC in that it reiterates *African* cultural concerns and issues such as female circumcision, children's responsibility to their family and community, and the role of the family in the rearing of their children. The focus of the charter is more communal than personal (individualistic) (National Programme of Action for Children, 2001:21). This document reportedly

offers more sophisticated protection to children as well as enhanced appreciation of the worth that Africans assign to their children (Godfrey, 2004: 8).

Upon the ratification of the CRC, South Africa launched a National Programme of Action for children (NPA) on Children's Day (6 November 1999). The NPA functions as a mechanism for execution of the progressive attainment of children's rights in terms of the CRC.

2.3 NATIONAL FRAMEWORK FOR CHILD AND YOUTH CARE POLICIES

The NPA provides a holistic structure (framework) in which all government departments put children's matters on their programmes (NPA, 2001). The NPA works in collaboration with the Offices on the Rights of the Child (ORC) in the Premier's and Mayoral Offices and Children's Rights Focal Points at all levels of Government (Office on the Rights of the Child: Presidency, 2005:13). The Office of the President is the highest office on the safeguarding of children in South Africa. The ORC is responsible for coordinating and monitoring the implementation and adherence to the international and national legislation. The ORC must see to it that national structures are in place to oversee the implementation and the monitoring of the National Plan of Action for South African children. In the Western Cape provision is not made for an Office on the Rights of the Child, but for a Children's Rights Advisory Committee. The NPA identified eight focus areas that needed to be addressed, including:

- Provision of access to safe drinking water, effective housing and sanitation
- Protection of children against all forms of mistreatment
- Accessibility and quality of education \ development of children between 0 and 9 years old
- Accessibility of quality care for children and mothers
- Prevention of under-nourishment, malnutrition and low birth weight
- Provision of secure play areas and access to apparatus and amenities
- Promotion of peaceful and non-violent standards of living as well as conflict management and;
- Acceptance of all ethnicity (Theron, 2002).

As can be seen from these eight focus areas, in its social welfare component, the NPA focuses on all the rights as pertained in the Constitution of the RSA. This includes children in residential care in general and youth in YCECs in particular. It is of concern, however, that the gender equality, as stated in the Constitution, is not adhered to. Reference to mothers and children who need specific services is exclusionary in nature because it ignores the rights of fathers. It is of importance to consider (as set out in the Children's Act 38 of 2005) that children cannot really

enjoy their rights if the adults around them are not empowered. This surely includes the fathers. In setting the tone for other policy documents it sends out a very unconstitutional message.

Further expression to the CRCs provisions is given in the Bill of Rights contained in the Supreme Law of the Republic of South Africa, namely the Constitution of the RSA. Section 233 of the Constitution provides the basis for interpreting the CRC within the South African legal context (RSA, 1993).

2.3.1 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa

The South African Constitution is a detailed document based on general accepted democratic principles (Rautenbach & Malherbe, 1998:5). The Constitution represents a national agreement on the shape of government, its powers and limitations, and is the South African law against which others are tested (Anstey, 2002:275 and September, 2006a:55). Any law or behaviour in conflict with the Constitution is invalid. This document places a greater emphasis on children's rights: "South Africa's Constitution envisages a society that respects the equality and dignity of every person – child and adult alike; a society that cares about people's socio-economic well-being as much as it cares about their personal and political liberty" (Pendlebury & Rudolph, 2008:6). All policies should, therefore, be directed at equality of opportunity and respect for the dignity of every person.

Children's rights, as contained in the Constitution of the RSA include, but are not limited to, the right to (1) health services, (2) basic nutrition, (3) social services, (4) protection, (5) family and parental care, (6) appropriate alternative care if needed, and (7) education. Section 28(2) enshrines the principle that a child's best interests are of paramount importance in every matter concerning the child. Referral is also made to the rights of vulnerable children such as those arrested for involvement in criminal activities and placed in residential settings. In summary, the Constitution places emphasis on the whole child and covers a range of areas that focus on the well being of the child. In order to ensure that the children's rights are adhered to, provision is made in the Constitution for several instruments of delivery and protection, namely, the Public Protector, the Commission for Gender Equality (CGE), the South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC), a Commission for the Promotion and Protection of the Rights of Cultural, Religious and Linguistic Communities. They have authority to monitor the state's adherence to its human rights commitment and can take action to redress the state of affairs. Moreover, they can support and advance the achievement of human rights generally and children's rights in particular (Anstey, 2002:275; US Department of State, 2006:9; RSA, 1993).

In South Africa the first overall social welfare policy, based on the Constitution of the RSA, is the White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997 (White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997; Gildenhuys, 2002:13; Dutschke & Monson, 2008:29). Attention is now given to the document in terms of its vision, plan of action, and the target group it proposes to serve.

2.3.2 White Paper for Social Welfare 1997

The White Paper for Social Welfare (hereafter referred to as WPSW) lays the foundation for the development of a social welfare system. By adopting the developmental approach to social welfare it addresses both economic and social development. The vision of this document is “a welfare system which facilitates the development of human capacity and self-reliance within a caring and enabling socio-economic environment”. Social welfare refers to an integrated and comprehensive system of social services supplied by a variety of service providers in collaboration with each other (White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997; Proudlock & Jamieson, 2008:35). In order to realise this vision a plan of action has been developed.

The plan of action of the White Paper is based on the need to address the fragmentation of services and the needs of the areas that are under-resourced or lack services. The plan, therefore, involves alleviating poverty, strengthening the family, and restructuring the delivery system that advances wide-ranging, generic and integrated services (White Paper for Social Welfare, 1997). Acknowledgement is given to the impact social problems in communities have on the lives of children and young people, and that the solutions offered to social problems have a close link to insights and conclusions made about them. By increasing opportunities, due weight is given to individual responsibility for outcomes rather than just providing financial assistance to passive recipients.

Regarding the target group to be served, the plan of action makes special mention of vulnerable groups of children, namely, children in out-of-home care, substance dependants, and children of dysfunctional families (Donald, Dawes & Louw 2000:43). These categories are all applicable to children in YCECs.

A document that gives effect to the vision of the Constitution (1996) and the WPSW (1997) is the Children’s Act 38 of 2005 (Giese, 2008:18).

2.3.3 The Children's Act 38 of 2005

The development of the Children's Act 38 of 2005 was based on the need to bring into effect children's constitutional rights to social services and to commitments to global treaties. The existing Child Care Act was found lacking in relating to contemporary realities and was not in keeping with the CRC. Limitations relate to its failure to speak to the needs of children living on the streets, children in child-headed households, caregivers of orphans, the trafficking of children, and children subjected to harmful cultural, social and religious practices (RSA, 2005). The Section 75 Bill was passed by Cabinet during December 2005, endorsed by the President in June 2006, and is now entitled the Children's Act 38 of 2005. The second Bill (the Section 76 Bill) was tabled as an amendment in Parliament and has been passed. It is now referred to as the Children's Amendment Act 41 of 2007. These two Bills will be amalgamated into a single Children's Act, which will completely cancel the existing Child Care Act (Child and Youth Research and Training Programme, 2007:iii). The children's rights contained in the Act will be discussed in terms of the rights of children in alternative care and the right of children to education.

In summary, many new child and youth policies have been developed internationally and nationally. These include certain stipulations regarding how services to children and youth should be rendered. It is expected of state departments to introduce new developmental policies and programmes in line with the aforementioned overarching policy framework within the parameters of their own sectorial responsibilities. As the YCECs are managed by the Department of Education, the ability of this department to translate the policies into practice will be discussed. Their ability or inability to transform policies will clearly have an impact on how the team members at the YCEC perceive the implementation of the policies.

2.4 POLICY IMPLEMENTATION IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION REGARDING CHILDREN IN THE CARE OF THE YCECS

The focus of this section is on the policies and legislation that have a direct impact on the service delivery in YCECs of the Western Cape Education Department. Two of the rights contained in the Constitution of the RSA, namely, the right to (1) education and to (2) appropriate alternative care (if necessary) will be discussed because the YCEC fulfils a dual role, namely, that of education and substitute care. Swart (1997:53) explains that the child is referred to the YCEC (called a "School of Industries") in terms of Welfare legislation (then the Child Care Act No. 74 of 1983) (RSA, 1983) and based on the recommendation of the social worker. The referral does not primarily relate to the child's deficient scholastic functioning, but in

fact to his/her social functioning. The aim of the placement at the institution is, therefore, mainly to work holistically towards addressing the child's need to, amongst others, alternative care.

2.4.1 The Right to Appropriate Alternative Care

This discussion considers both international and national perspectives on placement of children in residential care.

2.4.1.1 International perspectives on residential care

In many countries residential care is the major approach to serving children in need of care and protection. It was reported during 2006 that there were more than 8 million children in residential care worldwide (International Save the Children Alliance, n.d.). In the next section attention will be given to the input of various documents regarding the effectiveness of alternative care for vulnerable children and youth.

(a) Input from the International Save the Children Alliance

The over utilization of residential care and low standards of care that were common in many child and youth care institutions, led to the request by International Save the Children Alliance (n.d.) (hereafter referred to as the Alliance) that the situation of children in residential care be placed on the international agenda. The Alliance (n.d) advocated for worldwide cutback in the use of institutional care. This, in turn, necessitated the creation of suitable community based care alternatives available to children to assure they could remain in their families and communities with the necessary support.

Obstacles were, however, encountered in rallying the political will as well as economic and human resources to actually improve alternatives to residential care. As this was a global phenomenon there was a call that governments should provide international guidelines to ensure adequate services to children and youth. In this regard, recommendations were made by the Alliance (n.d) that the number of children living away from their families should be regularly monitored at national level. This was based on the finding that the existing policies, legal framework, planning, and service delivery were insufficient in several countries. In addition, it was found that the rights and developmental needs of children were not considered. It was felt that placement of children in residential facilities should only be effected if it is the only remaining option.

(b) United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child

Another international policy that emphasises the importance of regularly monitoring the institutions in line with agreed international and national standards is the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations, 1989). Corresponding to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, the care and protection of children in residential care have to be recognized as a main right and an essential service in conjunction with health and education. Various documents, therefore, speak to the rights of children in residential care and the value of this form of alternative (substitute) care. One of these documents is the Beijing Rules.

(c) Beijing Rules

Section 19:1 of the Beijing Rules (United Nations: 1985) states that institutionalisation of children must be viewed as the last resort and that, when children are placed in institutions, placement should be for the shortest possible time.

(d) Stockholm Declaration on Children and Residential Care

The Stockholm Declaration is yet another document that speaks to the residential care of children along similar lines. This declaration, made at the second international conference on children and residential care held in Stockholm from 12 to 15 May 2003, made reference to the irrefutable proof that institutional care had a negative impact on children and youth. It was recommended that every effort be made to prevent out-of-home placements of children and youth, that residential care should be the last resort for children and youth, and that, when they are referred to these institutions, it should be for the shortest possible time. The importance of regulating and monitoring the institutions in line with agreed international and national standards of the CRC were also stated. This document made no distinction between “institutional” and “residential” care. (Stockholm Declaration on Children and Residential Care, 2003 as cited by Editorial, 2004:144-149).

(e) Malmö Declaration

The Malmö Declaration is a document that was developed seventeen years prior to the Stockholm Declaration (28 August 1986) by representatives from 20 countries at the biannual

Congress of the International Federation of Educative Communities (IFEC). The declaration stated that residential care was not to be seen as the last resort but as the preferred choice of care for certain children and youth at appropriate times in their development. The treatment in these institutions was described as “humane, active, qualified” and rendered by “enduring educational personnel”. Community care was viewed as, amongst others, an “important task of society” and “as a period of transition” (Malmö Declaration, 1986 as cited by Editorial, 2004:145, 149)

The very different approaches to residential care in the Malmö and Stockholm declarations could be ascribed to the very different attitude towards children’s rights and what constituted appropriate alternative services at the time (prior to and post-CRC).

Regarding the circumstances of children in residential care In South Africa, the Inter-Ministerial Committee on Young People at Risk (IMC) made similar findings to those made abroad. The IMC found that these vulnerable children were not receiving the care and support that they needed and this led to recommendations that brought about transformation of the child and youth care system (IMC, 1996a).

2.4.2 National Perspectives on Residential Care

In South Africa transformation in the child and youth care system occurred to ensure that children at risk of removal or who had been removed from their parents or families, were offered care and protection, education, treatment, and secure accommodation (Gildenhuys, 2002:12; IMC: Discussion Document 1996a:17). In this regard the Inter-Ministerial Committee on Young People at Risk played a crucial role.

2.4.2.1 Findings of the Inter-Ministerial Committee

The IMC found in 1996 that children were too easily removed from their parents and were not always appropriately placed in residential facilities. They remained in care for extended periods based on the judgment of one or two professionals following a statutory process. They were often moved deeper into the system (from a children’s home to a school of industries or from a school of industries to a reform school). Within the residential settings they suffered human rights abuses and often did not receive equal treatment and respect for their privacy and human dignity. Services, to youth at risk in rural areas and black youth, were lacking and reconstruction services to the families of the children in care were not rendered effectively (IMC, 1996b). There were breaches in terms of freedom and security. Further, staff, for the most part, was not

appropriately trained (IMC: Discussion document 1996a:8, 9, 11, and 12). A "control and punishment perspective" was followed and there was a "dearth of appropriate developmental and therapeutic programmes" to address the needs of these high-risk children (IMC: Discussion Document 1996a:17; Editor, 1996:5-6). In other words, the general conditions and standards in the residential care facilities fell short of the standards set by the United Nations instruments. Transformation of all residential facilities was called for to ensure that the treatment of youth at risk moved to an effective developmental care discipline approach.

There were, however, many barriers to overcome. The child and youth care system was inadequately financed and not sufficiently supported by policy to address these identified problems. Residential care, in particular, was very costly and the staff establishment was not adequate to address the needs of the children and youth. Criticism was levelled against the purpose of the IMC to create an integrated framework of services for the child and youth care system (Gray & Sewpaul, 1998:12-17). They found the committee's reference to the "child and youth care system", and not to "child welfare" in general, as problematic as they believed that the focus was placed on those who were involved in childcare and that the exclusion of the social workers that implemented child welfare policy was unacceptable. Another issue that they contested was the reference of the IMC to the "existing system and current legislation as presenting problems" (Gray & Sewpaul, 1998:12-17). This statement, they felt, showed a complete disregard for the broader social context in which the problems of the children and youth were situated.

The recommendations of the IMC were that audits of children in alternative care be launched; an integrated approach to service delivery be followed; and that standards of service delivery be implemented. These recommendations would impact on the YCECs (referred to as "Schools of Industries in the Children's Act 74 of 1983).

(a) Audits of children in alternative care: The launch of Project Go

With the view of undertaking an audit of children coming into the child and youth care system, Project Go was launched by the National Ministry for Welfare and the IMC during November 1997. This had to be done to ensure that children were referred to and remained within the least confining and most empowering facility and/or programme befitting their developmental needs. Henceforth, no young person would be moved deeper into the system, for example from a School of Industries to a Reform School, without an appropriate assessment and the approval of the provincial Project Go Team. It was envisaged that, where possible, children needed to be transferred to the least restrictive environments. The reviews were completed by May 1998 and children were placed in care in accordance with the individual needs identified by the teams.

(b) Integrated approach to service delivery

Another recommendation made by the IMC was that an integrated approach to service delivery needed to be followed. An emphasis needed to be placed on prevention, early intervention, and minimized residential care in its existing form. The integrated approach was fundamentally a range of services, entailing recurrent, continuous and continually varying interventions, provided within the developmental and ecological perspective and entrenched within communities (IMC: Discussion Document 1996a:18, 37). The IMC also recommended that the children's rights culture in residential care be addressed by way of minimum standards of service delivery.

(c) Minimum standards of service delivery

During May 1998 a document, Draft Minimum Standards: South African Child and Youth Care System, was completed. This document had to inform the Developmental Quality Assurance (DQA) process for children's residential care centres. The response of the WCED to these recommendations is important, as this would have an impact on the service delivery at the YCECs that the WCED manages.

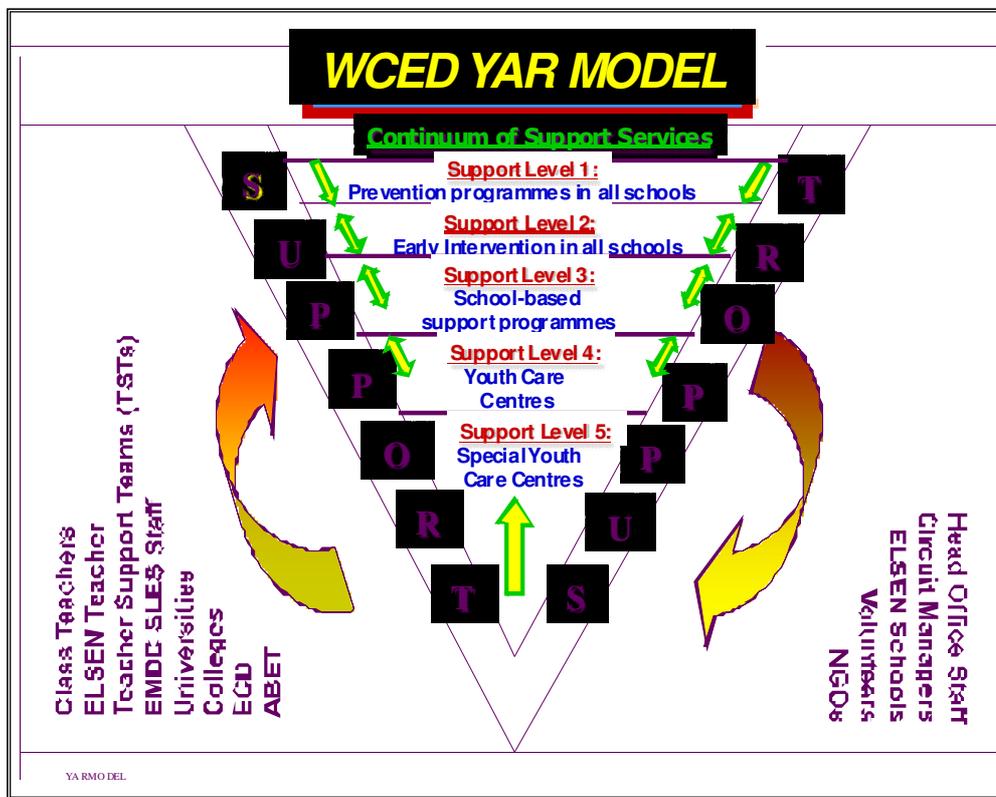
2.4.2.2 Provincial Response to Recommendations of the IMC

The first response of the Western Cape Education Department to the recommendations made by the IMC, was to develop an integrated model to service delivery.

During 1998 the Directorate: Specialised Education Support Services of the WCED embarked on transformation of the fourteen reform schools and schools of industries that they managed at the time. Four of these schools were shut down completely and four were converted into Schools of Skills. Two other schools were converted into Special YCECs (for children referred to these centres by the Youth Court in terms of the Criminal Procedures Act 51 of 1977). Three were turned into YCECs (for children referred to these centres by the Children's Court in terms of the Children's Act 74 of 1983). Another one was developed into a Youth Care and Education Centre for boys with a separate Special Youth Care and Education Centre for girls. Provision was also made for the services of support staff such as school social workers and psychologists on the staff establishment of the YCECs (Gast, 2001:9).

In addition, the Youth at Risk (YAR) model (Chart 2.1) was developed to advance participation, inclusiveness and flexibility in service delivery to youth at risk. This was done in line with the Inclusive Education system (Department of Education, 2001; Coetzee, 2005:186). In terms of the Inclusive Education System all children can learn but all need support at varying levels. To accommodate these varying levels of support, the YAR model makes provision for five levels of support. Three of these levels are applicable to learners with special educational needs within the mainstream schools, whereas levels 4 and 5 refer to services and programmes to children and youth in residential facilities (YCECs and Special YCECs) managed by the WCED. It is clear that priority should be given to the first three levels of the model in order to decrease referrals to levels 4 and 5.

CHART 2.1 YOUTH AT RISK MODEL



Source: Western Cape Education Department: 2004(a)

The first level of support refers to the early identification and intervention of learners with special educational needs within the mainstream schools.

Support level 1: Preventative services in mainstream schools

This level of support refers to schools as very important access sites for reaching children who might be vulnerable (Theron, 1999; Frank, 2006:25) and for the early identification of learners with special needs and early intervention. This means that educators need to be knowledgeable regarding the signs that indicate risk and the steps that can be taken to assist the learner. As far as feasible, learners should be accommodated in the mainstream classroom by providing support and preventative services to them. On this level the curriculum, Life Orientation (LO) should play an important part as it is concerned with the social, personal, academic, emotional and physical growth of learners and with the interrelatedness of these aspects. The aim is to prepare learners for life and its responsibilities and possibilities. In order for them to be able to make informed decisions and act accordingly, LO works towards developing skilfulness, wisdom, principles and positive mindsets (WCED, 2004a:7). Unfortunately, experience shows that LO is not given due attention in many schools. This learning area needs urgent attention.

Support level 2: Periodic withdrawal from the mainstream class

The second support level addresses the occasional necessity of periodically withdrawing a learner from the mainstream class. A learner with special needs can be, briefly, pulled out of regular class to attend classes that provide special programmes. This could be on an individual or group basis (Theron, 1999) and calls for on-site technical assistance and a continuum of professional services. Usually, the educator will be able to prevent or remove the learning or developmental barriers, but it could be that he or she will need to consult with colleagues or even with specialists when the barrier is too serious and falls beyond the scope of the educator's expertise. An Institutional Level Support Team (ILST) should, therefore, be established at every school to assist the educator. The team must comprise the principal or his/her representative, a few educators and other internal or external key staff responsible for assessing the specific needs and problems experienced by educators in the school. They must then jointly develop an Individual Support Plan for the child. This means that, for the team to meet the requirements, they must have a comprehensive knowledge of the range of barriers to learning that learners experience (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2007:25).

This school-based provision can be supplemented with external services from the Circuit Team and the District Based Support Team (DBST) when necessary. These teams consist of a range of experts that is able to empower the school staff to cope with the challenges referred to them (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2007:25). The aims of service delivery are thus to reintegrate the learner into the mainstream class as soon as possible; support the class educator with the

smooth reintegration; assist and manage the child consistent with his/her Individual Support Plan.

The next level of support within the mainstream schools makes provision for support to learners with special needs via developmental programmes.

Support level 3: School based support programmes

One of the options that the staff at the school has, is to refer learners, who are at risk of being suspended or expelled, to attend developmental programmes. Staff at the education district offices has been trained in the implementation of programmes that have proven successful as diversion programmes with children/youth in conflict with the law. It was ascertained from Phillips (2008) that most of the requests for expulsion are normally based on challenging behaviour (such as the inability to manage anger); the possession and/or use of dependency producing substances (drugs); and immoral conduct (such as inappropriate touching, sexual harassment). The programmes are, therefore, targeted at these young people and include, but not limited to, the “Mapping the Future Programme” of NICRO, the Drug Information Programme of the Department of Social Development and the South African Young Sex Offender Programme (SAYSTOP). (Ehlers and Van der Sandt, 2001). A number of staff is also trained in restorative justice principles and practices. These programmes will be discussed in Chapter 5.

At this level, the importance of ensuring that the parents and children know their rights is crucial to prevent children, who present with challenging behaviour, to be “informally excluded”. The school staff does this by informing the parent that the child will not be excluded from the school if they arrange for placement of the child in another school. The contributing factors to the child’s challenging behaviour are thus not assessed and he or she is denied the necessary services to address these factors resulting in the child presenting with similar behaviour at the next school. This was often the case with children who were eventually placed in YCECs.

The next two levels of support relate to children in residential care. The first level addresses the special needs of children who are cared for in YCECs.

Support level 4: Referral of learners into the youth care and education centres

At the time of the development of the model in 2001, children were referred to YCECs via the Children’s Court by the then Commissioner of Child Welfare (now known as the Presiding

Officer) in terms of the Children's Act 74 of 1983 (from 2009 in terms of the Children's Act 38 of 2005) (RSA, 1983; RSA, 2005). Two processes were followed when referring the child, namely:

- The Commissioner of Child Welfare at a Children's Court Inquiry could refer children in need of care in terms of Section 14(4) (b) of the Child Care Act 74 of 1983.
- The criminal proceedings of the children in conflict with the law could be stopped and the case converted into a children's court inquiry in terms of Section 254 of the Criminal Procedures Act (RSA, 1977a). In other words, there is an understanding that children who are in conflict with the law are often also children in need of care.

Support level 5: Referral to special youth care and education centres

The Special Youth Care and Education Centres (known as "reform schools" in the Criminal Procedures Act 51 of 1977) are defined in terms of the Child Care Act (No. 74 of 1983) as a school maintained for the reception, care and training of children sent there in terms of Section 290 of the Criminal Procedures Act, 1977 (Act 51 of 1977a) (RSA, 1977a). These institutions are the most restrictive environments within the range of services designed by the child and youth care system because of the seriousness of the behavioural problems that the children and youth present. It is imperative that the programmes presented should be empowering, as being sent to such a centre normally means that these young people nearly exhausted the resources of the juvenile justice system. These include, but are not limited to, diversion from the criminal system, house arrest and suspended sentences.

In summary, the YAR model makes provision for various levels of support to youth at risk. The youth that are referred to the YCECs normally have received support at school and did not benefit by it for a variety of reasons. It often is also the case that they did not feel supported and dropped out of school, which at times led to their involvement in criminal activities. In terms of this model every effort should be made to identify children at risk at an early age and ensure that they receive the necessary assistance. This will, hopefully, lead to fewer children dropping out of school, becoming involved in criminal activity and being referred to residential care facilities such as the YCECs.

2.4.3 Implications of Policy Changes in Youth Care and Education Centres

Implications of changed policies for service delivery by staff at YCECs are discussed in terms of the referral process and the treatment process.

2.4.3.1 Changes in the referral process

Two processes will be discussed namely (a) the referral directly from the children's court and (2) and referral via the youth court.

(a) Referral directly from the children's court

The referral process can be divided into the referral of children to the YCEC from the Children's Court directly or when youth court proceedings are converted into children's court enquiries. The following sections of the Child Care Act 38 of 2005 refer to the process followed when a child is referred to alternative care via the children's court. This is of particular importance to the YCECs that form part of this research.

The Children's Act 38 of 2005 (Section 42(1)) makes provision for Children's Courts of specialized competency to be established in each court (RSA, 2005: 54). The Children's Court "operates mainly in the sphere of private law and does not form part of the criminal process" (Bezuidenhout & Joubert 2008:174). The children's court may adjudicate any matter involving a child and youth care centre (the new name for, amongst others, the YCEC). The authority of the court is covered under Section 46 and bestows upon it wider powers and jurisdiction than before. Despite the fact that provision is made for a more informal setting and more informal proceedings (Section 60(3)), it does not imply a diminished status of the court – the children's court still has the formal status of the magistrate's court. The area of jurisdiction of the children's court is limited to children and operates in the area where the child lives (Section 44). (RSA: 2005).

Provisions are made in section 60 and 52(2) of the Children's Act 38 of 2005 for proceedings to be less formal and adversarial than the standard court and that the child's testimony can be held *in camera* (RSA, 2005). The proceedings in the children's court take the form of an inquiry as opposed to a trial in a criminal court, and no acquittal, conviction or sentence follows at the end of it, as is the case in a criminal trial. Parties involved in the children's court proceedings are the presiding officer, the designated social worker, the child concerned and the parents/guardian.

i. The presiding officer

The magistrate in the children's court is no longer referred to as the Commissioner of Child Welfare but, in terms of Section 42(2) of the Children's Act 38 of 2005, is known as the Presiding

Officer. The additional magistrate is known as the Assistant Presiding Officer (RSA, 2005). The Presiding Officer makes a finding based on the evidence brought before court. The Children's Act 38 of 2005 makes provision for a child to be found in need of care (RSA, 2005). A family pragmatist approach is thus followed as the Act endeavours to strike a balance between the responsibilities and rights of parents, the rights and needs of children, and the role of the state and other service providers. Prominence is given to the ability of the state to take action as the protector of children, with a responsibility to intervene determinedly and with authority when necessary. There is a hands-on child rescue role specified for the state, which is mandated to make prompt decisions to secure substitute care when parenting breaks down.

In certain circumstances the child is, without a doubt, in need of care and protection and in other circumstances the child may be in need of care. In terms of Section 150 of the Children's Act 38 of 2005, a child is in need of care if he or she is:

- Deserted or orphaned and has no visible resources
- Displays challenging behaviour that cannot be controlled by the parent or caregiver
- Lives, works or begs on the street for a living
- Addicted to dependence-producing substances and is without any support to obtain treatment for such addiction
- Exploited or lives in circumstances that exposes him/her to exploitation
- Lives in or is exposed to circumstances that may seriously harm his/her physical, mental or social well-being
- At risk if returned to the custody of the parent, guardian or caregiver as there is reason to believe that he/she will live in or be exposed to circumstances that may seriously harm his/her physical, mental or social well-being (RSA, 2005).

A child may be in need of care in terms of Section 150(2) of the Children's Act 38 of 2005 because he or she is:

- A victim of child labour
- A child in a child-headed household. Children in child headed households may thus be in need of care if they do not have the necessary support to fulfil their "parental duties". The Child Care Act makes provision for the support of a child over the age of 16 years who heads a household (RSA, 2005) by way of financial assistance and a mentor.

The reason that a child who works is not necessarily in need of care is due to the high unemployment rate in the country and the necessity that children sometimes make a financial contribution to their families. It is, therefore, very important that it should be clearly defined what harmful child labour is. Child labour that is damaging to the child's health and that interferes in

his/her schoolwork must be seen as harmful. Sexual exploitation and commercial exploitation are seen as the worst forms of child labour.

When a child is found to be in need of care the Presiding Officer has a wide range of placement options available to him/her. When considering those options, one gets a clearer understanding of where residential care facilities such as YCECs feature in this range (RSA, 2005). A child can, in terms of Section 157, be:

- Left or returned to the care of the parent or caregiver
- Placed in the care of a parent or caregiver under prescribed conditions (this could include, amongst others, that the parent/s must attend a parenting programme)
- Placed in an alternative care placement (such as the YCEC)
- Referred for medical, psychological or other treatment (RSA, 2005:104).

In other words, referral to alternative placement is an option if returning or leaving the child in the care of the parent under certain conditions were not feasible. This speaks to the fact that the child needs specialized assistance but it also refers to the need that services should be rendered to the parents or caregivers. This, unfortunately, is not the case in practice. Once the child is placed in the YCEC very limited, if any, assistance is given to the family members to address their challenges and this leads to the child returning to the same dysfunctional family. Given that the designated social worker normally testifies in children's court that a child's parents or guardian will receive services when he/she is removed, the non-compliance could be viewed as a violation of the court order.

The Children's Court can make custody orders in respect of a child in need of care on condition that the child was under eighteen years at the beginning of the inquiry (Regulation 8(4)) for alternative care, which could include referral to a YCEC (referred to as child and youth care centres in Section 46(1)(a)(ii)) (RSA, 2005:68). The order made by the presiding officer has the effect of transferring custody of the child from the custodian parent to the management of the residential facility (Section 53(1)) (RSA, 2005). The Director-General designates the particular school to which the child will be sent.

The order is made for a period of two years but the child can be released earlier if his/her behaviour warrants it. The impact of the lowering of the age of majority of the child from 21-18 years does not have a profound impact on the length of stay in an institution. Although Section 17 of the Act lowers the age of majority to eighteen years, this Section must be read in context with the rest of the Act regarding the position of children / youth in child and youth care centres. The Children's Amendment Act 41 of 2007 in Chapter 11 - Alternative Care - Section 176(2) states that a person placed in alternative care as a child, may apply, after having reached the

age of eighteen years, to remain in that care until the end of the year in which that person reaches the age of 21 years if the current caregiver is willing and able to care for that person and the continued care is necessary to enable that person to complete his/her education or training (RSA, 2007a).

Section 176, which is to be implemented, is exactly duplicating the provisions in Section 33(3) of the Child Care Act 74 of 1983 (as amended). The implementation of Section 17 was not intended to be implemented in respect of children/persons in alternative care but to enable persons of that age to obtain other rights denied them under the Age of Majority Act, for example, the right to enter into contracts or even to enter into a marriage (Louw, 2009).

ii. The designated social worker

The designated social worker plays a pivotal role prior to, during and after the children's court proceedings. A "designated social worker" means a social worker in the service of (1) the Department or a provincial department of social development, (2) a selected child protection organization such as Child Welfare Society, or (3) a municipality (RSA, 2005:20). The designated social worker must investigate all cases of alleged child abuse and neglect and then compile a report with the purpose of justifying the recommendation that, for instance, the parental powers to protect and provide for their children need to be limited. Information is provided regarding the social conditions of all the parties concerned and recommendations made regarding the placement of the children (Van den Heever, 1995: 62, 63; RSA, 2005: Section 62(1)).

In other words, the report of the designated social worker is not only vital to decide whether the child is in need of care, but also to determine what form of care/programme will best suit the child. It is further important for the YCEC that the content of the report must assist the staff to understand the child's circumstances, be informed of what services have already been rendered to the child and what the child's response to the services was. This would guide the staff at the institution when planning the child's Individual Development Plan.

iii. The child

The child concerned is given explicit rights to participate in the proceedings and to testify on his/her own behalf. Participation could be direct or by way of representation. In this regard the child can now enlist the services of a legal aid officer (RSA, 2005).

Apart from the court's direct referral, the second way that a child can be referred to the child and youth care centre is via the conversion of the criminal proceedings in the youth court. This means that the court proceedings are stopped and the case converted in a children's court inquiry. The same process is then followed as explained above.

(b) Conversions of criminal proceedings into children's court inquiries

There are three ways in which a criminal trial of a youth offender can be channelled to a children's court, namely:

- Section 254 of the Criminal Procedures Act makes provision that, if the Magistrate is of the opinion that a child under the age of eighteen years is probably in need of care and that it would be advisable for him/her to be dealt with in the Children's Court, he may stop the trial. He may then order that the child be brought before the children's court (RSA, 1977a).
- Section 47(1) of the Children's Act 38 of 2005 specifies that if it appears to any court in the course of any proceedings that the child may be in need of care that the case can be channelled to the children's court.
- When criminal charges are withdrawn in a criminal court, arrangements can be made that the child under eighteen years be channelled to a children's court. This means that a children's court inquiry must be opened in terms of Section 155(1) of the Children's Act 38 of 2005.

The rationale for converting matters is that the children, who have often already been referred to alternative care or are clearly in need of care, deserve optimal services from professionals in the pre-trial, trial and post-trial phases to prevent recidivism (Gildenhuis, 2002:1). The importance of effective service delivery in the YCEC in the post-trial phase is thus evident. It is understood that the young person is in need of care and that the focus of the court should be on the best interests of the child rather than concerning themselves solely with matters of criminal guilt or retribution (Ahranjani, Ferguson & Raskin, 2005:16). The link connecting transformation in child welfare legislation and juvenile justice reform is clear. It is recognized that a significant number of children in conflict with the law could be defined as children in need of care and welfare (Godfrey, 2004:9; Gildenhuis, 2002). In other words, it is important that reform needs to acknowledge this interface between care and protection and youth justice. The following section focuses on how this legislation is actually applied in practice.

(c) Application of the childcare legislation regarding conversion

Gildenhuis (2002) undertook an exploratory study into the application of the Child Care Act (Act 74 of 1983) in respect of the assessment and sentencing of juvenile offenders. The study was concerned with children and youth in conflict with the law, who are actually at risk of becoming or being in need of care. Gildenhuis (2002) was concerned about the mistreated children and adolescents from underprivileged, deprived and violent communities in the Western Cape Province who, unavoidably, become involved in criminal activity. The research findings were that the prevention of recidivism in children was not addressed effectively as a result of the ineffective and inappropriate application of the Children's Act 74 of 1983 (RSA, 1983). Jamieson, Proudlock and Waterhouse (2008:13) agree that the current legislation governing the criminal justice system does not recognize children's vulnerabilities nor does it provide special protection to children in conflict with the law.

Furthermore, Gildenhuis (2002:1-3) found no clear guidelines, in practice, regarding the application of the Child Care Act (Act 74 of 1983) in respect of the assessment and sentencing of juvenile offenders. In general practice the aforementioned Act was consequently applied at random by magistrates, prosecutors and probation officers. In her opinion no consistency, for instance, appeared to exist regarding issues such as:

- The number of cases, which can be considered for conversion in respect of a particular youth
- The seriousness of an offence
- At which stage of the criminal proceedings conversion should be considered
- The management of children already dealt with in terms of the Child Care Act
- Which cases should be converted and which withdrawn
- In which instances the criminal and childcare procedures should proceed independently (Gildenhuis 2002:3, 4).

The need that both criminal and child care procedures should be in place to deal effectively with youth at risk was obvious. The process of converting the criminal proceedings into children's court enquiries entails an initial assessment.

(d) Initial assessment

Children who are arrested for alleged involvement in criminal activity must be brought to the assessment centre at the youth court where they are assessed. These centres were opened

during 1995 and are manned by full-time probation officers during the day and part-time probation officers during weekends and at nights. Where possible, the children's parents are traced by a family finder and involved in the process. A suitable placement is arranged for the youth (preferably with the co-operation of the parents and guardians) and a recommendation, regarding diversion of the criminal proceedings, is made (Meyer, 1996:8-9; Rossouw 1999:2; Gildenhuis, 2002). In terms of Section 71 of the Criminal Procedures Act (Act 51 of 1977) (RSA, 1977a) the young person can be placed in a place of safety as defined in Section 1 of the Child Care Act (Act 74 of 1983) (RSA, 1983) pending his/her further appearance before the court. Provision is also made that the parents can assist the youth during the court process. The court must be held in camera and the youth is protected against taking the oath if unable to understand. In terms of the Correctional Services Act (Act 8 of 1959) children may only be detained for the shortest possible time and as a last resort (RSA, 1959).

The impact of policies and legislation is mainly in the referral process and the treatment process. Apart from the changes in policies and legislation relating to the referral process, this discussion also focuses on the changes on child and youth policies relating to the treatment process.

2.4.3.2 Implications of policies on treatment of children in YCECs

With the view of ensuring that staff at, amongst others, YCECs adheres to the principles and standards of service delivery set out in the changed policies, the Western Cape Education Department developed a Minimum Standards document (WCED, 2004b).

The Minimum Standards document (2004b) applies the four key principles reflected in the United Nations CRC, namely, the best interests of the child (Article 3), survival and development (Article 6), non-discrimination (Article 2) and participation (Article 12) (WCED, 2004b:11). This highlights the importance of regulating and monitoring the institutions in line with agreed international and national standards of the CRC to ensure that approaches to children is rights-based (Editorial, 2004:141). Children must be put at the heart of policies and services must be organized according to their needs.

In this regard, the Children's Act 38 of 2005 states clearly that "child and youth care centres" must be operated in accordance with prescribed minimum norms and standards. Therapeutic programmes must also be offered as well as outreach and prevention and intervention services and after-care re-integration programmes (RSA, 2007a).

The aims of the minimum standards are:

- To build the capacity of educators and principals to meet the challenges of dealing with learners with special educational needs
- To improve services to learners at risk
- To ensure the protection, education and development of the learners.

In other words, the focus is on a child rights' perspective on service delivery to children in the YCECs. This alludes to the need for transformed thinking on the part of the staff regarding the needs of the children in their care.

When discussing the minimum standards reference is also made to literature that provides a motivation for the inclusion of that particular standard.

Minimum Standard 1: Prevention, early identification and intervention services

The first minimum standard refers to the role of the YCEC to share in the responsibility in providing prevention, early identification and intervention services to learners at risk. This makes reference to the role of the YCEC as a resource centre, as indicated in White Paper 6. This means that, in future, the YCECs will have to render specialist services to surrounding schools (Department of Education, 2001). This will most likely change when the YCEC is transferred to the Department of Social Development in terms of the Children's Amendment Act 41 of 2007 by the end of 2010 (RSA, 2007a).

Minimum Standard 2: Admission

The second minimum standard highlights the importance of assisting the learner upon admission. Children may not be ready for admission and might feel abruptly deserted by their caregivers. It does happen that they are also lied to or not adequately prepared as to where they are being sent and why this is necessary in order to get them to the residential setting with the least resistance. This can have long-term consequences in terms of their ability to develop trusting relationships with others. The engagement and admission of new learners must therefore ensure that children and youth feel that they are received into a caring and safe environment (WCED, 2004b). Gilliam & Scott (1998:14) refer to a "strong welcoming tradition in the programme" as a protective factor for youth at risk while Brendtro, Brokenleg & Van Bockern (2002:3) refer to the importance of a "reclaiming" environment that include elements of belonging, mastery of, independence, and generosity. This is the responsibility of all the staff at the YCEC.

Minimum Standard 3: Safety of children and youth

The third minimum standard of service delivery refers to the importance of safeguarding children in the YCECs. The ideal is that learners in learning sites should feel safe and free to grow mentally and socially, unburdened by worry about their personal protection (Sprague & Walker, 2005:1). This is especially true in YCECs where bullying and harassment by peers are common occurrences. To ensure school safety the YCEC must reduce the factors that pose a risk for safety and enhance the protective factors. Protective factors include provision for an operative structure and orderliness; freedom from possible bodily and emotional injury; a violence free milieu; and encouraging, compassionate and protective employees. Standards and procedures throughout the YCEC should not be exclusionary. Strong learner ties to the school environment are also a shielding factor as well as high levels of learner contribution and family involvement in education and opportunities for learners to acquire social skills (Sprague & Walker, 2005:3).

Risk factors are, according to Sprague and Walker (2005:3) poor design and use of space, for example, overcrowding and staff who apply unyielding punitive measures, lacking compassion. Insensitivity and unwillingness to find ways to accommodate children and staff from various cultural backgrounds, learner estrangement and rejection by others, learner anger and resentment of unfair school routines and demands for conformity, and poor supervision by staff also constitute risk factors (WCED, 2004b:18).

In other words, it is important to be proactive in preventing harm to children by thinking systemically about the safeguarding of children. It is also an acknowledgment that the risk factors could be in the environment at school and that the adults could also contribute to the risk factors by the way they value the safety of the children.

Minimum Standards 4: Rights of learners

The fourth minimum standard of service delivery alludes to the adherence to the rights of learners in the YCECs. Rights of learners should be respected and they should be given information about these rights and responsibilities within the programme in a manner and form that takes into account their age, capacity and language. In this regard, the Children's Act 38 of 2005 refers to consideration for the child's level of maturity (RSA, 2005). The rights and responsibilities should be displayed so that children can revisit the information when necessary. Shortly after their admission they are still overwhelmed and have to adapt to so many new things that they are often unable to absorb all the information they are provided. It is important that the

staff is committed to respect the rights of the learners and is prepared to teach children how to become more responsible as they develop (WCED, 2004b).

This standard also makes provision for the rights of children / youth from different religions / cultures in the residential setting:

Right to religious affiliation

Globally the imposition of religious beliefs contrary to the child's family background presents problems in childcare settings (International Save the Children Alliance, n.d:13). The right of children to religious affiliation must be respected. In this regard, the Department of Education has strict guidelines (Department of Education, 2002c).

Right to cultural affiliation

Recommendations from various authors (as cited by Kromhout, Eldering & Knorth, 2000:361) on how to attain culture responsiveness are:

- Employment of professionals from other cultures represented in the institution. Research has shown that clients more often disengage from treatment prematurely if they are matched with a professional of another language and background (ethnicity) (Atkinson and Lowe, 1995 as referred to by Kromhout, Eldering and Knorth, 2000: 362)
- Guidance to staff regarding multicultural consciousness and responsiveness, approaches, knowledge and ability
- Conferring with and working in partnership with persons such as traditional healers regarding health issues
- Making use of interpreters
- Refraining from using assessment tools that disadvantage individuals from other cultures
- Tolerance and respectful acceptance of the child's culturally based clarification for his/her situation
- Displaying symbols from different cultures in the institution
- Respecting religious proscriptions regarding food, prayer, celebrations and norms.

In other words, provision must be made to ensure that children feel free in following their religious practices but also that they display tolerance for others who observe their religion or culture in a different way. This has led to some people feeling concerned about the fact that children might, by learning of other religions and cultures, become confused. There must be a fine balance when ensuring children's rights to religious and cultural freedom, especially in

residential settings. Staff must, for instance, not force children to go to a place of worship of the staff's choice.

Minimum Standard 5: Complaints

The fifth minimum standard of service delivery refers to the importance that children understand their right to lodge complaints even if it entails dissatisfaction with the service providers. Their concerns and complaints must be dealt with seriously and without delay or reprisal (WCED, 2004b:21). Often children are encouraged by staff to assert themselves more in relation to their peers but when the children then also become assertive in terms of lodging complaints against those in authority, they are victimised or punished.

Minimum Standard 6: Reportable incidents or actions

Learners must be informed about the policies regarding reportable incidents or actions. They must understand that certain behaviours towards them are not acceptable and should not be tolerated. These include, but are not limited to, sodomy and bullying. The Abuse No More Protocol is one of the policy documents that provide guidelines for the management of disclosures of abuse (WCED, 2001a). It is crucial to ascertain whether cases of abuse are reported and whether these reports were dealt with appropriately. If children's reports of infringement against them are ignored or dealt with ineffectively it will have considerable negative impact on their quality of life then and in the future (WCED, 2004b:22). The management must ensure that specific policy makes provision for reporting procedures and that staff is sensitised via training about how to respond to complaints.

Many abuses that happen in the residential facilities are, allegedly, not investigated. International Save the Children (n.d :9) refers to anecdotal confirmation that indicates that children who are ill-treated in residential facilities have a greater struggle in reporting the abuse, escaping from the circumstances or obtaining aid from outsiders. One of the causes for this is the "closed nature of institutions". Reported school crime occurs most frequently in places where supervision is weakest, for example, in hallways, restrooms, locker rooms and stairs. If children feel unsafe they may resort to carrying weapons, putting on a tough front or retaliating against perceived transgressors (Lockwood, 1997 and Welsh *et al.*, 2000 as cited by Reinke & Herman, 2002:554).

Minimum Standard 7: Physical environment

The following minimum standard alludes to the importance that the physical environment of the school must be conducive to children. Various authors refer to a conducive environment in different ways. Amongst these are terms such as “holding environment” (Heller, 2000:23); “reclaiming environment” (Brendtro, Brokenleg & Van Bockern, 2002:3); and “facilitating environment” (Heller, 2000:22). Learners must live in a safe, healthy and well-maintained environment that provides appropriate access to the community and that meets their needs for privacy, safety and well-being (WCED, 2004b:1).

Minimum Standard 8: Emergency and safety practices

The eighth minimum standard speaks to the importance that provision is made for emergency and safety practices. All reasonable provisions must be made to ensure that learners and staff are safe from fire, accidents and other hazards and that they are equipped to deal with dangerous situations. This necessitates that fire drills should take place. Searches of learners (for drugs) may be a tool for maintaining safe schools but principals must balance learners' individual rights with the school community's need for a safe learning environment (WCED, 2004b)..

Minimum Standard 9: Transitional planning

The ninth minimum standard acknowledges the impact that transitions have on children. Saltzberg-Wittenberg (1983 as cited by Canham & Youell 2000:11) refers to the fears that children live through at any point of transition in their educational career. Learners must receive services in accordance with their IDP and Care Plan, which facilitates their well-being within a transitional programme and enables them to make a successful transition to new circumstances (WCED, 2004b:26). Maras & Aveling (2006:196) researched the transition of learners with special educational needs from primary to secondary school. From interviews and drawings made by learners, different researchers found significant features of transition. These are changes from class-teachers to subject-teachers; different patterns of discipline, classroom management and teaching styles; the increased size of buildings and complexity of building layout; as well as the prospect of being bullied or losing friends. Strategies to facilitate a more successful transition for learners could include a shadow programme in which new learners shadow older learners for a day to familiarise themselves with the school layout and schedule. It was found that learners who

participated were more socially adjusted at school, conveyed a drop in anxiety levels and had less trouble finding facilities than those learners in the control group. Mentoring for learners changing schools has also been found to enhance the experience of switches.

Other transitions could entail changes in the family composition (divorce, illness or death in the family and remarriage of a parent). Furthermore, return to the family during holidays could also be stressful due to the circumstances at home. The learner needs to be assisted during these times by both the staff of the YCEC and, in particular, the school social worker and the designated social worker (WCED, 2004b:27).

Minimum Standard 10: Privacy and confidentiality

The following minimum standard speaks to the right of children to privacy and confidentiality (WCED, 2004b). The privacy and confidentiality of learners must be respected and protected. They should be given the opportunity to speak to their family members over the telephone and visit with them without intrusion. Their mail should also not be opened. Overcrowding can compromise their privacy especially for the children in the adolescent phase of development. This standard also refers to the sharing of confidential information. This is further discussed under barriers to effective team functioning in Chapter 3 (WCED, 2004b).

Minimum Standard 11: Access to legal counsel, court and court appearance

The right of children to access to legal counsel is the next minimum standard. Learners who are admitted to YCECs often have other cases pending and this has a negative impact on their ability to co-operate in the centre and benefit by the treatment offered. They must be given access to courts and legal counsel, without fear of penalty or reprisal, on any matter including their adjudication, confinement or placement. They must be adequately assisted prior to, during and after appearances in court or in discussion with lawyers. In most of the YCECs a staff member is dedicated to assist the learners in this regard. It is of interest that many of the youth prefer to not make use of the legal aid lawyers because they do not understand the importance of having someone to represent them. Therefore, this should be discussed with them in order to ensure that they make an informed decision (WCED, 2004b:30). In terms of the Children's Act 38 of 2005 the child can apply for legal aid (RSA, 2005).

Minimum Standard 12: Emotional and social care

Learners must receive emotional and social care that makes possible quality interactions with adults and peers as well as promotes positive sustained relationships at school, with families,

significant others and friends (WCED, 2004b:30). Gilliam & Scott (1998), referring to the research findings of Werner & Smith (1992), write that the most powerful protective factor for a child is the presence of a caring, supportive relationship.

Research undertaken by Rossouw (2007: 56) showed that the 197 respondents of YCECs (54% of the children in all six YCECs) expressed a need for a connection with adults. Within the safety of the interviews they were able to express the need for love, caring, support, to be talked to and to be heard. The need for a connection with at least one male affirming adult was also articulated.

Minimum Standard 13: Health care

The right of children to health care is addressed in Minimum Standard 13. In line with the Children's Act 38 of 2005, the YCEC should make available opportunities for the learners to gain the knowledge, attitudes, values, skills, and services they require to be healthy. The promotion of healthy lifestyles not only contributes to learners' health in the current situation but also in the future. All staff, learners and, where possible, parents should be engaged in this. A healthy environment should be provided where policies and practices foster health (RSA, 2005).

Learners should also have access to and receive adequate health care when necessary (WCED, 2004b:33). It is important that health related barriers to learning are removed and the best possible level of wellness is advanced in learners (Hacker & Wessel, 1998:411). It is imperative that certain medical conditions such as HIV/AIDS be dealt with in a sensitive and confidential manner (RSA, 2005). It must further be kept in mind that even although young people often request assistance with medical problems, they sometimes actually only need attention. This must be dealt with in a sensitive manner.

Minimum Standard 14: Behaviour management

Management of learner behaviour is addressed in the following minimum standard. School wide positive discipline must be encouraged (WCED, 2004b:36). In order to ensure this, the principal must be committed to improving school discipline (Hallinger & Heck, 1998 as cited by Sprague & Walker, 2005:63) with the full support of all the staff members so as to ensure consistent application of discipline.

The worldwide use of residential care is frequently underpinned by a false conviction that if children are separated from adverse influences in their homes or surroundings, given tuition and subjected to strict discipline, they will become responsible citizens. In the past strict discipline included the administering of corporal punishment. Now that this form of punishment is abolished, educators have to find resourceful ways of managing challenging behaviour displayed by learners. “Strong hierarchies, strict working rules for educators, detailed, petty regulations to govern every possible eventuality and a rigid handling of guidelines” do not ensure the best interests of children and youth (FICE, 1986 as cited by Editorial, 2004:144).

Learners should be provided with the capacity and support that make constructive and effective social behaviour possible. Clear guidelines exist in various policy documents regarding what are unacceptable behaviour management practices (WCED, 2004b; RSA, 2005). According to Gilliam & Scott (1998:15) discipline should include natural and logical consequences that have a teaching component. Programmes should be “full of redemption, grace, and opportunities for new life”. It is important that adult role models should not expect of children and youth that which they are not able or willing to do themselves (Dufresne & Badzmierowski, 2006:74). An example of this is the rule that children may not swear or shout whilst staff is guilty of the very same behaviour.

An inordinate amount of time, energy, and resources are expended in attempting to develop strategies to address the behaviours exhibited by learners. When they present with challenging behaviour the multidisciplinary team often discusses what action to take regarding the behaviour or the individual crisis. Instead of waiting until the behaviour recurs, the environmental conditions should be arranged to prevent the behaviour from occurring (Watson & Steege, 2003:1).

Minimum Standard 15: Developmental milieu and climate

The milieu and climate in the YCEC should be developmental. The term “school climate” is a broad concept that encompasses factors such as the general atmosphere, culture, resources and social networks (Anderson, 1982 and Fraser, 1989 as cited by Loukas & Murphy, 2007:293). The institution can either inhibit or foster the development of antisocial behaviour (Reinke & Herman, 2002:552). It should be guarded against that children are subjected to administrative measures and practices that aim at serving the need of the institution for order, good organization and compliance. This poses the danger that children are left without connection, affection and personal attention (International Save the Children Alliance, n.d.:9). Learners must experience an environment in which their dignity, individuality and development are respected and nurtured (WCED, 2004b:38).

Minimum Standard 16: Care plan

Each learner must have a care plan based on a developmental assessment by at least two multi-disciplinary team members. The aims of the care plan are to promote lifelong relationships within the learners' families or appropriate alternative, as well as reintegrate learners into the community as soon as possible. The school social worker or psychologist usually co-ordinates the development of the care plans (WCED, 2004b:41).

Minimum Standards 17 and 18: Individual development plans

Each learner must have a written individual development plan (IDP) that is developed within three weeks of placement in the context of the broader care plan. The IDP needs to be reviewed at least every eight months (WCED, 2004b:43-47). The development of the IDP by members of the Institution Level Support Team at the YCEC is discussed in Chapter 3.

Minimum Standard 19: Development opportunities and effective programmes

Linked to the IDP there must be ample opportunities for child development and effective programmes. At international level the World Health Organization (2000a:5) alludes to the need for developmental programmes for youth. These are further discussed in Chapter 5. Each learner must be unconditionally provided with appropriate development opportunities and effective programmes, which enable them to attain the goals of their care plan and the IDP (WCED, 2004b:47).

Minimum Standard 20: Therapeutic programmes

In terms of Inclusive Education this minimum standard maintains that all the learners will need support but at varying levels. Each learner who is assessed as needing additional therapeutic support and/or special services must be unconditionally provided with appropriate and effective services and/or programmes and helped to use them effectively. Section 19(2) of the Children's Act 38 of 2005 also states that institutions must offer therapeutic and developmental programmes. Norms and standards for these centres must include the professional assessment of children (WCED, 2004b:49; RSA, 2005; Child and Youth Research and Training Programme, 2007:27).

Minimum Standard 21: Education

“Most children come to school with a ‘space’ in their minds ready for new ideas. However, some arrive with their space already occupied – with worries about the safety or health of family members, by questions that cannot be asked or that no one has answered, by muddle about an inappropriate role in the family”. For them the expectations about learning can seem too challenging (Morton, 2000:143). In this regard, Adams (2000:81) and Marshall (2005) agree that some children are already “full up” with anxiety and fear. This is particularly true of the children in the YCEC. They have “significantly greater difficulty in learning than the majority of children of the same age or have a disability which either prevents or hinders them from making use of the educational facilities and the kind generally available in schools” (Department of Education and Science (DES), 1988 as cited by Watt, 2000:66).

Each learner must unconditionally be provided with a relevant educational curriculum suited to his or her capacity, circumstances and developmental need, as well as given every assistance to make effective use of the education provided (WCED, 2004b:50).

Minimum Standard 22: Disengagement

It is required by the Children’s Act 38 of 2005 (RSA, 2005) that outreach, aftercare and reintegration programmes must be offered to children in alternative care. The children and youth must be provided with the appropriate rituals, programmes and support to make possible their effective disengagement from the YCEC (WCED, 2004b:52). In line with the recommendations of Bronfenbrenner (1979) service providers must ensure that the learners will have a supportive ecology around them when they leave the YCECs (Brendtro, 2006:162-166). This includes provision of resources to assist children to find somewhere to live and employment, as well as to build relationships and gain access to services (International Save the Children, n.d:13).

Children, who were reintegrated into their families and communities after a period in an institution, indicated to researchers that they were ill-prepared for their reintegration into their families and communities. They expressed the view that the institutionalisation threatened normal development for them and that most of them experienced their stay in the institution as harmful. Many of these children found it difficult to manage outside of the institution. (International Save the Children Alliance, n.d: 3, 9).

Reasons why children and youth experience problems after their return to their homes have been cited as the longstanding nature of their problems (that led to them being referred to the

institutions in the first place), a lack of change in the environment, and the absence of aftercare services (Leichtman & Leichtman, 2001 as cited by Nickerson *et al.*, 2007:74). It is, therefore, important that this minimum standard should be adhered to. The need for the provision of a relapse prevention programme for every child is clear (Rossouw, 2007: 51).

In summary, these minimum standards cover all the rights contained in the Constitution of the RSA (RSA, 1993) and are referred to in the Children's Act 38 of 2005 (RSA, 2005). Furthermore, these minimum standards are in line with the findings of a study that was undertaken in the United States of America with regard to the effectiveness of 18 residential programmes providing comprehensive long-term treatment for youth. These youth exhibited multiple high-risk behaviours. The researchers found key characteristics that appeared to contribute to the success of a programme (Schaffer Library on Drug Policy, 1994). These are reflected in Table 2.1 with the coinciding Minimum Standard.

Table 2.1: Comparison of Minimum Standards with key characteristics identified

KEY CHARACTERISTICS	MINIMUM STANDARD
Development of an individual treatment plan	MS 17 & 18: Each learner must have a written Individual Development Plan (IDP)
Participation of a caring adult / warm family atmosphere	MS 12 & 15: Emotional and social care / Development of reclaiming environment
Self-esteem building	MS 20: Therapeutic programmes linked to the IDP
Programmes for after care services	MS 22: Disengagement from the programme must be carefully planned
Teaching social, coping and living skills	MS 21: Education
Co-ordination of services	MS 17: Team approach must be followed when rendering services to children and youth
Family participation	Not attended to sufficiently
Positive peer culture	Not attended to sufficiently
Strict code of conduct (discipline)	MS 14: Behaviour management

From the above table it is clear that most of the key characteristics are addressed by the Minimum Standards document. Family participation, positive peer culture within the YCEC, and intensive post programme support are not, however, specifically mentioned in the Minimum Standards document and deserve attention.

Many of the changes in the Children's Act 38 of 2005 (RSA, 2005) and the Children's Amendment Act 41 of 2007 (RSA, 2007a) have profound consequences for the staff at the YCECs. These include, but are not limited to, working in teams, rendering individualised services to children and youth, and adhering to a child's rights perspective. The children's rights perspective includes, among others, child participation and the shift from a punitive to a restorative approach to discipline.

Having discussed the first main right of a child to appropriate alternative care the second main right, namely the right to education, needs to be considered. (The reason for focusing on these two rights was set out in the introduction to this chapter.)

Over the past 14 years many changes have occurred within the education system that impact on the service delivery by team members to children in YCECs. These included: (1) systemic changes, (2) philosophical changes, (3) changes in the service delivery models, and (4) different way of disciplining children. The impact of these changes on the team members can only be understood once there is clarity on the nature and spirit of the changes in educational policy and legislation. The changes in the educational policies were partly a response to international and national policies.

2.5 CHILDREN'S RIGHT TO EDUCATION

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations, 1989) and the Constitution of South Africa (RSA, 1993) are the main international and national documents that speak to children's right to education.

2.5.1 International and National Legislation Regarding the Right to Education

On the international level, the UN General Assembly (1959) was the first to affirm that education was the right of every child. This was followed by four world conferences, in the early 1960s, to assist with the setting up of regional objectives to make available primary education for all children. By 1980 primary enrolment tripled in Africa and in 1990 the CRC "codified" this right to education for all children in international law" (Huxtable & Blyth, 2002:4).

During 1990, 159 signatory countries to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child agreed that one of their goals would be the inclusion of universal access to basic education and completion of primary school by at least 80% of primary school learners by 2000 (UN Children's Fund, 1999). UNESCO statistics show that this goal has been surpassed (UNESCO, 2003). In 1993, the UN General Assembly, recognizing the principle of equal

educational opportunities for children with disabilities, adapted the United Nations Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities.

On a national level the Constitution of the RSA (RSA, 1993a), the Children's Act 38 of 2005, and the NPA for children place emphasis on the right of the child to education. The goals of the NPA in the educator sector are, firstly, to increase endeavours that advance early childhood development (ECD), including suitable economical family and community-based intervention. Secondly, their goals are to afford nationwide access to basic education and the attainment of primary education by no less than 80% of primary school age children by means of formal school or non-formal education of equivalent learning standards. Furthermore, the significance of ECD to ensure that children are better equipped when they enrol at school is stressed. The importance of ECD is also highlighted in the Children's Act 38 of 2005 (RSA, 2005). These international and national policies are reflected in the key legislative transformation in the Department of Education.

2.5.2 Legislative Transformation of the Department of Education

The transformation of the Department of Education are discussed in terms of (1) the need for transformation, (2) the vision of the Department of Education, (3) the aims of transformation, and (4) the move towards education for all children.

2.5.2.1 The need for transformation of the Department of Education

Prior to 1994, the dual education system comprised of 19 different education departments (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007: 47). These included, amongst others, Bantu Education, Christian Education and Coloured Teaching and Training. The racial disparity led to large numbers of learners, especially black learners, being excluded from mainstream education. Black children, who remained in school, were frequently taught by under-qualified teachers in overcrowded classes with a high learner-educator ratio and an inflexible curriculum (Department of Education, 1997a). The aims of transformation thus had to focus on redressing the imbalances and inequities. The long-term objective specified by the Minister of Education at the time of transformation was to develop an inclusive education and training system that will explore and speak to the barriers to learning, as well as acknowledge and accommodate the diverse range of learning requirements. The short and medium objectives would concentrate on attending to the limitations in the education system and on increasing admission of and provision to those who had previously been marginalised.

2.5.2.2 Vision of the Department of Education

The vision of the Department of Education is the provision of quality education for all and on nation building to bring into line education transformation with the broader nationwide plans of reconstruction and development. In working towards this vision, the Department of Education developed education system policies that are statements of intent of the way in which the identified educational needs of the target group are to be realized (Steyn, 2007:6). These policies address (1) the shift from a segregated to an integrated general education and special education system; (2) a new service delivery model (outcomes-based education – OBE); and (3) greater recognition of children’s rights.

2.5.2.3 Integrated general education and special education system

The following discussion will focus on the South African Schools Act, the Education Law Amendment Act, Human Capital Development and Education White Paper 6 (Inclusive Education) that guide service delivery within the Department of Education.

(a) SA Schools Act 1996 (Act 84 of 1996) together with provincial education laws

The main purpose of the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 (RSA 1996) is to transform education by creating and managing a national school system that will give everyone an equal opportunity to develop his/her talents (Joubert & Prinsloo, 2001:19 as cited by Van Deventer and Kruger, 2008:269). The SA Schools Act 1996 (Act 84 of 1996c) together with provincial education laws, provide the legal framework for the provision of education for all learners and the protection of their rights in public and independent schools. The Act makes provision for, amongst others, quality education, combating of racism and sexism, and the establishment of a human rights culture. Another issue dealt with is the compulsory school attendance of all learners between the ages of seven and fifteen years or learners reaching the ninth grade (whichever occurs first) and the conditions of admission of learners to public schools. When a child does not attend school the Head of Education may investigate, take appropriate measures to remedy and send a notice to the parents if the remedy fails. If parents do not co-operate they may be charged and, if found guilty, made to pay a fine or be imprisoned (Department of Education, 1996c).

Furthermore, provision is made “for access, quality and democratic governance” in the education system (Frank, 2006:28; Department of Education, 1996c) and standards for language policy and freedom of religion (Donald, Dawes & Louw, 2000:39; Department of Education, 1997b). The Act vests governance of public schools in the school governing bodies (of secondary

schools) comprising parents, educators, non-educator staff and learners. This alludes to a shift from centralized control and decision making to a school-based system of education management. Of importance for this study is that there must also be a representative of Special Education on the Governing Body.

(b) The Education Laws Amendment Act 31 of 2007

The Education Laws Amendment Act 31 of 2007 amends the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 and the National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996 (Department of Education, 2007c). The Act gives the Minister the power to set down minimum norms and standards for schools with which the schools and governing bodies must comply when they determine a policy. The norms and standards concern physical infrastructure, capacity of the school and learning materials. It is the responsibility of the Minister for Education and the Head of Department (Education) in each province to ensure that all schools meet the norms and standards as well as account for progress to the national minister. The functions and responsibilities of principals in public schools are also defined in the Act.

The human capital development strategy was developed to address the improvement of education, the educational setting, the quality of teaching and learning as well as the establishment of opportunities for skills and qualification acquisition.

(c) Human Capital Development

The Provincial Government has appointed the WCED as the lead department responsible for managing the Human Capital Development Strategy (HCDS) by developing the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes of citizens, in general, and the youth, in particular, to assist them with building communities. The HCDS has been influenced by the provincial vision of a “Home for All” and the Western Cape economic development strategy “iKapa Elihlumayo” that aims at growing the Cape, and fighting poverty and crime (WCED, 2006:1-54; WCED, 2008). To ensure a successful HCDS, a well-developed education system is essential and prominence must be given to further and higher education, equitable opportunities, an adequate level of health as well as a crime-free or controlled crime environment.

According to Naicker (2007) the concept of human capital relates to quality of life and a better society for all. The contribution of the Department of Education is, therefore, to ensure that all children are assisted to stay in school and receive a quality education and skills to prepare them

for a competitive society. Special attention must be given to literacy and numeracy, safer schools, lower pupil-teacher ratios and greater parental involvement in school matters.

Another important policy document that was developed by the Department of Education is the White Paper for Inclusive education.

(d) White Paper 6: Special Needs Education: Building an Inclusive Education and Training System

White Paper 6 Special Needs Education: Building an Inclusive Education and Training System puts forward far-reaching transformation that calls for a move away from institutions segregating children in terms of categories or disabilities. The aim is to rather provide education for children in terms of the intensity of support they require (Department of Education, 2001). Inclusive education is thus also in line with democratic principles (Engelbrecht, Oswald & Forlin, 2006:121).

According to the Salamanca Framework for Action inclusive schools must provide a range of support services to learners (UNESCO, 1994). In terms of the South African legislation these include, amongst others, provision of full service schools.

i. Full service schools

Within the inclusive education system provision is made for full service schools that are regular mainstream schools with the necessary infrastructure and support mechanisms to accommodate the full range of learning needs (Department of Education, 2001). Kronick (2002:19, 103) refers to this kind of school as a school that has broadened its mission and vision to meet the needs of all its students. These schools will have a bias towards specific disabilities depending on need and support. White Paper 6 provides directions as to how the first facilities will be set up and how the extra resources required would be accessed. Furthermore, it provides direction for how learners with disabilities will be identified, assessed and included into special, full service and ordinary schools in an incremental manner. Educators are also presented with plans and interventions on how to manage a variety of learning needs and to make sure that learning barriers are ameliorated. In terms of White Paper 6 the three significant shifts are: (1) from a medical model to an Inclusive Education model, (2) from category of disability to levels of support, and (3) from rendering support only at an intensive level to also rendering moderate and low levels of support to all learners (Department of Education, 2001).

The first significant shift in policy is from the use of the Medical model to an Inclusive Education model (Ecological perspective).

❖ Change in the Service Delivery Model

Policies move away from theories that learning barriers are located within learners to an acknowledgement that these barriers could also be caused by deficiencies within the education department, learning sites as well as the broader social, economic and political context. In other words, deficiencies within the sites of learning could include inaccessibility, inappropriate language, ineffective communication channels and lack of or inappropriate transport. In this regard, Bennett (2006:188) refers to the findings of OFSTED (2005) that high levels of challenging behaviour were present in schools where the curriculum is limited and differentiation is missing, causing the waning of learners' attention, incentive and participation.

The acknowledgment that, within the broader social system, factors such as the socialisation of children and poverty could attribute to learning difficulties, has led to improved understanding of the "learning barriers" that learners experience (Department of Education, 2001c). This is particularly relevant to the learners in the YCECs as they experience many barriers to learning and require different and high levels of support. They also, for the most part, have already experienced being excluded from the mainstream schools and this typically contributes to challenging behaviour on their part.

The second shift in policy is from segregation to integration of children with special needs.

❖ Change in Nature of Service Delivery (Structure)

There is a strong move away from placing learners with special needs in special classes, thereby isolating them from the education mainstream, as this led to them being perceived as second rate learners in the past. The inclusive education system in SA calls for the development of suitable support services at school and district level.

Allen-Meares, Washington & Welsh, (1996:145-146) summarise inclusive education as the integration of general education and special education. They indicate that the bottom line is the promotion of equal educational opportunity and the opportunity to achieve maximum learning outcomes for each child regardless of his/her unique characteristics. Education offered must thus be suitable to the needs of all children (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2007:17). In line with the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, there should be no discrimination against

learners on the grounds of economic status, race, learning difficulty, condition or disability. (Allen-Meares, Washington & Welsh, 1996:134). The importance that there should be closer collaboration between special and mainstream education and community services is also highlighted.

The third shift is from category of disability to levels of support.

❖ Change in Nature of Support to Learners

The nature and severity of the handicap will dictate whether the learner with special education needs (LSEN) can be included in mainstream classes. The learners with severe disabilities will be accommodated in vastly improved special schools. The learners who require moderate support will attend full service schools and the learners who need low level intensive support will attend public ordinary schools. The movement towards full service schools necessitates education and support services. These services include education, health and social services and should focus on addressing the locally determined needs for support of learners. Community and parent participation should be mobilised to ensure that all social partners and role players could become part of the process of developing these schools (Department of Education, 2001).

Attitudes, teaching methodologies, the curriculum and the environment need to make allowances to meet the unique needs of all learners. The full service and mainstream schools will need support in addressing these challenges. Therefore, special schools will have to be converted into resource centres and integrated into district-based support teams to provide specialised professional support in curriculum, assessment and instruction to neighbourhood schools, especially 'full-service' schools. This role will be carried out in addition to the services that they provide to their existing learner base (Department of Education, 2001:29). The staff at YCECs will need to assist the schools with managing learners with challenging behaviour.

To ensure that learners are assisted with the barriers to learning they experience, the Directorate of Specialised Education Support Services of the WCED has been established at provincial level.

ii. Specialised Education Support Services

Children deal with a range of, amongst others, social, emotional, psychological and health barriers to learning. The National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training (NCSNET) and the National Committee for Education Support Services (NCESS) (Dept of

Education: 1997a; Rossouw, 1999: 40) reported in November 1997 that the learners experienced socio-economic barriers, discriminatory attitudes, inflexible curriculum and communication problems. The socio-economic barriers that placed learners at risk at the time were a lack of access to basic services, poverty, underdevelopment, alcohol abuse, family violence, child abuse and neglect, teenage pregnancies, political violence, and HIV/AIDS infections. Given the range of barriers to learning experienced by the learners, it is necessary that a range of professionals in teams provide services. These teams include the services of school social workers, psychologists, therapists and learning support educators to assist with addressing of these barriers. Children cannot learn when they are concerned about social problems, feel unsafe, are hungry or feel traumatized.

At school level, the Institutional Level Support Teams (ILSTs) are provided. Support from the district level is provided by members of the Circuit Teams and the district-based support teams. A key responsibility of the district support teams will be to provide curriculum, assessment and instructional support to public adult learning centres and schools. This support will take the form of instructive learning programmes, learning support materials and assessment instruments (Department of Education, 2001c:31). In the Western Cape provision is also made for Circuit Teams (see diagram 3.1 page 113). Allen-Mearns *et al.* (1996) emphasise that educational success is highly unlikely if social supports are not present for children and their families to buffer the consequence of poverty and other social, emotional and psychological problems. In this regard, the school social worker has an important role to fulfil as member of the multidisciplinary team.

The role of the teacher has also changed in terms of the new policies.

2.5.2.4 New teaching approach

In the past, an educator-oriented and content-based teaching approach was followed. This has changed to Outcomes Based Education (OBE) (Fraser, 2007:1). OBE has set a context that, in turn, has influenced teaching practice and teacher identity. OBE in South Africa is partly informed by constructivist theory. This theory is rooted in the research of Piaget, Vygotsky, the *Gestalt* psychologists, Bartlett, Bruner and the philosophy of John Dewey. There is no single constructivist theory of learning but most constructivists are of the opinion that learners are active in constructing information in their own distinctive way and that social interactions are important to knowledge construction (Woolfolk, 2007:344; Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2007:84; Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:3). In terms of this theory teachers cannot simply convey knowledge to learners but must facilitate the process whereby the construction of knowledge occurs (Du Plessis, Conley & Du Plessis, 2007:3). The educator must aid this process of knowledge

construction by making information significant and relevant to learners by way of facilitation. In terms of the constructivist theory learners take on a more active role and work together in pairs and/or groups to achieve the same objective. They must help each other via interface, exchange of ideas and providing direct responses (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:4). The focus of OBE is on learners' abilities and not on what they are able to replicate. For this reason assessment is based on what competencies each learner has really attained. Flexibility in teaching is thus vital (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2007:18).

The National Curriculum framework has an effect on and guides teaching and learning (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:2) and sets the country's educational goals. The National Curriculum Statement (NCS) addresses barriers to learning by setting identical learning outcomes for all learners. Schools must, therefore, arrange teaching and learning in such a way that all learners can attain the outcomes. Any barriers to learning and development need to be recognized and understood in order for learning and assessment to suitably be tailored or personalized. As maintained by Du Plessis *et al.* (2007:43), the designing of the NCS concedes the necessity for much clearer design of subject matter and expertise for each learning area in each grade. The NCS also echoes the values of social justice, human rights, a healthy milieu and inclusiveness and includes Arts and Culture as part of the NCS. Du Plessis, Conley & Du Plessis (2007:47) point out that these principles are linked to following policy documents:

- White Paper on early childhood development (Department of Education 2000h)
- Manifesto on values, education and democracy (Department of Education 2001b)
- National policy on religion and education (Department of Education 2002c)
- South African Qualifications Authority Notice 781 of 2001, Government Gazette Vol. 434 no. 22596 (South African Qualifications Authority, 2001)

2.5.2.5 Promotion of human rights

One of the learning areas implemented to promote human rights, values, health promotion and democracy is Life Orientation (LO) (Rooth, 1997:1). A definition of LO that clarifies the learning area is that it "aims to guide and prepare learners for life and its opportunities. LO equips learners for meaningful and successful living in a rapidly changing and transforming society" (Department of Education, 2002a). LO is concerned with the holistic development of learners and, therefore, the interrelatedness of the learner, others (family, peers) and society is recognised. The goal of LO would be to develop autonomous and independent persons who have acquired, amongst others, problem-solving skills. Eight percent of the learning time is allocated to LO. It is, however, reported that this learning area is not viewed as serious by many educators and seen as an "add on" to the curriculum.

2.5.2.6 Programmes and services in place to address barriers to learning

The range of barriers to learning that children experiences have already been alluded to by the Department of Education. In response to the Department of Education, the Western Cape Education Department has put programmes and services in place to assist these learners in order for them to benefit from the education provided and to access their rights.

The first barrier to learning that children experience is a language barrier.

(a) Language as barrier to learning

The democratic government in South Africa recognizes eleven official languages. The Department of Education's language policy endorses the main beliefs of upholding home language, at the same time making available access to the efficient provision of additional languages. This means that learners have the right to be taught in a language of their choice. When applying for admission, the school must be informed as to the language in which the learner wishes to be taught. The request must be taken into account and the school should work towards multilingualism. This means that language can no longer be used to exclude learners (Department of Education, 1997b).

(b) Abuse as barrier to learning

Another barrier to learning that children can experience is abuse. To ensure the safety of children the Safe Schools project was launched and the Abuse No More protocol developed.

i. The Safe Schools Project

The Safe Schools project was introduced in 1999 as part of the Trisano Implementation Plan. The aim of this project is to establish secure and well-organized learning milieus for children in schools. These learning milieus should commemorate virtue and respect for human worth. The project focuses on, amongst others, improving physical safety at learning sites, mobilising communities to take ownership of schools and developing policies on school security.

The necessity to protect children was reflected in the report of the Department of Social Development (2007:5). Three percent of learners of the Western Cape in the age group twelve to seventeen years reported, during 2005, that they were threatened at school, were hurt or

were scared of being hurt. Learner-on-learner violence occurred frequently. Regarding the availability of drugs twenty percent of learners reported during 2002 that they were either offered drugs on the school premises or that they sold illegal substances at school (Department of Social Development, 2007:5). With this in mind, the Safe Schools Project, in collaboration with the South African Police Services, produced a workbook titled *Signposts to Safe Schools* (completed in 2001). The workbook serves as an orientation for action to be taken by learning sites on a variety of school security subjects, including abuse. All schools were provided with a copy of the workbook during 2002. A teacher's instruction manual on gender equity in education was also developed to ensure that schools develop into girl-friendly sites.

In addition, Safe Schools also established partnerships with the Department of Community Safety and the South African Police services to combat gangsterism and drug abuse (Donald, Dawes & Louw, 2000). They developed an Integrated School Safety Plan and manage a toll free call centre where children can lodge complaints or request assistance. Children who phone for assistance are referred to the school social workers, school psychologists or external service providers for therapeutic intervention.

ii. The Abuse No More Protocol

The main thrust of the Abuse No More Protocol is to manage abuse where the learners are involved. All procedures in this document have a clear educational focus namely prevention, timely intervention and support.

Furthermore in terms of the National Education Policy Act (Act 1996) no person may administer corporal punishment or subject a learner to psychological or physical abuse at any educational institution. The South African Schools Act (Act 84 of 1996) reiterates that the administering of corporal punishment at school is prohibited. It further states that any person who contravenes the subsection is guilty of an offence and liable for conviction.

The manner in which adult-child relationships were previously understood made it legitimate for adults (including educators) to administer physical punishment and in so doing confirming their power relationship with the children. This led to the young persons learning a "range of scripts about their place in society, as well as notions of power, justice and the use of violence to solve problems" (Donald, Dawes & Louw 2000:16). It boiled down to breaking the child's spirit of wilfulness so that he/she would become compliant (Miller as cited by Senge *et al.*, 2000:37).

The abolishment of corporal punishment in schools meant that the relationship between adult (staff) and learner was radically reframed. In this regard, cultural and religious arguments for the use of corporal punishment are often raised (Tafa, 2002:17; Dobson, 2002:62). Religious perspectives, for example, include the stance that by “sparing the rod” adults are spoiling the child and not acting in the child’s best interests. There is also the opinion that child abuse will increase as a result of the abolishment of physical punishment as aggravated adults will explode because of a lack of suitable responses to their children’s challenging behaviour. There is also the concern that adults could turn to emotional abuse, which could be even worse for the children (Dobson, 2002:37).

The abolishment of corporal punishment was contested in the Constitutional Court by the Christian Education South Africa (2000(4) SA757cc) as the parents of learners in independent schools who, in line with their religious convictions, had consented to the use of corporal punishment in schools their children attended. They argued that their religious freedom, guaranteed by Subsection 15 and 31 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, had been infringed. The court decided in favour of the Minister of Education as it felt that the legislation was in line with international laws such as the CRC and upheld the legislation outlawing corporal punishment in schools as well as institutions such as correctional facilities.

Despite this legislation, 56% of Western Cape learners between the ages of twelve and seventeen years reported during 2005 that educators and principals administered corporal punishment (Department of Social Development, 2007:4). Often the reason given by educators is that they were not equipped to use alternative disciplinary measures. This was despite the fact that a booklet titled *Alternatives to corporal punishment: the learning experience* was distributed to all schools in 2001 by the National Department of Education. In this booklet a distinction is made between discipline and punishment. It states that discipline depend on positive, remedial, rights-based approaches. These programmes are discussed in chapter 4.

A third barrier to learning that children might experience is hunger.

(c) Hunger as barrier to learning

The National School Nutrition Programme (NSNP) was launched as a Presidential Lead Project of the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) in September 1994 (Richter, Griesel & Rose, 2000:75). It was acknowledged that a hungry child cannot learn and, therefore, provision was made for a meal to poverty-stricken learners on a daily basis during the school term. The programme was initially managed by the Department of Health but was transferred to the Department of Education during 2003. In the Western Cape Province, 344 000 learners

from 992 schools benefit from the NSNP. The menu options include three hot meals and one cold meal. Food gardens were also cultivated by 251 schools (Swart, 2008).

The findings of a research project showed that children who were introduced to a school-breakfast programme were better able to concentrate in class and presented with less challenging behaviour than was previously the case. The videotaped observations were that children became more energetic, more willing to participate and focus on the task at hand after they were included in the nutrition programme (Richter, Griesel & Rose, 2000: 85).

It is therefore clear that there is a co-ordinated effort to provide children and youth with basic nutrition.

Another possible barrier to learning for children is health problems.

(d) Health problems as barrier to learning

The Department of Education is also responsible for promoting learners' health via Life Orientation (LO). Health promotion is one of the five core areas of Life Orientation (LO), a learning area of Outcomes Based Education (OBE). The aim is to teach children values and attitudes needed for a healthy and balanced lifestyle. In life skills education, health and well-being are seen as holistic concepts of physical, cognitive, emotional, social, moral and spiritual development (UNICEF, 2004 as cited by Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2007:27). Life skills education is thus essential to health promotion and to the Health Promoting Schools strategy (Department of Education, 2002a).

2.6 CONCLUSION

Major changes in education policies have asked for staff members to make mind shifts and to adapt their way of rendering services to children and youth. These changes include, but are not limited to, (1) moving from a segregated to an integrated education system, (2) moving from a teacher oriented to a learner oriented teaching approach (OBE), (3) moving from categorizing children to assessing the levels of support required by them, (4) from applying a medical model to service delivery to following a developmental, strengths-based model, and (5) moving from focusing on within-child contributing factors to acknowledging the impact of the ecology of the child (school, the family and the community). In addition, staff must follow a restorative approach to discipline instead of a punitive approach.

The main changes speak to the importance of staff (1) rendering services as part of a multi-disciplinary team, (2) developing individualised treatment plans for learners, and (3) providing programmes and services from a children's rights perspective. These aspects are discussed in the next three chapters.

CHAPTER 3

THE SHIFT FROM WORKING IN SILOS TO FOLLOWING A TEAMWORK APPROACH IN SERVICE RENDERING

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In accordance with changed child and youth policies, staff that work in child and youth care residential settings must work not only within the children's rights framework but also in team context, rendering services to the service users. Moving from following a silo approach to working collaboratively requires that staff change their behaviour and often, to some extent, their principles or perspectives (Maginn, 2007:91). The extent of the impact of the changes on team members can only be understood once there is a clearer understanding of (1) the description of teamwork, (2) the various teamwork models, (3) the value of working in teams, (4) the phases of team development, and (5) the social and task factors of team functioning. These are the focus in this chapter.

3.2 TEAMWORK

3.2.1 Descriptions of teamwork

Descriptions of teams usually concentrate on five main features of teams namely membership, setting of the team, task factors, social factors and leadership.

3.2.1.1 Team membership

Team membership is referred to as a group of people who cooperate in some way (Stewart *et al.*, 1999:3), as people who do something jointly (Robbins & Finley, 2000:17), and as a small number of people with complementary skills (Harvard Business Essentials, 2004:2, 10). Team members also display a high degree of interdependence (Parker, 1996:16; Cohen & Bailey, 1997 as cited by Kohn & O'Connell, 2007:42; Canadian Health Services Research Foundation, 2006:iv). Members of teams see themselves and are seen by others as a team (Stewart *et al.*, 1999:3). Furthermore, membership stability over a reasonable period of time is deemed to be an essential element of teams (Hackman, n.d. as cited by Harvard Business Essentials, 2004:4).

3.2.1.2 Team setting

The team works within a larger social system (Stewart *et al.*, 1993:3 and Cohen & Bailey, 1997 as cited by Kohn & O'Connell, 2007:42) and needs to be structured (Aranda *et al.*, 1998:2) in such a

way that they can effectively collaborate. The team is greatly affected by the wider system (Watkins & Marsick, 1993:116, 117). This refers to the need for organisations / institutions to adapt their structure to accommodate teamwork.

3.2.1.3 Task factors

Team members are responsible for working on a shared task (Procter & Mueller, 2000:63) with a common goal (Partridge, 2007a:2; Morris *et al.*, 2000:92) and delivering a well-defined output (Procter & Mueller, 2000:63). They are held equally accountable (Cohen & Bailey, 1997 as cited by Kohn & O'Connell, 2007a:42; Harvard Business Essentials, 2004:3, 10; Canadian Health Services Research Foundation, 2006:iv). They are "assigned specific roles or functions to perform dynamically, interdependently, and adaptively toward a common and valued goal, object, and mission" (Salas, 1992 as cited by Johnson *et al.*, 2007:437). Teams are often expected to execute cognitively complex tasks, such as evaluation, assessment of circumstances, and drawing up of plans (Cooke *et al.*, 2000 as cited by Johnson *et al.*, 2007:437). This they do by sharing their individual abilities and energies. Kohn & O'Connell (2007:33) writes that the team members "aggregate expertise into one, single, collective effort". In order to reach the goals the team members must execute tasks that affect others, for example, service users. An example of this is the development of individualised plans for service users.

3.2.1.4 Social factors

Team members manage the relationship across the system (institution) and advance and organize multi-skilling (Katzenbach and Smith as cited by Kohn and O'Connell, 2007: 42; Partridge, 2007a: 42). They cooperate with each other (Harvard Business Essentials (2004: 3), combine their vigour, incentive, knowledge and expertise (Hayes, 2002: 27-28; Partridge, 2007a: 2), show consideration for the activities of others and spend time together with the purpose of expanding their effort (Payne, 2002: 10). This is the case when the team is effective otherwise problematic relationships can cause a barrier to service delivery.

3.2.1.5 Leadership

Teams have to be developed and sustained by a team leader (Morris et al., 2000) who manages by clearly defined authority (Hackman (unknown) as cited by Harvard Business Essentials, 2004: 4). Definitions do not, however, refer to the need for both the team leader (leader within the team) and the external leader.

Table 3.1 illustrates the elements that determine a team's success.

Table 3.1: Elements of successful teams

SENGE (1999)	OGLETREE ET AL., (2001:143-144)	BELL AS CITED IN CARDNO, 2002	HAYES, 2002	HARVARD BUSINESS ESSENTIALS, 2004:13	ATKINSON ET AL., 2001 AS CITED BY ANNING ET AL., 2007	KOHN & O'CONNELL 2007	ANNING ET AL., 2007	MILLER, 2008
SHARED VISION	Common purpose	Common purpose	Clear direction. Clear sense of themselves as a special group	Clear goals aligned with key organisational goals	Clear focus with common aims		Clear focus on objectives and common goals	Commitment to a shared agreed goal ("desired result")
PERSONAL MASTERY AND TEAM LEARNING	Support Trust Good leadership	Agreed upon procedures		Enabling structure and supportive environment		Building team trust	Clear Leadership	Learned Development as a team
AWARENESS OF MENTAL MODELS	Mission statement that reflects common purpose, goals and philosophy	Shared perceptions	Cultivation and negotiation of positive assumptions and beliefs among its members			Establishing and regulating team norms. Expanding team self awareness		

SENGE (1999)	OGLETREE ET AL., (2001:143- 144)	BELL AS CITED IN CARDNO, 2002	HAYES, 2002	HARVARD BUSINESS ESSENTIALS, 2004:13	ATKINSON ET AL., 2001 AS CITED BY ANNING ET AL., 2007	KOHN & O'CONNELL 2007	ANNING ET AL., 2007	MILLER, 2008
SYSTEMS THINKING					Lateral thinking		How the team relates to the world beyond	

From the information reflected in table 3.1 it is evident that the disciplines of organisational learning, as developed by Senge (1999), are also referred to by other authors as contributing to successful teams, albeit in different words. Shared vision is referred to as a shared mission, a shared perception, adherence to organisational goals and the desired result. Personal mastery and team learning are seen in terms of support and maximising of opportunity to learn from each other in team context as well as developing the competence of each team member. Mental models are referred to as working towards shared perceptions, articulating differences and exploring alternatives, and expanding both self-awareness and team self-awareness. Only two of the researchers refer to the importance of systems thinking. They refer to lateral thinking and understanding of how the team relates to the outside world.

One of the elements of teamwork that is deemed to be crucial for its success is the commitment of team members. This alludes to the importance for team members to be convinced of the value of teamwork. If this is not the case they could view the shift to working in teams as a bureaucratic demand as opposed to an aid to effective practice and, therefore, not beneficial to them. It is also true that working in teams present both opportunities and challenges to staff. Firstly, the arguments for the value of teamwork are explored.

3.2.2 The value of teamwork

The main arguments for the value of teamwork are reported to be improved service delivery and outcome for service users, and the continuity of services. Working in teams also contributes to team members' greater ability to adapt to changed circumstances and enhanced service delivery due to the input from external service providers. Team members generally enjoy improved well-being as well as creativity and fun are increased within the team context.

3.2.2.1 Improved service delivery and outcomes for service users

Improved service delivery and outcomes for service users are of importance. This is especially true for children, as various policy documents stress the fact that their best interests should be paramount when rendering services to them. Professionals require one another's varied perspectives to understand the needs of service users (Ogletree, Bull, Drew & Lunnan, 2001:138; Schmalensee, 2001:73). This enables professionals to deal with the complexity of the work with high-risk service users (Wheelan, 1999:2; Morris, Willcocks & Knasel, 2000:97; Maxwell, 2001:5; Marsh, 2006:151; Anning, Cottrell, Frost, Green & Robinson, 2007:4., Thomson, 2007:278; Kumar & Parkinson, 2008:320). They are also then able to increase the alignment of their efforts (Michalski, 1998:26; Canadian Health Services Research Services Foundation, 2006:17). Decisions made within the group generate questions, thoughts, and

assessments about how to best serve the service user (West, 2004:199) as well as produce the buy-in among team members regarding the implementation of decisions (Harvard Business Essentials, 2004:8) and produce higher quality decisions.

Owing to daily interactions and shared experiences of members of the team new knowledge is created in team context (also referred to as “communities of practice”) (Wenger, 1998 as cited by Anning *et al.*, 2007:10; Katzenbach & Smith, 1993 as cited by Roberts & Pruitt, 2003:72; Harvard Business Essentials, 2004:8). Working in teams generally leads to improved practice outcomes / quality of care for service users such as children (Hayes, 2002:1; Canadian Health Research Foundation, 2006; Kohn & O’Connell, 2007:33; James & Connolly, 2000:8 as cited by Connolly & James, 2006:70; Mertens, Flowers & Mulhall, 1999 as cited by Clark & Clark, 2006:53). Working in teams also leads to a reduction in overlap of services (Anning *et al.*, 2007:4).

It is therefore clear that teamwork is required when multifaceted assessments are indicated. Within the team, professionals can synchronize their work and acquire a diversity of knowledge and expertise in order to render effective services to service users. An example of this is the focus of the various professionals when rendering services in line with their discipline’s theoretical frameworks. The educator focuses on teaching and learning in the classroom, the social worker addresses social and emotional issues, and the psychologist addresses psychological and behavioural issues.

3.2.2.2 Continuity of services

The continuity of services is ensured within team context. When a team member leaves, the information that has been shared with the other team members can be retained (West, 2004) providing individual learning had been converted into team learning (Senge, 1999: 4). This highlights the necessity that professionals working in teams not keep information potentially of value to co-team workers to themselves. Continuity of services is further enhanced owing to higher levels of commitment and involvement from staff and decrease in staff turnover and absenteeism (Hayes, 2002:4; West, 2004:9, 10; Conradie, 2008:2a).

3.2.2.3 Greater ability to adapt to changed circumstances

A greater ability to adapt to changing circumstances is exhibited. By working parallel and interdependently team members can work faster and more effectively than working in sequence (West, 2004). They can also respond quicker to the changing environment (Cohen & Bailey, 1997 as referred to by West, 2004; Wheelan, 1999:3; Crowther *et al.*, 2000; Retalick & Fink,

2002 as cited by Silins & Mulford, 2002). This means that they can bring their different perspectives to bear on the problem and embark on team learning (Roberts & Pruitt, 2003:22) that is necessary for effective team functioning (Senge, 1999:10) and effective service delivery.

3.2.2.4 Input from external service providers

Input is received from external service providers. Co-opted (“peripheral”) members in teams, such as designated social workers who render reconstruction services to the families of the learners in residential care, can act as so-called “change agents”. They bring an additional perspective to the team as they are in touch with different points of view *within* and *outside* the team (Wenger, 1998:119). These points of view relate, amongst others, to the neighbourhood influences to which the child is subjected, the composition of his/her family, the dynamics within the family, as well as family strengths and challenges. Designated social workers can also benefit from the information shared by the team regarding the progress made by the service user, in this case the child, and further needs that have to be addressed. This ensures that internal and external service providers are on the same page when planning and rendering services or programmes for children and their families.

3.2.2.5 Improved staff well-being

Improved staff well-being is experienced when the burden of decision-making is shared in terms of service delivery, support for staff, opportunities for personal growth and development, greater sense of efficiency, and decreased stress levels (Hayes, 2002:4; Roberts & Pruitt, 2003:72; Huxham, 1996 as cited by Connolly & James, 2006:77; Wagner *et al.*, 2006:75). In addition, working collaboratively could lead to an increased sense of involvement, belonging, interdependence and ownership (Michalski, 1998:26, 96; Kohn & O’Connell, 2007:26) as well as improved fulfilment and appreciation of roles amongst professionals (Swinth & Hanft, 2002:13; Chansler & Schraeder, 2003 as cited by Töremen & Karakus, 2007:640; Flowers, Mertens & Mulhall, 1999 as cited by Clark & Clark, 2006:53). Staff well-being will, in turn, lead to improved services to service users.

3.2.2.6 Increased creativity and enjoyment

Increased creativity and innovation (Parker, 1996:9; Michalski, 1998:26; Morris *et al.*, 2000:96; West, 2004:10) as well as enjoyment, fun and effectiveness in individual members (Nash, 1999:98; Jefferies & Chan, 2004:210; Katzenbach & Smith, 1993 as cited by Roberts & Pruitt, 2003; Kohn & O’Connell, 2007:33) can be the result of working in teams.

3.3 TEAMWORK MODELS

Amongst other factors, the success of teamwork will depend on the type of team chosen. This choice of team type, in turn, will depend on the preferences of those involved, the nature of the work that has to be done and the kind of organisation in which they are involved (Lewis, 1975 as cited by Payne, 2002:7). The special needs of the target group served (Brooke & Welton, 2003:13) will further contribute to this decision. The team model followed can enable or pose a barrier to service delivery. In Table 3.2 the six team types indicated by Conradie (2008:2-16) are presented in terms of their purpose, membership, advantages and disadvantages.

PROCESS TEAMS	SELF-DIRECTED/SELF MANAGED TEAMS	VIRTUAL TEAMS	PROJECT TEAMS	QUALITY CIRCLES	CROSS-FUNCTIONAL TEAMS
<p><u>Advantages:</u></p> <p>Easy to set up, everyone reports to the same administrative structure, and minimal co-ordination is required</p>	<p><u>Advantages:</u></p> <p>The capacity of the team to become accustomed and meet the requirements of fast changing surroundings</p>	<p><u>Advantages:</u></p> <p>Efficiency, cost-sensitive, value-based, decentralised and adaptable to always altering demands on the business surroundings</p>	<p><u>Advantages:</u></p> <p>Simple and quick to set up a project team, draft up a project plan with targets, decide on a financial plan and get the team underway</p>	<p><u>Advantages:</u></p> <p>Can lead to enormous operational development providing team functions well</p>	<p><u>Advantages:</u></p> <p>Move to an integrated approach to service delivery as opposed to working in silos</p>
<p><u>Set up</u> for a particular manufactured goods or production process</p>	<p><u>Set up</u> for a project of a broad range of work to be achieved</p>	<p><u>Set up</u> to cross time zones, distances and confines of organisations</p>	<p><u>Set up</u> in the interim or for a set period of time</p>	<p><u>Set up</u> to meet frequently to analyse and work out problems regarding product and process quality</p>	<p><u>Set up</u> to work on a well-defined assignment with their function spanning numerous business components / units within the organisation</p>

PROCESS TEAMS	SELF-DIRECTED/SELF MANAGED TEAMS	VIRTUAL TEAMS	PROJECT TEAMS	QUALITY CIRCLES	CROSS-FUNCTIONAL TEAMS
<p><u>Disadvantages:</u></p> <p>Senior management must approve proposed changes and minimal co-ordination is required</p>	<p><u>Disadvantages:</u></p> <p>Does not have to get authorisation from senior executive – may lead to them feeling threatened and lack of shared trust between them and other teams</p>	<p><u>Disadvantages:</u></p> <p>Calls for a very specific kind of team member – cautious consideration of inclusion of a person in the team is therefore crucial</p>	<p><u>Disadvantages:</u></p> <p>Focus is lost when a project is recognized within the project (for both team or management)</p>	<p><u>Disadvantages:</u></p> <p>Small groups that typically get concerned with cross-functional matters, which limits the possible impact on their immediate surroundings</p>	<p><u>Disadvantages:</u></p> <p>Team members are obligated to their own subdivisions and cannot do much without obtaining endorsement, which limits resourcefulness and originality</p>

Table 3.2 **Types of teams**

The functions dictate the number of members that will be part of the team. Senior management teams focus on promoting values, policy and direction. Task force teams put into place practice specific plans for dealing with problematic situations or opportunities. Quality circles work on specific quality, output and service challenges, identifying weaknesses that need to be rectified (Hayes, 2002:11). Self-managed work teams meet on a daily basis to execute a whole work process. Virtual teams consist of members who have complementary competencies executing concurrent, collaborative work processes and bringing geographically separate service providers together around specific assignments (Harvard Business Essentials, 2004:5). Project teams have a small number of members, share complementary skills, have a common purpose and performance goals, and are guided by project plans and schedules (Kohn & O'Connell, 2007:46). The disadvantages and advantages of these types of teams are set out in the table.

Cross-functional teams are normally the team of choice when it comes to services to children and families as they bring sections of the institution together so that they can make decisions encompassing the whole system. These teams can take on the form of multidisciplinary teams, interdisciplinary teams or transdisciplinary teams.

3.3.1 Multidisciplinary Teams

Within the multidisciplinary team various professionals from different disciplines (such as educators, psychologists and social workers) make independent assessments and develop programmes (Tilstone, Florian & Rose, 1998:219-132; Phillips, Goodwin & Heron, 1999:92; Ogletree *et al.*, 2001:139; Porter, 2002:16; Soan, 2006:16; Porter & Lacey, 2005:148-155). In practice this means that the assessment of a learner is done individually by each professional and that the completed assessments are sent to the case manager. Professionals generally do not meet for a joint discussion regarding the implementation of the recommendations and the support to be provided to the educator (Lacey & Lomas, 1993 as cited by Swart & Phasa, 2007).

The advantage of the multidisciplinary team is that the combined expertise of a range of professionals delivers comprehensive care to the individual (Porter 2002:1; Soan 2006:16; Porter & Lacey 2005:148). It is also convenient and effective (Ogletree *et al.*, 2001:140).

The disadvantages of this model, however, include the unequal responsibility of the team members, excluding parents and youth in decision-making procedures, inadequate communication, disproportionate authority of the team leader to other members' authority, and the fact that the team leader prescribes team behaviour (Ogletree, Bull, Drew & Lunnen 2001:140). Inadequate communication and cooperation can result in the different professionals following discipline-specific goals that, in turn, can produce a network of loosely related goals that make care seem fractioned.

3.3.2 Interdisciplinary Teams

The interdisciplinary team comprise professionals from several disciplines who meet and share their findings with parents and one another after which they integrate these findings to produce a combined assessment and programme design. The responsibility of implementing the findings, however, lies solely with each professional. Skilful interdisciplinary functioning can reduce the number of visits for children and parents and the need to repeat information (Brooke & Welton, 2003:14).

A case manager is responsible for pulling together the input and facilitating assessments. Team members then share and talk about results candidly in an endeavour to produce the most accurate description of the child's abilities and needs. (Ogletree *et al.*, 2001:140). Given the fact that the interdisciplinary team model makes provision for child and family participation as well as an integrated approach to service delivery, it could be a more suitable model for rendering an integrated service in terms of the policy requirements within the child and youth care setting (Kochhar, West & Taymans, 2000:7; Ogletree *et al.*, 2001:141; Porter 2002:16; Soan, 2006:16). Time commitments are also viewed to be reasonable and cost effective (Ogletree *et al.*, 2001:141).

3.3.3 Transdisciplinary Teams

The transdisciplinary team makes provision for a shift from individual specialist intervention to a more integrative approach. Team members work jointly from an equal position, teach one another, and are able to cross disciplinary boundaries (Ogletree *et al.*, 2001:141). The team differs from the other models in that it typically provides indirect services. The educator and/or parent have to provide direct services to the learner, with other team members, such as the occupational therapist, functioning

primarily as consultants (Sandler, 1997:164-167). The services are therefore extended to the home or other settings outside the treatment centres.

The model makes provision for assessment of and programming for service providers between team members and parents across disciplinary boundaries. According to Ogletree *et al.* (2001:141), this team model is perceived as family-centred and family-friendly, and is usually implemented when there is a shortage of staff. Factors influencing the decision as to the most appropriate model will depend on the situation within the organisation / institution, the availability of staff, the setting in which the work has to be done, and the commitment of the various professionals to working in teams. Irrespective of the team model followed by the members of the team, they will not immediately be ready and able to perform their tasks in team context. They will have to go through phases of team development to reach this point. Each phase of team development should address the needs of team members at that particular phase. If this does not happen, the team will never really reach the stage of performing its tasks effectively.

3.4 PHASES OF TEAM DEVELOPMENT

Tuckman (1965) found that the team goes through four phases of development: forming (getting together), storming (fighting over territory in the group), norming (coming to general agreement on how the group should work), and performing (getting on with sharing work without worrying too much about relationships in the group) (West, 2004:29, 30; Kohn & O'Connell, 2007:59-61; Conradie, 2008a). Each phase in this process presents a specific set of challenges to the leader and members alike. Team members need assistance to move through these phases by dealing with the primary concerns as they arise (Partridge, 2007a:22).

3.4.1 Forming or Orientation Phase

During the forming or orientation phase members are not yet clear about the purpose and goals of the team and there is "considerable anxiety". Leaders must, therefore, answer many questions (Kohn & O'Connell, 2007:59) that normally focus on expectations of team members, resources, capacity and communication (Partridge, 2007a:20). They also want to know more about the other team members. When pertaining to leadership roles, the first phase is referred to as the "dependency and

inclusion phase” (Wheelan, 1999:24-27). At this phase of team development, the team members need to shed light on why the team exists, what value it adds to the institution (target group service) and what is vital for them to accomplish. In the case of the child and youth care settings this will be the development of the individualised plan for each child. The team members also want to know what assistance can be expected from the leader.

3.4.2 Storming Phase

During the storming phase conflict emerges between individuals and sub-groups (Michalski, 1998:18; Nash, 1999:237). Although the members recognise the need for the existence of the team, they tend to oppose the restrictions that the team inflicts on their independence. This has been reportedly true for staff that has been working very independently and prefers it that way. Conflict regarding who must be in charge of the team also surfaces and decisions are not reached effortlessly (Kohn & O’Connell, 2007:60). Members often embark on “fight or flight’ behaviour during this phase. This means that they either go against authority or leave the team. At times they remain in the team but focus on issues that are beside the point in order to create a distraction from a discussion. A number of members opt for forming cliques within the teams. This phase is also termed “counter dependency and fight phase” (Wheelan, 1999:24-27). At the end of the phase members gained a better understanding of the hierarchy of leadership within the team (Bergh & Theron, 2005:237). In this regard, Edmonson of the Harvard Business School (as cited by Wagner *et al.*, 2006:69) is of the opinion that the strongest forecaster of genuine engagement in the team is the level of psychological security and trust experienced by the team members.

During this phase the leader’s choices, authority and competency are challenged. For the most part, however, the leader is seen as benevolent and competent, and he or she is expected and encouraged to provide members with direction and personal safety.

3.4.3 Norming Phase

Norming occurs when close relationships develop and the team expresses cohesiveness and a keen sense of group identity and team spirit (Michalski, 1998:18; Nash, 1999:237; Kohn & O’Connell, 2007:60). Rules are laid down in open or implicit ways. When the group structure solidifies, and teams have incorporated a shared set of

expectations of what constitutes appropriate member behaviour, this phase is completed (Bergh & Theron, 2005:237). Appropriate team behaviour would be related to attendance of meetings, interruptions, staying focussed on issues relating to the discussion, confidentiality, and points of reference (Harvard Business Essentials, 2004:62).

It must be kept in mind that norming is a process that is directed by individual and social factors (Kohn & O'Connell, 2007:148). This phase is characterised by orientation, testing and dependence (Kohn & O'Connell, 2007:60) as well as agreeing on the ground rules for operation. This demarcating of correct social behaviours contributes to behaviour becoming more predictable (Partridge, 2007a:21). The leader's role becomes less directive and more consultative. The team seeks to free itself from its dependence on the leader and assumes many of the roles that were the domain of the leader during earlier phases.

3.4.4 Performing Phase

At the performing phase the team is fully functional and members accept the team. Whereas the focus was previously on getting to know and understand one another, this stage is about performing the imminent task. Roles are evaluated in terms of their functionality to the task and there is openness to being more flexible. For permanent teams this is the last phase of team development (Bergh & Theron, 2005:237).

It is, therefore, clear that team members go through phases of dependency, conflict, trust and structuring, work and disengagement. During all the phases of team development two factors of team functioning, task factors and social factors, remain very important in various degrees. The team can only be effective if support for both these factors is provided. Support for the team generally includes support from the management, formal systems to manage the change (team work approach), and strong leadership.

3.5 SUPPORTS FOR THE TEAM

3.5.1 Support from Management

Management is responsible for providing clear service delivery targets for teams as well as adequate implementation capacity (Braganza, 2001:31) and funding (Crossley &

Corbyn, 2006:102; Soan, 2006:214). To function effectively the team needs resources, reliable information, training, regular feedback and technical support (Hayes, 2002:172). Furthermore, they require sufficient capacity and time allocation to render the mandated services (McCartney, 1999:438; Valentine, Clark, Hackmann & Petzko, 2004 as cited by Clark & Clark, 2006:54; Soan, 2006:214; Wildeman & Nomdo, 2007:1). When this support is not offered teams are “launched in a vacuum” (Conradie, 2008a:3). Management support (top-down support) alone is not adequate. Support, in the form of commitment, from staff (bottom-up support) must also be enlisted in order to ensure effective teamwork (Mcleskey & Waldron, 2002:65, 66). In addition, there must be interface between the policy that mandates teamwork and the institutional structures in order to facilitate change (Plunkett, 1996 and Robins & Finley, 1995 as cited by Roberts & Pruitt, 2003:72).

3.5.2 Formal Systems to Manage Change

Institutions traditionally worked within highly defined departmental and divisional structures. For the teamwork approach to succeed, the necessary structural changes need to be effected (Senge, Heifetz & Tobert, 1999:57). These changes should promote a greater degree of autonomy, including contribution, decision-making, designation / delegation, and distributive leadership. According to Frost (2005 as cited by Anning, Cottrell, Frost, Green & Robinson 2007:46), this alludes to the necessity that the institutional structure should make sure that all team members are “line-managed” and have their work synchronized with that of other members of the team. Formal structures for the capacity building of staff and cooperation with other organisations must also be in place. This relates to the importance of systems thinking.

When deciding on an appropriate institutional structure to facilitate teamwork, three main structures need to be considered, namely the functional structure, the divisional structure, and the matrix structure (Lewis, Lewis, Packard & Souflee, 2001: 110; Canadian Health Services Research Foundation, 2006:i).

3.5.2.1 The functional structure

Within the functional structure, different domains, such as personnel, administration or finance, are usually referred to as functions (Langer, Alfirevic & Pavicic, 2005:127). In residential childcare settings the different domains are usually administration, education,

residential education and support staff. The strength of the structure is its simplicity, low cost (Draft, 2001:97-100), routinised functions, and the prevention of duplication of effort. The disadvantage is that persons are so focused on their particular functions that they lose sight of the shared objective of the organisation as a whole and clients are treated in a fragmented way. An example of this is when the social worker concentrates on social- and emotional issues, the psychologist on psychological and behavioural issues, and the educator on aspects pertaining to teaching and learning to such an extent that they lose sight of the need to follow a holistic approach to service delivery.

3.5.2.2 The divisional structure

Divisional structures organise their agencies according to clients (nature of the target group) or geographical areas. This leads to services being rendered in compartments, for instance services to “drug dependent persons”. Departments are usually referred to as divisions and are often labelled as “organisations within a larger organisation” (Langer, Alfirevic & Pavicic, 2005:127). This structure is reportedly more responsive to the needs of the service users than the functional structure (Langer, Alfirevic & Pavicic, 2005:127).

3.5.2.3 The matrix structure

Lewis et al. (2001: 110); Moller, 2002 as cited by Moller (2007:32) describe the matrix structure as the most complex and formal way to ensure high levels of integration within an organisation. In this instance, individual staff members form part of their customary grouping or discipline within the organisation (in this case the institution) but they also work in teams across disciplines. These team members bring to the process resources, perspectives and knowledge, which together act as a means for change and improvement (Dettmer *et al.*, 1996). The matrix structure would be the most suitable structure for teamwork in an institution such as the YCEC. However, a shift from the traditional, hierarchical institutional / organisational structure to a team-based institution is very complicated and costly (Gortner, Mahler & Nicholson, 1997:100) and requires more than simply “reshuffling chains of authority” (Hayes, 2002:23). The cross-functional activities lead to dual reporting lines and cause confusion and conflict amongst staff members. The shift in institutional structure will unavoidably require a far-reaching change of attitude on the part of all staff members (Braganza, 2001:4).

When considering an appropriate structure it must be taken into consideration that emphasising teamwork necessitates flattening management hierarchies (Pedler *et al.*, 1996 as cited by Reeves & Boreham, 2006:469). However, Sadler (2001:422) is of the opinion that organisational structure might not be as important as organisational (in this case institutional) culture. The rationale behind this reasoning is that organisations progressively cultivate a culture. If a culture is typified by an avoidance of risk taking, an innate respect for the conventional chain of command and bureaucratic (procedural) rules, the first brief facing the leaders will be to transform the culture (Sadler, 2001:422) before changing the structure. If this does not happen, the chances are slim that teamwork will succeed.

For a team to work effectively in a new paradigm, the management must embark on institutional restructuring in view of enabling teamwork. Team-based work necessitates members' willingness to share information and collaborate across institutional boundaries. This is not encouraged in a rigid hierarchical structure but rather in a matrix structure that moves away from the silo approach. Once the structure is in place, the principal or institutional leader must make policy declarations regarding the significance of teamwork for the institution and the departmental heads must urge their staff to support teamwork. For it to prove effective, each member of the staff must ultimately buy into this new way of working.

3.5.3 Leadership

Two levels of leadership are needed in teams, namely that of the institutional leader – who leads from outside the team (also referred to as an “executive sponsor” by Harvard Business Essentials, 2004:27) and the team leader – who leads within the team.

3.5.3.1 The institutional leader

The institutional leader must provide the link between the team and other parts of the organisation (Aranda *et al.*, 1998:40). He/she should set the tone for change (Sharmer, 2002:16) but can only do so if his/her own sentiments, motivation and beliefs (mental models) about change, in general, and the specific change at hand have been considered (Maginn, 2007:5). The institutional leader must ensure that he/she acquires the knowledge required to manage change effectively (Lencioni, 2002 as cited by Clark

& Clark, 2006:56). Therefore, the organisation or institution can only change direction if the leader changes (Maxwell, 2007:132).

Once the leader has bought into the change, he/she must enlist the staff's commitment to the new direction by assisting them to understand the political realities of the issues and resolutions under discussion (Scharmer, 2002:21). He/she must also ensure that the team members understand where they fit into the greater vision of the organisation and what the goals (Partridge, 2007a:30) as well as the performance expectations are. The leader must "provide a bridge from the old way of doing things to new work practices" (Maginn, 2007:2). In order to do this effectively, the leader must "project energy, be involved and empower others, assist the evolution of change and persuade and persevere" (Robbins & Finley, 2000:101-103). The leader must also be able to lead both the cognitive and emotional sides of change (Rosen, 2008:42).

Subsequently, conditions must be created to enable the team to do its job. These conditions entail building and maintaining the team as a performing unit as well as coaching and supporting the team to success (Ogletree *et al.*, 2001:144; Hackman, 2002 as cited by West, 2004:49). In addition to this, the team must be assisted to identify their resource needs and the necessary provisions must be made. It is important for the institutional leader to explore and assess ways of enhancing team functioning by building the capacity of the staff. This includes considering reward systems that balance individual and team success in order to encourage collaboration (Harvard Business Essentials, 2004:22). Institutional leaders function within a range of teams. Manager-led teams are at the one end of the continuum and self-led teams at the other. In manager-led teams the success of the team is seen as the responsibility of the manager and, therefore, he/she exerts as much control as possible over the team process. Members of self-led teams share the responsibility for accomplishing the team's purpose. The leader must provide direction but must not interfere with the team's "ownership of purpose and process" (Aranda *et al.*, 1998:37, 39).

3.5.3.2 The team leader

According to Aranda *et al.*, (1998:37), the team leader must find ways of directing team members and developing team processes to accommodate the development of organisational teams. The team leader's responsibilities therefore includes providing a structure for the team's activities, keeping a clear vision, directing activities, representing

the teams to others, arbitrating conflicts, identifying required resources, laying down targets, and ensuring that every professional participates in team processes and gains by working collaboratively (Harvard Business Essentials, 2004:29). Provision must also be made for team development (Aranda *et al.*, 1998:42). Leadership within a team will not be constant. The decision as to who functions as leader should be determined by the challenge at hand. For example, if a team, tasked with rendering services to a child, finds that the child's main need is trauma debriefing; the psychologist would be the right person to lead the team. In a case where the main concern centres on the child's social circumstances, the school social worker should act as leader.

The institutional leader and team leader have different roles to play during the various phases of team development, as these phases require different kinds of leadership during the process. Agreement needs to be reached about line management responsibilities, the coordination of the work of the team and professional supervision and support. It is evident that team members should be provided with the opportunities to be successful in the work they do and eventually become members of self-led teams. The institutional leader's prominence will be less pronounced in later phases of team development and the role of the team leader will become more important.

As much as leaders can facilitate successful change (in this case effective team functioning) they can also cause a barrier to the team (Moller, 2007:36). It is often due to the fact that they follow a particular leadership approach. The question arises as to the leadership approach to which a leader will need to adhere in order to ensure an effective team-based institution. It is of importance to discuss these approaches and to evaluate which leadership approach is the most effective when it comes to the implementation of changed policy, in general, and teamwork in particular.

3.5.4 Leadership Approaches

Schwella (2007:26, 27) refers to the following five main approaches of leadership: the traits or characteristics of the leadership approach; the behavioural approach; the situational approach; the transformational approach; and the social learning approach.

3.5.4.1 Traits or characteristics of leadership approach

In terms of the traits or characteristics of leadership approach, leaders are born with charisma (Hayes, 2002:93). There has, however, been a growing notion that charisma is overrated and it is referred to as a “blunt and somewhat inflexible weapon” (Wheelan, 1999:73; Morris, Wilcocks & Knasel, 2000:17). Leadership is much more often about resourcefulness than about having charisma (Morris, Wilcocks & Knasel, 2000:9). It has frequently been established that the leader with so-called charisma often exercises leadership very well in one situation but is unsuccessful in the next, even with the same skill set and the same knowledge (Senge, Heifetz & Tobert, 1999:58). An example of this is where the leader is task-orientated and not able to deal with the social factors of teamwork.

The level of Emotional Intelligence (EQ) of the organisational leadership has, however, been found to contribute to successful leadership (Bergh & Theron, 2005:145). EQ is described by Goleman (1998 as cited by Miller, 2008:26) as “the capacity for recognising our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships”. These qualities would be of value to the leader to give direction and purpose to the team that would incorporate them into the overall strategy and vision of the institution.

3.5.4.2 The behavioural approach to leadership

The behavioural approach to leadership refers to the fact that leaders must display the right behaviour and behaviour can be learned. The importance of taking into account not only the tasks that need to be done but also the relationships related to the behaviour and nurturing of the team is stressed (Bergh & Theron, 2005:205). The leader must be able to focus on both these aspects. For example, the leader must ensure that the members of the team develop individualised programmes for all the children in the institution but he/she must also take into consideration what impact this has on the staff and do everything possible to assist them to be able to render this service.

3.5.4.3 The situational or contingency approach to leadership

In terms of the situational or contingency approach to leadership, different situations would call for leaders to have diverse qualities (Hayes, 2002:93; Bergh & Theron, 2005:206). This means that it is not necessary to focus on both relationships and tasks under all circumstances or at all times. At times it is necessary to focus more on the execution of the task than on the relationships. “Generally speaking, being nice and tolerant of others is a good norm to establish. If it means that the group will fail to achieve its work goals, however, then the norm is too strict and should be altered” (Wheelan 1999:105).

Despite also having to focus on the social factors, the leader cannot afford to ignore the task at hand as it is the right of the target group (in this case the children and youth) to receive the mandated services. International and national child and youth policies clearly state that the best interests of the child must be paramount at all times but placing undue pressure on staff to perform the tasks when they have not made the necessary mind shift could lead to them not buying into the changes. The leader must be able to balance these approaches effectively in order to ensure staff wellness as well as effective service delivery.

In this regard, social factors should initially, when team forming takes place, be given enough attention in order to establish positive relationships within the team. The social factors within the team can pose serious barriers to service delivery within team context. The situational or contingency approach to leadership suggests that leaders will have to decide when to participate, delegate, coach, or direct based on the needs of the task of the team members (Partridge, 2007a:38).

3.5.4.4 The transformational or new charismatic approach to leadership

In terms of the transformational or new charismatic approach to leadership, teaming and the maintenance of strong teams to realise the vision of the organisation is only possible once the following stages have been completed.

(a) Visioning

In the first place, leadership must create and share a powerful vision with the staff in order to inspire the total institution, via persuasive communication, to be prepared to structure them towards the vision. This is emphasised by Morris, Wilcocks & Knasel (2000:7) and Aranda *et al.*, (1998). The vision should provide information regarding what the team is and could / should become. In childcare settings the vision should be to render a quality service to all the young people to enable them to become productive citizens. Morris, Wilcocks & Knasel (2000:81) suggest that when leading staff through change, leaders must communicate clearly, early on, frequently and frankly.

(b) Planning

Planning amounts to “setting an agenda for the team as a whole, highlighting goals and finding ways of reaching them” (Morris, Wilcocks & Knasel, 2000:7). There needs to be a fundamental sense of order (firm foundation) and purpose so as to commence with the team approach (Aranda *et al.*, 1998:2). Teams have to be motivated to give up their departmental boundaries and loyalties and to be committed to the overall process.

(c) Teaming

Team members require training in the necessary knowledge, skills and abilities, as working in teams is very different from working in groups. According to Aranda *et al.* (1998:42) and Wheelan (1999:79) the leader should be able to foster effective interaction among team members and provide for team development. During this stage support systems relevant to team-based working should be developed. These include human resource management, systems, rewards, communication, and training for managers and team members to adapt or develop them for team-based work. The leader must prove his/her integrity as a leader by being able to sell the need for the change to his or her staff.

Furthermore, it is imperative for team effectiveness to be reviewed and sustained. In the evaluation stage, teams should be coached to set criteria for the evaluation of team performance and to identify required changes to improve performance.

(d) Recycling

Team leaders must examine performance, innovation, team members' satisfaction, and their learning and skill development, since all are vital areas of team performance. Once the team is in place, the leadership is constantly responsible for motivating the team towards energetic pursuit of organisational vision, reviewing and reprocessing. This stage is referred to as the "recycling phase". Groups need accurate and frequent feedback about their performance in order to improve their services.

3.5.4.5 The social learning approach to leadership (organisational learning)

The organisational learning model serves as a theoretical framework for this study as it is relevant to the implementation of changed policy. The learning organisation, therefore, has capabilities (people, systems, resources, procedures) for acquiring and applying existing knowledge, and for generating fresh insights (Buchanan, 2000:25). Hence, the leader of a learning organisation is responsible for learning (Senge, 1996:291). This means that he/she is responsible for reshaping the ways in which the organisation is constituted socially in order to enhance learning (Child & Heavens, 2001:312). Learning within the organisation must be interlinked with daily activities. The leader must, therefore, encourage different levels of learning (individual, team and organisational learning) in order to ensure change in knowledge, beliefs and behaviour. Systems must be put in place to acquire and share learning and a culture conducive to organisational learning must be established.

The organisational learning model consists of five disciplines that are "ongoing bodies of study and practice that people adopt as individuals and groups" (Senge et al, 2007:7). These disciplines are team learning, the creation of a shared vision, personal mastery, systems thinking, and mental models. Each of these disciplines must be mastered as it presents a fundamental component in the process to developing a learning organisation (Senge, 1999:5-6).

(a) Team Learning

Team learning is the discipline of "group interaction" (Senge et al, 2007:7). In terms of this discipline, teams can alter their group thinking and learning to activate their energies and activities to accomplish shared goals. In doing so, teams can become the channel through which information can be transferred within the learning organization (Watkins &

Marsick, 1993:14). This means that learning can occur concurrently at different joint / collective levels. Team learning focuses on “value-creating activities based on improving, practicing and transferring learning skills both within the team and to the organisation or group of organisations in which a group belongs” (Digenti, 1999:45). It is stressed that individual learning really has little value for the organisations / institutions since nearly all important decisions are reached in groups (Senge, 1999:10). Team members acquire technical skills, problem solving skills, interpersonal skills and organisational skills to be effective team members (Harvard Business Essentials, 2004:35). Other skills acquired are conversational and collective thinking skills (Moloi, 2005:11). Senge *et al.*, (2007a:48) believe that once one begins to master team learning it is very difficult to optimise one’s position at the expense of the whole.

(b) Shared Vision

Shared vision refers to the importance for every staff member in the learning organisation to know what the big picture looks like (Al-Smadi, Qudais & Al-Omari, 2008:1), and to know how to go about getting something done in the organisation. The team members must also have funds available with which to take action and have information about how to influence or collaborate with people. A genuine vision is not merely a vision statement as visions are open to deliberation and contest (Senge, 1999:213). Furthermore, it is important that the personal visions of staff members throughout the institution should be synchronised with the organisational vision. It should also lead to staff choosing to act and even risk making mistakes.

(c) Personal Mastery

The mindset of individual staff members to learning is the foundation of organisational learning. This means that individuals in the organisation should be committed to personal and professional development (Moloi, 2005:1). The leader must support and encourage them in this respect. This a leader does by creating an environment conducive to learning and development of staff. The leader should accurately assess the skills that the staff already possess and identify the skills they are likely to need in the future (Lassey, 1998:5). Provision must then be made for the relevant training on site (Lassey, 1998:8, 9). The learning organisation therefore differs from the traditional organisations in that staff members are encouraged to learn from their mistakes and are not reprimanded for making them. Unlearning and relearning are encouraged (Moloi, 2005:10) as this contributes to staff constantly finding ways of improving their practice.

(d) Systems Thinking

Systems thinking is the bedrock for organisations in terms of how to learn new ways of rendering services. It is also the discipline that integrates all the disciplines (Senge, 1999:12). The essence lies in the organisation functioning as a system rather than the sum of separate parts (Al-Smadi *et al.*, 2008:16). It functions by seeing interrelationships rather than linear cause-effect chains and seeing processes of change rather than “snapshots” (Senge, 1999: 68).

(e) Mental Models

Mental models refer to individuals’ “images, assumptions and stories that we carry in our mind of ourselves, other people, institutions, and every aspect of the world” (Senge *et al.*, 2007:67; Beer & Nohria, 2000 and Al-Smadi, Qudais & Al-Omari, 2008:15, 16). These have been learnt from parents, religion, schools, peers, admired people, culture and the culture of the organisation for which they work (Senge *et al.*, 1994:209). Moreover, mental models facilitate the individuals’ task of finding their way through a complex environment and provide them with constancy, identity, confidence and the ability to deal with similar situations. This means that, in order to understand an opinion that someone expresses (for example, distaste or interest in something), one needs to ask for the source of the opinion to have a clearer understanding of the mental model that the person holds (Senge *et al.*, 1994:71; Cope, 1998:117; Beer & Nohria, 2000:66; Nilakant & Ramnarayan, 2006:110).

In times of change, individuals are expected to unlearn previously successful strategies and learn new ways to direct behaviour (Hedberg & Wolff, 2001:535). This expectation includes that individuals give up some of their beliefs, assumptions and values to make change possible. Individuals cannot be persuaded to do this before understanding their ways of thinking and their mental models. They are, therefore, required to assess their own position in terms of the proposed changes that need to occur. The kind of values that are seen to be on the block will greatly influence the perceptions of staff regarding the proposed changes (Manning, 1998:35) and for this reason some expected changes will cause greater resistance than others.

It must be understood that individuals, for the most part, are unaware of the assumptions that underlie their thinking and behaviour and, therefore, the behaviour becomes automatic. Opportunity must be given to team members to constantly clarify their

assumptions and consider how it impacts on their decisions and actions. An example of this is the team member's view on the contributing factors to a child's behaviour. This will influence his/her decisions regarding the services required. In team context it is important that team members must have a shared mental model about the task, the team, equipment and the situation (Johnson, Lee, Lee, O'Connor, Khalil & Huang, 2007:437).

In terms of this information, learning organisations are characterised by flexibility, adaptability, teamwork, originality and the capacity to incessantly learn to change (Darling-Hammond, 1990 and Hargraves, 1995 as cited by Chrispeels, 2004:40). To make this possible, organisations (in the case of these study institutions), teams and individuals need to connect in constant learning to maintain their preparedness for organisational transformation. The learning organisation's disciplines of team learning, shared vision, and systems thinking in particular are purposely directed at changed interaction. This means that promoting organisational learning in settings such as schools includes developing a vision and goals to assist staff to focus on what is important and then eradicating or transforming all aspects that pose barriers to working in line with the vision. Staff should be encouraged to utilise every learning opportunity that comes their way (personal mastery), to become involved in the learning process, and to participate in decision making (team learning). Furthermore, the leader must ensure a trusting and collaborative climate, empower staff to take initiatives and risks, have a shared and monitored mission, and encourage professional development.

For a team to be able to execute the mandated tasks, as set out in changed child and youth policy, effectively the members need buy-in and support from management, clear institutional policy based on the key legislation, support in terms of human resources, time allocation, and funding. The members of the team must hold perspectives that are broad enough to understand and integrate the bigger picture issues, institutional and client issues, as well as incorporate these in their decision-making. They require an institutional structure that will support their service delivery as well as strong institutional and team leadership. Not all leadership approaches are effective, and, therefore, the leader must ensure that he/she follows the most effective approach, especially in times of change. The different leadership approaches alluded to include those that concentrate on interpersonal interaction, motivation, expectations or change. Each of the theories that address leadership approaches contributes to the general understanding of what happens in organisations / institutions.

3.6 TEAM FUNCTIONING: SOCIAL PROCESSES

The team consists of a “network of social relationships and behavioural patterns of members such as norms, roles, and communications” (Harvey & Brown, 1996:39). Authors refer to various elements of these social factors, namely group maintenance and interpersonal dynamics (Bolman & Deal, 1991:143); patterns of behaviour; defined relationships with others; accommodation of inter-professional differences; balance of power; work procedures; and job skills (West, 2004:3). Other elements referred to are group structure (Wright *et al.*, 2006:122); interpersonal climate (Kohn & O’Connell, 2007:123); team collaboration (Partridge, 2007a:16); and socio-emotional roles (Stewart, Manz & Sims Jr., 1999:39).

For the purpose of this study the focus will be on the patterns of behaviour, defined relationships and inter-personal differences. Consideration is therefore given to the fact that “change not only brings uncertainty but also could be contradictory to what people believe, value, or assume about how things should be done within the organization” (in this case the institution) (Maginn, 2007:53). Team members will respond differently to change and have certain mental models / perspectives. These perspectives relate to the value of teamwork, the contributing factors to the challenges that service users experience, appropriate services for the target group served, as well as their roles and the roles of others within the team.

3.6.1 Individual Responses to Change

People respond to change differently. In times of change what was predictable and stable at work is replaced by uncertainty and ambiguity. Some staff members may see change as an opportunity whilst others may be uncomfortable or even negative about it. Within the Department of Education acknowledgement is given to normal responses when staff is expected to “change their way of thinking, working and reflecting on their environment” (Department of Education, 2001). These responses are identified as feelings of inadequacy, frustration, and unpreparedness or lack of skills and knowledge. Staff usually questions the necessity of the change and is worried about what they will lose or leave behind. They also wonder what they must “unlearn” and to what they are committing themselves (Harris, 1999:248). Wagner *et al.* (2006:86-88, 124) refer to “individual or personal immunities” to change, “countering behaviours”, “emotional immune systems” and “hidden commitments”. Argyris (1985) as referred to by Senge,

1999: 237 refers to defensive routines that have built up in organisations for years. People know about them but they are not open for discussion. In other words, there is a problematic gap in communication rewarded by defensive routines. An example of a gap is the leader who talks participation but acts controlling. In some instances people demonstrate individual immunities to change and oppositional behaviour (Wagner *et al.*, 2006:86-88, 124).

Individuals hold theories of action that includes the “theory in use” (actual behaviour), and “espoused theory” (the promoted course of action) (Cope, 1998:117; Beer & Nohria, 2000:66; Nilikant & Ramnarayan, 2006:110). In terms of the theory of action perspective, reality is explored from the viewpoint of individuals as designers of action and modifications are done based on the information obtained from these individuals’ “theory of action”.

The “espoused theory” and “theory in use” of the individuals must thus be studied so that individuals can gain an understanding of their mental models that cause them to hold on to the status quo and, in so doing, resist change (Carr, Hard & Trahant, 1996; Beer & Nohria, 2000:74) that leads to a disparity between current and expected functioning (Senge, 1999:186; Argyris & Schön, 1996; Axelrod, 2000:64). The feedback could allow individuals to draw sound deductions concerning their functioning and go through self-directed learning and self-improvement (making informed choices about the action they design and implement) (Belasen, 2000:271). The hoped for outcomes is that it would bring diverse people to a common purpose (Van der Merwe, 1994:242 as cited in Senge *et al.*, 1994).

To unlearn earlier perceived successful strategies and learn new ways to direct actions is especially difficult (Hedberg & Wolff, 2001:24). Argyris & Schön (1996:20-23) suggest that three possible responses to these are represented in the concepts of single-, double- and triple-loop learning.

3.6.1.1 Single-loop learning

Single-loop learning, or “paradigm constrained learning”, refers to routine learning that brings about change in the action only, not in the governing value itself. This form of learning permits the organisation to proceed with the present policies or achieve its present objectives (Argyris & Schön, 1996:20; Lassey, 1998:9-11). There is thus no

reflection on the appropriateness or value of the action and its intended result (Paul, 2003:38).

3.6.1.2 Double-loop learning

Double-loop learning (Argyris & Schön, 1996:22) occurs when a change in both the governing value and action is required. Error is detected and corrected in ways that involve the modification of an organisation's underlying norms, policies and objectives. Double-loop learning is thus "built into the knowledge edge-creating organizations without the unrealistic assumption of the existence of a 'right' answer" (Starbuck & Hedberg, 2001:336). An example would be the move from a punitive approach (for example, the administering of corporal punishment) to having to use alternatives to corporal punishment.

3.6.1.3 Triple-loop learning

Triple-loop learning is another form of organisational learning that comes into play where the collective learning causes changes in the principles upon which the organisation was founded. At this level of learning, the role of the mission of the organisation is questioned (Lassey, 1998:9-11).

Furthermore, attitudes can be understood in terms of three components, namely the affective component (evaluation or emotional response to some object or person); the cognitive component (belief or actual knowledge about the object or person); and the behavioural component (overt behaviour directed towards the object or person). All three components should be taken into account in any attitude change strategy (Zimbardo & Ebbesen, 1970 as cited by Anstey, 2002:131, 195).

To put this into perspective the discussion now focuses on three models of how people react to change. These models are the following: models of Elizabeth Kübler-Ross (1969), William Bridges (1991), and Steven Covey (1999). These models refer to the stages that persons go through when expected to make changes.

(a) The Model of Elizabeth Kübler-Ross (1969)

Kübler-Ross (1969) refers to the grieving process people go through but this can also be translated to the change process as it implies some form of loss. She distinguishes between five phases that the person, who has experienced loss, goes through, namely shock or denial, anger, bargaining, depression (low motivation and low morale), and acceptance (Kübler-Ross, 1969). Her work was further developed by O'Connor & Wolfe (1987) in the theory of change to include five stages of life, namely pre-change stability, rising dissonance, crises, redirection, and adaptation and restabilisation.

(b) The Model of William Bridges (1991)

Bridges (1991) provides practical, step-by-step ideas for executing changeovers and reducing psychological obstacles to change. He refers to a transition as an inner process with distinctive zones. In the ending zone teams go through a grieving process even if they perceive the change as well founded. Individuals normally respond in an emotional way. In terms of this model, problems arise when management already knew about it and was living the change at the point where they inform employees. They expect the rest of the staff to be on their level at that stage and have very little understanding of the process. People need to let go of certain things and will find themselves in a neutral zone where they are caught between what they leave behind and what they need to change (Bridges, 1991).

During the neutral zone staff feel uncomfortable because, although the change has taken place outwardly, the team members have not made the transition internally. There is usually an escalation in their levels of apprehension, absence, surfacing of previous grievances, and sick leave taken. During the ending zone individuals tend to be in two minds as they come to terms with the changeover, and they attempt to comprehend the details of their circumstances. The individuals will need clear direction, an explanation for taking that particular direction, and a strategy to accomplish the goal.

(c) The Model of Steven Covey (1999)

Covey (1999) refers to three circles: the circle of influence, concern and of no concern. The last circle refers to an area of information that individuals know about but that does not concern them. The answer to dealing with change is to move the circle of concern to the circle of control / influence. According to Covey, if energy is directed to the circle of

concern individuals feel powerless. However, when the circle of influence takes over, persons gain control over their circumstances (Heckenlaible-Gotto, 2006:130). A professional person's mindset or belief system can be influenced by the way in which behaviour is viewed and data interpreted.

(d) Other Relevant Models

The model of Lewin refers to the stages of unfreezing, changing and refreezing that persons go through in periods of environmental change. The organisational change process is described as a cycle that includes creating knowledge, disseminating knowledge, instituting the change, and institutionalising the change (Lewin, 1951; Watkins & Marsick, 1993 as cited by Johnson, 1998:148). Theron (2007:228-229) refers to the model of Lippit (1982), Gjerde (1983), Malinconio (1983), Hanson (1995), and Carnall (1991) that indicates phases of resistance to change including shock, counter-reaction, grouping, anxiety, rationalisation, acceptance, and internalisation.

How individuals react to change can also be linked to the perspectives that they hold on various issues of relevance to team functioning. These deserve further exploration.

It is evident from these theories that change is painful, therefore requiring understanding and assistance in order to move to the level of acceptance. In the change process, attention must be given to the cognitive, behavioural and affective components of staff's responses. These components relate to how feelings of shock are dealt with initially and how persons are assisted to finally reach the outcome desired. With regard to the change from working in silos to working in teams, the model of Lewin provides practical guidelines for effecting change. Similar to Senge's (1999) approach, knowledge creation is seen as important in facilitating change.

3.6.2 Accommodation of Multi-Professional Perspectives

Ideally, to be able to render effective services, team members should hold a shared vision, have a common understanding of the needs of the target group served, and understand their role and the roles of the other team members within the team.

How a professional understands his/her role is based on his/her individual work history, knowledge and expertise as well as an institutional history and culture to which they are exposed. These views (referred to by Senge (1999: 8) as mental models) relate to their preference to working individually or in teams; their view of the target group served; their service delivery strategies; their role boundaries; and their acknowledgement of the children's rights perspective to service delivery.

The first perspective / mental model that team members hold (based on the literature study) is that of the importance of teamwork.

3.6.2.1 Perspectives on the importance of the team approach

Not every professional likes to work in teams. Certain professionals may prefer to follow the silo approach as opposed to the team approach owing to territorial considerations and concern with defending their vested interests (Maxwell, 2001:6; Anning *et al.*, 2007:3). This could also be due to incentive systems that reward individual rather than collective achievement (Johnson, 2005:1; West, 2004:98). In this regard, Sandow & Allen (2005:13) distinguish between a network of collaboration that is generative and affirmative for all, and a network of ambition focussed on power and competition within the network.

Some professionals are used to working individually (Senge *et al.*, 2007a:43; Partridge, 2007a:3). According to Wagner *et al.* (2006:24-26, 71), educators are drawn to their profession owing to the relative independence that it offers. In the past they generally worked in an isolated classroom setting (Flowers, Mertens & Mulhall, 2000 as cited by Clark & Clark, 2006:55) and made independent decisions about the curriculum and teaching. They are therefore not used to being part of a structure or community of practice committed to continuous development (Töremen & Karakus, 2007:642).

A shift from individual work to teamwork is an emotional one for individuals (Johnson, 2005). This change can generate discomfort, anxiety, anger and a lack of job satisfaction in team members as they struggle to cope with "the disintegration of one version of professional identity before a new version can be built" (Frost, Robinson & Anning, 2005:188-189 and Onyett, Pillinger & Muijen, 1997 as cited by Barnes, Carpenter & Dickinson, 2000:567).

Scepticism among staff members regarding the value of teamwork is also not uncommon (Hayes, 2002:189). This could be partly due to the lack of research about the impact of inter-agency and inter-professional collaboration on outcomes for children and families (Cleaver & Walker, 2004 as cited by Marsh, 2006:155).

3.6.2.2 Perspectives on the target group served

Social influences and dialogues have an effect on the definition of challenges experienced by children and their families (Male, 2003:163; Anning *et al.*, 2007:51). The behaviour of the service users will be viewed in terms of where the responsibility for that behaviour lies (Holland, 2004:26) and will dictate the treatment approach to be followed by a member of the institutional level team. Frank (2006:13) agrees that dissimilar theoretical frameworks could offer radically different reactions to the exact same set of actions.

Reid MacNevin (1991) refer to four models pertaining to youth in conflict with the law namely the societal change model, the welfare model, the justice model, and the crime control model.

With regard to the various understandings of factors contributing to the behaviour of the young people, Anning *et al.* (2007:52) found that all five teams that they studied followed different approaches to understanding childhood issues in general. The different groups followed a systems model, a medical model, a needs-based model, and a social model. Additionally, Brendtro *et al.* (2002:19) found that different professionals respond differently to children who become involved in criminal activity. They found that correctional staff generally theorises that the young person's problem should be defined as delinquency and the typical response would usually be to judge, penalise and imprison. Social work theory describes the offender as dysfunctional and the intervention phases followed are intake, case management and termination. Educators view the youth as disobedient and therefore respond by admonishing, rectifying and expelling. Psychologists are of the opinion that offenders are disturbed and intervention consists of analysing, treating and isolating. Understanding for one another's perspectives is very important to ensure the successful implementation of a multidisciplinary team approach (Brendtro *et al.*, 2002:19-22). Team members will have to come to a common understanding of the needs of these vulnerable children and youth to be able to provide effective services and programmes for them.

Keil, Miller & Cobb, (2006:170) warn that if the behavioural, emotional and social challenges are perceived as intrinsic to the child, full account may not be taken of outside factors such as disadvantage or failures within the educational system to meet the needs of this group of children.

3.6.2.3 Perspectives on service strategies

Even if team members agree on service objectives, they may have differences regarding appropriate service delivery strategies based on their service delivery models. Anstey (1999:24, 25) and Minicucci (1997) (as cited by Packard, Jones & Nahrstedt, 2006:89) explain that the theoretical foundation of a profession is made up of selected theories from different disciplines and fields of study (Mosey, 1981 as cited by Creek, 2002a:34). Professionals are “challenged to reflect on which beliefs about practice are imbued with core values, and which can be modified through the development of new forms of knowledge within the team, which form the bases of a ‘shared repertoire’” (Frost, Robinson & Anning, 2005:187-196).

For Hecklenlaible-Gotto (2006:130) the question is fundamentally whether a professional views the child from a deficit- and disability-based or strength-based mindset. Staff that traditionally rendered services in line with the medical model, with the focus on pathology (Edwards *et al.*, 2007:145), may resist switching to a model that focuses on strengths of children and youth, and considers the impact of the ecosystems in the life of a child. With this in mind, Goldstein (1992 as cited by Cox, 2006:299) found that the faithful incorporation of strength-focused protocols in settings dominated by the medical model presents with numerous challenges. Professional language used in such service settings centres on disease and disorder, diverting attention away from client capacities.

It happens that there is even a difference in rating of strengths and deficits of clients within the same profession. Hwang, Cowger & Saleeby, (1998:25-31) found variance in the social workers’ ratings of the importance of deficits. Social workers in mental health settings and workers who indicated that their professional theoretical orientation was psychodynamic rated personal deficits as being more important when compared with the ratings of other social workers. School social workers, compared with other social workers, rated personal deficits as being less important. It is therefore evident that team members will have to receive guidance on how to come to some kind of common

agreement of who the client is or what needs of the clients need to be addressed in order to be effective.

Professionals that work in team-context fulfil specific roles that contribute to their sense of identity and that carry behavioural expectations. In effective teams there is a balance between professionals, each taking on a dissimilar but corresponding role in the team (Partridge, 2007a:24). This calls for role boundaries in teams.

3.6.3 Defined Relationships with Co-Team Members

3.6.3.1 Perceptions of their role boundaries

Team members have an understanding of the patterns of behaviour appropriate for their roles but they also have perceptions regarding what the roles of the co- team members entail. This leads to role expectations within the team. Differences in perspectives / mental models of the various professionals are the reason why two individuals see the same situation differently (Senge et al., 2007:67) potentially leading to role conflict, role incompatibility, role overload and role ambiguity (Parker, 1996:61-70).

Aside from the task-roles team members must fulfil they must also fulfil group-building and maintenance roles within the team (Hayes, 2002:42). This lends itself to “blurred roles” (Frost, Robinson & Anning, 2005:188). Hence, in times of social change, uncertainty as to the boundaries of acceptable behaviour may follow (Anstey, 2002:22). An example of this is the finding of Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana (2007:19) that educators are generally of the view that social issues, social problems, and special needs in education are not of fundamental concern to them. This approach could lead to fragmented service delivery. The authors differ from such a viewpoint as they are of the opinion that the addressing of contextual disadvantage, social problems and special needs cannot be seen as unconnected to addressing developmental issues in education as a whole.

3.6.3.2 Perspectives on professional values: children’s rights perspectives

Despite the fact that human rights, in general, and children’s rights, in particular, are the core of the democratic debate, they remain controversial in relation to interpretation and application (Anstey, 2002:253). When it comes to children’s rights shifting and

contradictory interpretation of childhood can be recognised in modern society. Debates concerning children who commit crime, child participation and punishment are ongoing. Much of a professional's decision-making is thus both practical and ethical when it comes to children's rights (Parton *et al.*, 1997 as cited by Holland, 2004:3).

The skepticism of certain professionals regarding the "legitimacy and wisdom" of the extent of the children's rights contained in the CRC and relevant policies could pose a challenge. These challenges often come directly into conflict with traditional thinking (Wildeman & Nomdo 2007:2; Wilkins, Becker, Harris & Thayer, 2007:1).

One of the rights that children must be afforded in terms of legislation is the right to being viewed as performers in their own lives and not as passive beneficiaries of services (Hallett 1998:238; Keil *et al.*, 2006:171). The nature of child participation therefore needs to be explored.

A number of adults experience the child's right to participation and representation as handing over all their authority to children who are not equipped for the task. Other staff members might feel that the observations of children / youth are neither relevant nor important or they might not feel secure in allowing children to participate in decisions regarding themselves (UNICEF, 2003:16). The need that staff should be trained in how to elicit and take into consideration children's views are obvious.

Another contentious children's rights issue is the disciplinary measures to be used to correct the behaviour of children and youth. The manner in which adult-child relationships were previously understood made it legitimate for adults to administer physical punishment and, in so doing, confirm their power over the children. This led to the young persons learning a range of scripts about their place in society, as well as notions of power, justice and the use of violence to solve problems (Donald, Dawes & Louw 2000:16). It boiled down to "breaking the child's spirit of wilfulness" so that he/she would become compliant (Miller as cited by Senge *et al.*, 2007:37). The abolishment of corporal punishment meant that the relationship between adult (staff) and learner was radically reframed. In this regard, cultural and religious arguments for the use of corporal punishment are often raised (Tafa, 2002:17 and Dobson, 2002:62). Religious perspectives include, for example, the stance that by "sparing the rod" adults are spoiling the child and not acting in the child's best interests. There is also the opinion that child abuse will increase as a result of the abolishment of physical punishment as aggravated adults will explode because of a lack of suitable responses to their children's

challenging behaviour. They could also turn to emotional abuse that could be worse for the children (Dobson, 2002:37). Especially in residential settings where staff was used to following a punitive approach, a change to following a restorative approach is received with much resistance. These staff members often argue that the abolishment of corporal punishment has led to children's behaviour spiralling completely out of control.

Other differing perspectives among team members could also include those concerning racial, gender and cultural thinking.

3.6.3.3 Perspectives on racial issues

Difficulties in communication, misunderstandings and labelling because of differences rooted in ethical, socio-political and financial issues between individuals from different cultures may occur (Nel & Slabbert, 2003 as cited by Grobler *et al.*, 2006:449). This would pose a barrier to service delivery in team context and must be addressed. This is one of the aspects that should be given attention during the various phases of team development. It has been found that when persons start communicating with each other they develop a better understanding for each other. These discussions should be facilitated.

In addition, gender insensitivity on the part of team members could pose a barrier to effective teamwork and services will not be rendered in an equitable and just way.

3.6.3.4 Perspectives on gender issues

According to Du Plessis, Conley & Du Plessis (2007:27), labels assigned to boys and girls regarding their abilities can obstruct their learning. Service delivery to boys is reportedly often compromised due to the perspective that boys do not need the same attention when it comes to enhancing of their self-esteem.

When promoting and defending the importance of service delivery for adolescent boys opposition is often encountered. The World Health Organization (2000b) opened up this debate and established the following viewpoints based on argument against and for service delivery to boys.

Arguments opposing service delivery to boys maintain that there are limited resources available and that donor interests lie with girls' education. This argument also includes that existing programmes for adolescents already appeal to boys. Another argument is that focus on boys' issues would necessitate retraining women service providers as well as recruiting and training more male service providers. It would also strengthen their hierarchical power (stereotypical male dominance) (WHO, 2002). Boys are seen as both the unfairly privileged gender and as an obstacle on the path to gender justice for girls. Labels assigned to boys, such as "failing boys, difficult boys, bad boys, and naughty boys" (Murray 2003:2), are also harmful to them. Hendel (2006:175-178) found that a number of professionals do not include discussions on boys' body image, athleticism, success or friendships in their programmes for boys. This is problematic and clearly not in the best interest of boys since many of them do not have positive male role models in their lives to address these issues.

Arguments for assistance to boys are that they also have human / child rights. It is further argued that improving boys' situation would actually contribute to the improvement of girls' circumstances and the circumstances of the entire community. Furthermore, the high cost of their misbehaviour (especially their incarceration and institutionalisation) warrants services to boys on various levels. Interviews with 197 boys at YCECs showed that the socialisation of boys impact negatively on their behaviour and that these aspects are not addressed effectively (Rossouw, 2007: 43-44).

A third possible barrier to effective teamwork could be cultural issues. Team members represent different cultures and if they do not have an understanding of the culture of co-members and service users this could hamper service delivery to a great extent.

3.6.3.5 Perspectives on cultural issues

Team members and service users from different cultural backgrounds can have different clinical realities in terms of attitudes, expectations, customs, conduct, "communicative transactions", health-seeking behaviours, the nature of healing activities, and the client-service provider relationships (Kleinman, 1980 as cited by Kromhout, Eldering & Knorth, 2000:359; Tatum, 2000:55). These have to be catered for. It is, however, also important that the issue of "acculturation" (adaptation of individuals to the values or norms of other cultures) be taken into account (Berry, 1994 as cited by Kromhout, Eldering & Knorth, 2000:361) and accommodated. For example, team members must understand their own racial identity in order to be able to support the positive

development of the youth's racial and ethnic identities as well as to accommodate one another in team context. It is recommended that they "engage in racial dialogue among themselves to facilitate learner conversation" (Tatum, 2000:54). If this is not possible prejudices will impact negatively on collaboration within the team and on the prospects and assumptions about aspects like the achievement potential of learners of other races.

Cultural differences regarding parent/family involvement in service delivery may also pose a barrier to holistic service delivery by members of the team.

3.6.3.6 Perspectives on family involvement in service delivery

The interrelated nature of family's and children's needs as well as the value of involving parents in planning for their child may not be recognized by all professionals (Johnson, Renaud, Schmidt & Stanek, 1998:173 as cited by Anderson, 2000). It is commonly accepted that positive behaviours between parents and service providers serve the interests of children and, on the other hand, that negative interactions may hinder the helping process.

Some staff holds the assumption that parents have little understanding for the needs of their children (Senge *et al.*, 2007:67). Others may believe that the family circumstances of the high-risk learners are beyond repair and that the focus of service delivery should be on building resilience in the children / youth to enable them to rise above these circumstances. As a result, well-intentioned school reform efforts have alienated parent groups. Efforts to engage parents should concentrate on encouraging interface rather than the mere forwarding of information to them or summoning the parent to school when the child is presenting challenging behaviour. Different perspectives on the roles of the father and mother also exist. One perception is that a mother and father are exchangeable in a child's life. Another perception is that these roles are complementary and children benefit in different ways from exposure to each role (Benedek & Brown 1998:13). An evolving body of literature points to parent disquiet over obvious behaviours and attitudes of professionals towards them (Johnson, Renaud, Schmidt & Stanek, 1998:173-187 as cited by Anderson, 2000). One of their concerns centres on the attribution of fault to parents for the problems of their children (Bennett, 2006:188).

Having discussed the team members' perceptions of their own roles the focus now shifts to the expectations that the team members have regarding the roles of co-team members. The discussion addresses unrealistic expectations, expectations on

information sharing, the value added by co-team members, and issues of language differences.

3.6.4. Expectations on the Roles of Co-Team Members

3.6.4.1 Perceived unrealistic expectations from co-members and the department

Unrealistic expectations of team members could present barriers to work within teams. In this regard Wulfers (2002:129) indicates that educators, from time to time, regard the role of the school social worker as one of resolving crises with learners and returning the learners to the classroom all set to learn. On the other hand, school social workers sometimes see educators as merely paying attention to passing on subject matter to learners with no thought of the development of the learner as a whole person. The ideal is that they should collaborate to ensure that services to children are effective.

3.6.4.2 Expectations on information sharing

Considerable tension is generated for practitioners who are pulled between the expectations of the staff to be informed and the need to protect clients' rights to confidentiality and informed consent. Social workers are often at the centre of this debate (Frost, Robinson & Anning, 2005:193). The lack of information could lead to co-team members not fully understanding, and therefore not supporting, a treatment recommendation made by the school social worker during team discussions. This does not serve the best interests of the service users. There could, however, also be a trust issue, especially when all team members are not bound by a code of ethics involving the ethical implications of sharing confidential information. This issue is discussed further in Chapter 5.

3.6.4.3 Perceived opposing roles ("loyalty issues")

Team members may sometimes be expected to fulfil "opposing" roles in the best interests of the learners. An example of this is the finding of Chiu & Wong (2002: 149) that educators "showed particular bias against the moral values and behaviour of their marginal students". The expectation that school social workers promote a better

understanding and acceptance of these students by school staff could lead to the school social worker being viewed as “rescuing” the learner at the expense of the staff member. One such an example is the report that, in Germany, cooperation between school social workers and educators were “fraught with contradiction”. Since educators traditionally took responsibility for the social development of learners, the induction of school social workers was construed as a censure of the educator’s ability to tend to this aspect of education (Lorenz, 1992 as cited by Wulfers, 2002: 128).

Sometimes a barrier to teamwork is presented by the view that the contribution of another team member is not of value.

3.6.4.4 Perceptions of value added to team processes by co-members

In some team settings staff members reportedly do not value the input of co-team members. These professional perspectives of other team members limit the professionals’ ability to collaborate with those in other professional fields (Robertson, 1998) as cited by Packard, Jones & Nahrstedt, 2006:87). In institutions the perceptions of the residential educators and educators are often that, because the children spend most of their time during the day in their care, their assessments of children are more accurate than those of the members of the support staff who have interviews with the children on a much less frequent basis. The support staff, however, perceives their assessment as more accurate as they see themselves as having a better understanding of the needs of the learners on account of their specialised training and the safe space they create during interviews for the learner to be him- or herself. An example of this is the “macho” boy that cries during sessions with the school social worker. He would not dare to show his true feelings amongst his peers. Having said this, it must also be taken into consideration that important observations are made by, for instance, residential educators regarding the child’s relationships. This is dealt with in the following chapter.

Strong evidence of the existence of inter-professional stereotypes was discovered by Barnes, Carpenter & Dickinson (2000:574). When professionals were asked to rate one another, the psychiatrists and psychologists received significantly higher ratings for academic rigour and for leadership skills, but poorer ratings for communication skills, interpersonal skills, practical skills and breadth of life experience. Social workers received significantly higher ratings for interpersonal skills and were thought to be moderate in academic rigor and practical skills and poor in leadership skills. Occupational therapists were rated significantly lower for leadership and academic

rigour. The common set of perceptions about the attributes of the professions proved resistant to change. Respect for what other professions have to offer should be cultivated in teams in order to enhance collaboration.

The next perspective that can pose a barrier to teamwork and potentially create an imbalance in power relates to the language used by team members.

3.6.5 Imbalance of Power

3.6.5.1 Communication: language issues

Shared meanings of words are essential to teamwork (Sandow & Allen, 2005:8). Professionals, however, often do not share professional language and then experience professional distance between them (Anderson, 2000:489; Ogletree, Bull, Drew & Lunnen, 2001:138). This was, for instance, cited by hospital social workers as the reason why they experienced feelings of being excluded from the team process (Frost, Robinson & Anning, 2005:187- 196). They alleged that there was unwillingness on the part of some co-team members from other professions to refrain from using or even modifying technical language. There was also a general lack of patience when it came to clarifying meanings. This, for them, implied negative attitudes towards them as members of the team.

With this in mind Frost, Robinson & Anning (2005:189, 192) suggest the discarding of expert language and the introduction of new common language rather than team members looking after their own interests (Anning, Cottrell, Frost, Green & Robinson, 2007:3). A lack of consensus on the terms to describe the problem of service users in general, in this case children, will prevent accurate assessment (Anderson, 2000:485-487).

The first term that has proven difficult for all team members to agree on is “disability and special educational needs”. These kinds of differences often relate to the focus of a particular professional. The terms “disability” and “special educational needs” are often used interchangeably with no apparent justification (Keil *et al.*, 2006:170). Keil *et al.* (2006:171) recommend that the focus should rather be on the support needs of the child than on his/her impairment and recommend the term “additional support needs” instead of “special educational needs”. Senge *et al.*, (2007: 40) further suggests that what is called “disability” is in truth a description of mismatch between educational process and

person. Strictly speaking one should then label the educational process, and not the person, as “disabled”.

The WCED replaced the terms “special education”, “adaptation class education”, “remedial education” and “specialised education” with one concept, namely education for learners with special education needs (ELSEN). Learners in these classes are therefore learners with special education needs (LSEN). This alludes to the fact that this group of learners have needs in addition to the needs of the so-called “normal” children. They fall in different categories, one of which is “learners with challenging behaviour” and “youth a risk” (Theron, 1999).

The second term that has proven difficult for all team members to agree on is “emotional and behavioural difficulties”. Learners with emotional and behavioural difficulties (EBD) are often demonised and this is compounded by the problem with describing and understanding the nature of EBD (DfEE, 1994; Daniels *et al.*, 1999 as cited by Visser & Stokes, 2003:66, 70). Anderson (2000:485) found that researchers used 68 descriptions to refer to emotional and behavioural difficulties (Kutash & Duchnowski, 2004). A few examples of these labels are “emotional and behavioural difficulties”, “antisocial”, “delinquent”, “maladjusted”, “deviant”, “attention deficit” or “hyperactivity disorder”, “oppositional and defiant disorder”, “conduct disorder”, “aggressive”, “affective disorders”, “personality disorder”, and “psychopathology” (Bennett 2006:188). Anderson (2000:45) refers to the report of Cole (2003) that the Social Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties Association in Britain now uses the term “social, emotional and behavioural difficulties” instead of “emotional and behavioural difficulties”.

The third term is concerned with children and youth who have committed a criminal offence and are assigned different “labels” by various professionals. This is illustrated by the view of Visser & Stokes (2003:66) that one must differentiate between a learner who has a “recognized educational special need” (emotional and behavioural difficulty) and a learner who is “disaffected or delinquent”. Labels, often assigned to children who present with challenging behaviour, include “troubled youth” (Brendtro, Brokenleg & Van Bockern, 2002:19), “troubled and troubling youth” (Harper *et al.*, 2007:23), as well as “troubled or troublesome” (Hallett, 1998:235) youth. The policy documents of the WCED refer to “learners who present with challenging behaviour” (WCED, 2004a). In this instance the focus is on the behaviour and not on the child / youth. Authors, such as Sigafos, Arthur & O’Reilly (2003:ix), attempt to define challenging behaviour. According to them behaviour is challenging “when its frequency and severity make it

dangerous, destructive, harmful, disruptive or otherwise unacceptable". They cite examples of challenging behaviour as aggressive behaviour, vandalism, self-injury and extreme bad temper / tantrums. They concur that whether an act is considered challenging behaviour or not will depend on an individual's or a groups' judgement. Individuals will hold differing opinions as to the "how frequent is too frequent and how severe is too severe". Lowe & Felce (1995 as cited by Sigafoos *et al.*, 2003:7) add that whether an act by a child is considered challenging or not will also be determined by the degree to which an individual can put up with, alter or reduce the consequences of the behaviour.

It could also be that pathology language instead of positive language is still used by a number of members in the team. Winter & Preston (2006:173) refer to the importance that professionals working with children should "refrain from using deviance, deficit and disease interpretations to behaviour". These negative labels include "disturbed, disordered, deprived, deviant, disadvantaged, disruptive, disobedient and dysfunctional" (Gilliam & Scott, 1998:14). Words with a positive connotation such as "resourceful, resilient, creative, clever, tenacious, energetic, determined, independent and imaginative" should rather be used.

The fourth term that could lead to different perspectives among team members is the "well-being" of children. Some professionals are of the opinion that mental health is a precondition for optimal well-being, whereas others maintain that it is not simply an absence of acute psychopathology, it rather comprises constant maturity of internal potential and the management of developmental tasks (Rood, 1991 as cited by Foxcroft & Rood, 2002:213). An interactional process between quality of one's life, well-being and mental health exists. For some authors well-being involves and reflects a quality of empowerment (Downie *et al.*, 1993 as cited by Blair & Hume, 2002:16). It is a positive development that child well-being is defined in the Children's Act 38 of 2005 (RSA, 2005) and members of the team should adhere to it.

3.6.5.2 Perspectives on what constitute successful services

Should perspectives of professionals, as to what constitutes successful services differ radically amongst the professional disciplines, it will lead to working towards different overall goals. Coulling (2000:32) found that success and failure meant different things for each of the disciplines included in the research project that they undertook, and that there is a need for a clearer definition of "success". An example of the differing

perspectives on success is the perceived pressure placed on educators to ensure academic success. This leaves them with little time to focus on social, emotional and behavioural issues despite the need for care on the part of the learners (Kohn, 2000 and Noddings, 2002 as cited by Cassidy & Bates, 2005:66-68). There is no doubt that academic achievement is important but it should be seen to be only one of many learning outcomes set. Differing perspectives regarding successful services will then also exist as to when a child or youth is ready to be discharged from an institutional setting (Frost, Robinson & Anning, 2005:193).

The overall effectiveness of the team can reportedly be measured by taking into consideration their performance efficiency, the performance results, and members' mindsets (referred to as mental models by Senge, 1999:8-9; Senge et al, 2007a:66-73). Performance efficiency includes improved services, increased output, and the ability to get more done in a shorter period of time with the least resources. Performance results include higher client satisfaction, improved communication, more resourcefulness and innovation, as well as an improved contribution or participation. Members' attitudes that can contribute to team effectiveness are a sense of cohesiveness, connection, pride, and shared identity (Kohn & O'Connell, 2007:48-50).

3.6.5.3 Perspectives on status and power

The vital line of reasoning for the importance of teamwork is that the various perspectives enhance the services provided for children. It is therefore imperative for all professionals to have the right to be heard equally within the team context. Perspectives on this could, however, differ within team contexts. It would be a mistake to assume that "teams are sites of equality and shared power" and that issues of power and status do not pose a barrier to effective team functioning (Harris, 1999:248; Wenger, 1998 as cited by Frost, Robinson & Anning, 2005:191; Marsh, 2006:150). Team members differ regarding the level of authority and formal influence that they enjoy.

In this regard, social characteristics that confer status on team members (gender, race, sex, age) can act as an obstacle to effective team functioning because a team member with higher status, the strongest ego, or best qualifications / skills may be allowed to dominate other members (Kohn & O'Connell, 2007:163) and keep them from making valuable contributions (Frost, Robinson & Anning, 2005:192).

West (2004:11) found that team leaders are often perceived as having more influence over decisions in spite of whether they are viewed to be accurate or inaccurate. Other perspectives that the team members may have are related to their generic and professional roles

3.6.5.4 Perspectives of generic and professional roles

Team members may be unable to balance generic and professional roles (Lacey, 1997; Burns, Phillips, Wagner, Barth, Kolko & Campbell, 2004; Norman & Peck, 1999 as cited by Barnes, Carpenter & Dickinson, 2000:567). The demands of the profession and the team are not always compatible in terms of value systems, culture and working methods (Mental Health Commission, 2006). Regarding work procedures and job skills, different perspectives may be held about the way decisions are made by the team.

3.6.5.5 Perspectives on team decision-making

Harris (1999:248) and Holland (2004:11) caution that even if decisions of professionals are derived from the assessment of thoroughly collected comprehensive information, they do not always culminate in unprejudiced and rational decisions in the best interests of clients. "Affectively, professionals also bring to decision-making their own personal histories, their moods, their biases towards optimism or pessimism and their moral values". With this in mind, Schön (1999) and Hasenfeld (1992) as cited by Harris, 1999 found that professionals frequently deal with solutions that are both multifaceted and unique where there is no universal agreement as to the preferred result. Working in human services therefore entails pronouncements of social worth or moral judgements in addition to technical activities.

Harris (1999:251) expresses concern that, at times, judgements are not based on information about a matter but potentially rooted in attaining standing and approval within the group through conformity. He found that members of teams often experience difficulty in differing openly. Furthermore, Harris (1999:251) found a significant lack of clarity regarding the criteria on which a team's decisions are made.

Roberts & Pruitt (2003:85) refer to three approaches to decision-making in team context, namely consensus, majority vote, and authority. Consensus is about coming to an agreement that best reflects the joint thinking of all the team members. This does not

mean that everyone must have the same opinion but it does entail that every team member can live with the decision (Johnson & Johnson, 2000 as cited by Roberts & Pruitt, 2003:86). Majority vote is helpful when time is limited or when the matter at hand is not significant enough to go through the entire procedure of consensus building and authority. This approach works best in circumstances where the decision has to be made speedily and when long-term dedication of all members is not necessary (Roberts & Pruitt, 2003:86). Regarding team decision making, teams must agree on the approach most suitable for a particular situation. Different views on this could pose a challenge.

3.6.5.6 Perspectives regarding learning

In Chapter 1 the importance of learning in times of change was set out. Senge, (1999:18-25) found that teams experience certain “learning disabilities”. Perspectives of team members could contribute to them not being able to learn from experience, in general, and from their mistakes, in particular. These could include one or more of the following responses:

- The feeling that they have no control over the system of which they are a part. This can have a paralysing effect on the team members.
- Apportioning blame to someone or something when they do not succeed.
- Responding to problems rather than being proactive.
- Not having long-term goals but being stuck on short-term thinking.
- Making provision for sudden changes but not for progressive or gradual changes.
- Not learning from experience, as they do not directly experience the consequences of their decisions.
- Making people believe that they work together well, whereas they are actually constantly engaged in territorial fighting.

The differing perspectives of team members can be of value to the team but often these perspectives pose barriers to teamwork and, ultimately, to effective service delivery. These need to be addressed during the phases of team development.

3.7 TEAMWORK IN THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

The various levels of teamwork within the Department of Education place the institutional level team of the YCEC in perspective. In the national and provincial framework for education support services, provision is made for support teams at school and district level. These teams play a major role in the detection and managing of barriers to learning (Department of Education, 2001) and are reflected in Diagram 3.1.

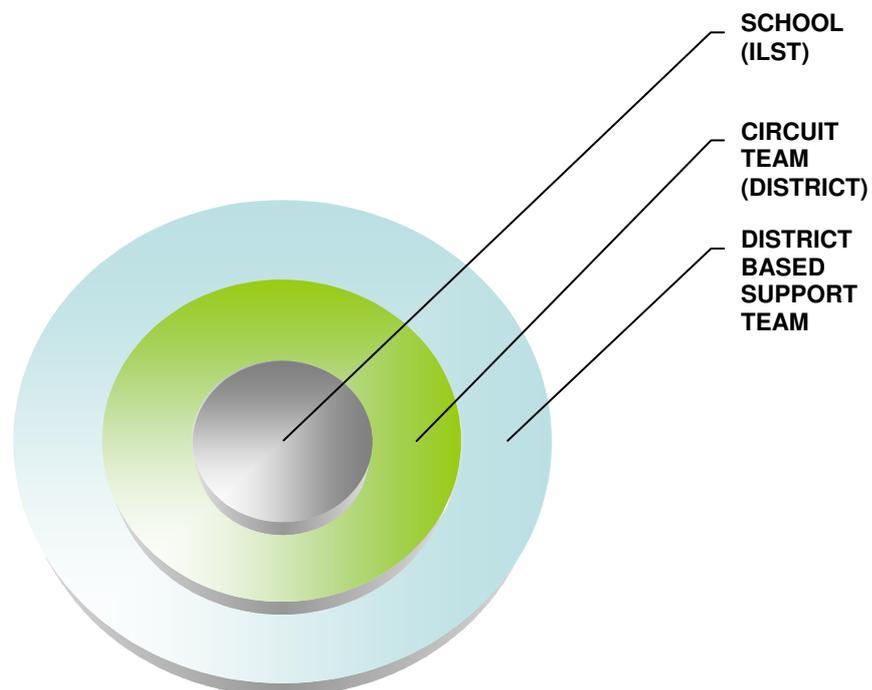


Diagram 3.1: Levels of team support: Department of Education

At school level provision is made for an Institutional Level Support Team to support learners and educators.

3.7.1 The Institutional Level Team

In the Western Cape Province the Institutional Level Support Teams (ILST) at schools are also known as Educator Support Teams (ESTs). “The primary function of these teams is to put in place properly co-ordinated learner and educator support services that will support the learning and teaching process by identifying and addressing learner, educator and institutional needs. Where appropriate, institutions should strengthen their

teams with expertise from the local community, district support teams and higher education institutions” (Department of Education, 2001:48).

The ILST consists of the principal or his/her delegate, a few educators and individuals from inside or outside the school. The latter could include community leaders and professionals such as social workers. The inclusion of these persons is dictated by the unique circumstances of each issue. The team members discuss the specific needs and challenges experienced by educators in assisting the learners and they then develop individual interventions. Members of the ILST must have good knowledge of barriers to learning at all levels in order to support the educators effectively (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2007:25). It is also imperative that they know their community resources well. How the ILST policy of the education department is implemented, is decided by the school management (Hugo, 2007:3).

In the YCEC the Institutional Level Team is the equivalent of the ILST but it comprises additional permanent support staff, namely the educational psychologist, the occupational therapist, the school nurse, the school social worker, and the residential educator. When necessary, the ILST can request assistance from the District-Based Support Team (DBST). Support to the Institutional Level Team is provided by the Circuit Team at district level.

3.7.2 Circuit Team

Each province is divided into several district offices of education. The WCED has eight such offices. Each district office is divided into a number of circuit teams, each headed by a circuit team manager. This team is responsible for the learner and educator support to a cluster of schools. This could include a YCEC. The circuit team consists of support personnel (a psychologist, a learning support teacher, an expert on specific disabilities and a school social worker, a curriculum specialist, a management specialist and an administrative specialist).

3.7.3 District-Based Support Team

At each district office a team, the District-Based Support Team (DBST), manages inclusive education in that district. The team makes provision for a coordinated professional support service that draws on expertise in further and higher education, as well as local communities. The team targets special schools and specialised settings,

designated full-service schools and some of the primary schools and educational institutions (Department of Education, 2001:8). As the team must be able to accommodate a wide range of learning needs (Hugo, 2007:45) it must be a flexible team that can adapt according to the needs of the school(s) and the learners (Bouwer, 2007:63).

According to the draft guidelines for the implementation of inclusive education, the core education support service providers at district level should be the following persons:

- Support personnel (therapist, psychologist, learning support teachers, experts on specific disabilities, health professionals, and social workers)
- Curriculum specialists
- Management specialists
- Administrative specialists
- Specialist support personnel (from existing special schools as well as higher and further education institutions)
- Other government professionals (Department of Social Development, Department of Health etc.) (Department of Education, 2002a:98-100)

For the purpose of this study the focus is on the Institutional Level Support Team (ILST) at the YCEC of the WCED. The ILST is responsible for developing, implementing and monitoring an Individual Development Plan (IDP) for each learner in the YCEC. This is discussed in Chapter 5.

The ILST at the Youth Care Centre comprises of the educator, residential educator, the educational psychologist, the school social worker, the occupational therapist, and the school nurse (See Figure 3.1).

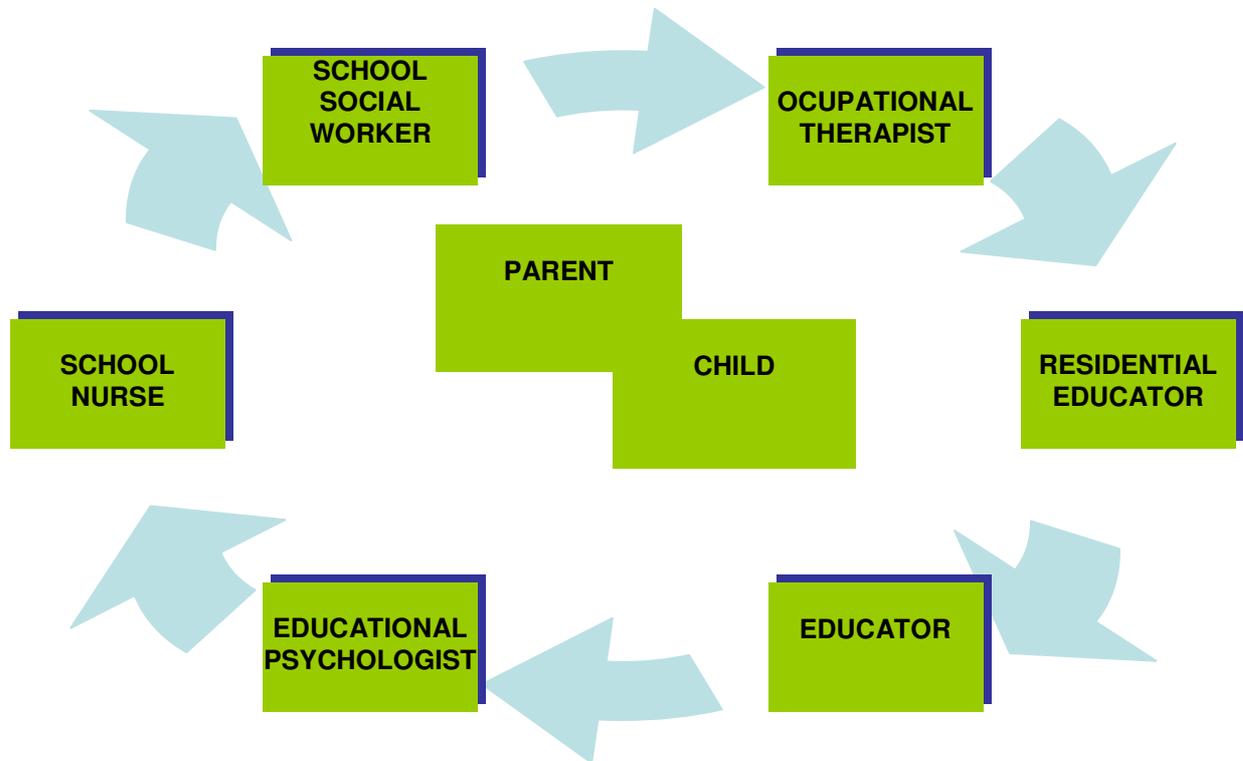


Figure 3.1: The Members of the Institutional Level Team at the YCEC

As the core business of the YCEC is viewed as the rendering of the curriculum, all services are geared towards removing barriers to learning. This means that the educational psychologist will tend to psychological and behavioural barriers, the school social worker will focus on the social and emotional barriers, the school nurse on health barriers, and the occupational therapist on physical barriers.

3.8 CONCLUSION

The diversity of membership of teams ensures a variety of professional and personal perspectives regarding the value of teamwork, the profile of the target group served, the assessment needed, the way services must be delivered, and the principle of service delivery (for example, the rights perspective). These various perspectives can be valuable or a source of tension within team context and may cause barriers to positive relationships

within the team. This is especially important during the forming and storming phases of team development. The team, therefore, requires the necessary support from management, an effective institutional structure that facilitates teamwork, as well as effective leadership from without and within the team, providing direction, funding, human resources, time allocation, and the opportunity of capacity building for staff.

All this is necessary for the team members to perform their designated task, which is the development of an IDP for each learner in the institution. This must be done within the children's rights framework discussed in previous chapters. The nature of the task of the team within the YCEC is discussed in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

THE DEVELOPMENT OF INDIVIDUALISED SERVICES FOR CHILDREN AND YOUTH

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the past staff tended to provide generic services to children and youth in YCECs. They assumed that the children's problems were similar and required a uniform approach. Provision was, therefore, not made for differences in the child's ecology. In terms of changed child and youth policies, the members of the Institutional Level Support Team (ILST) are obligated to develop an Individual Developmental Plan (IDP) for each child based on a multidisciplinary assessment. This ensures that the specific needs and strengths of the child are taken into consideration.

The roles and responsibilities of the team members are spelt out in policies in terms of the approaches they need to follow when developing the IDP; the phases of IDP development to be followed; the contributions of the team members from their professional background; and the data sources that they need to consult in the process. An emphasis is placed on the importance of the participation of the child and his/her parent or guardian in assessment, monitoring and review of his or her IDP.

4.2 THE INDIVIDUAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN FOR CHILDREN AND YOUTH

Individualised plans for children are referred to as Individual Development Plans (IDPs) (WCED, 2004b), Individualised and Educational Plans (IEPs) (Taylor & Baker, 2002:29; Keyes & Owens-Johnson, 2003:145; Kamens, 2004:76; Elkins, Van Kraayenoord & Jobling, 2003:122; Tennant, 2007:204; Capizzi, 2008:18), Individual Education and Development Plans (IEDPs) (WCED, 2007a), or Individual Support Plans (ISPs) (Department of Education, 2007d). For the purpose of this study reference is made to the IDP. This plan should be an appropriate and purposeful document (Kamens, 2004:76, 74), which is specifically tailored to the abilities of each child. It is, amongst others, an attempt to ensure that provision is made for services for learners with special educational needs (Tennant, 2007:204). The WCED states that an IDP must be based on the team's combined developmental assessment of the learner within three weeks of admission to the YCEC (WCED, 2004b:44).

4.2.1 Approaches in Developing the Individual Development Plan

Policy documents stipulate a shift from traditional deficit-based approaches of assessment to a combination of the strengths-based approach (WCED, 2004b:4, 5), the developmental approach (Department of Education, 2001), the ecological approach (Department of Education, 2001), and the restorative approach (WCED, 2004b).

4.2.1.1 Strengths-based / resilience approach

South Africa adopted the strengths-based *Circle of Courage* approach as part of the transformation of the child and youth care system. This approach is followed in the USA with regard to the treatment of families with children who have severe emotional and behavioural disabilities (Brendtro, Brokenleg & Van Bockern, 2002; Weick & Saleebey, 1995:147; Larson, 2006:82). The *Circle of Courage* is a holistic approach to reclaiming children and youth, which is grounded in values of deep respect for the dignity of children and in resilience science (Brokenleg & Van Bockern, 2003:22).

The first underpinning of the *Circle of Courage* approach is respect for the dignity of children. When studying this Native American philosophy of child rearing, Brendtro, Brokenleg & Van Bockern (2002:46-52) found four basic components of self-esteem that is vital to the healthy development of children. These components, namely a sense of belonging, a sense of mastery, a sense of independence, and a sense of generosity, are reflected in Figure 4.1.

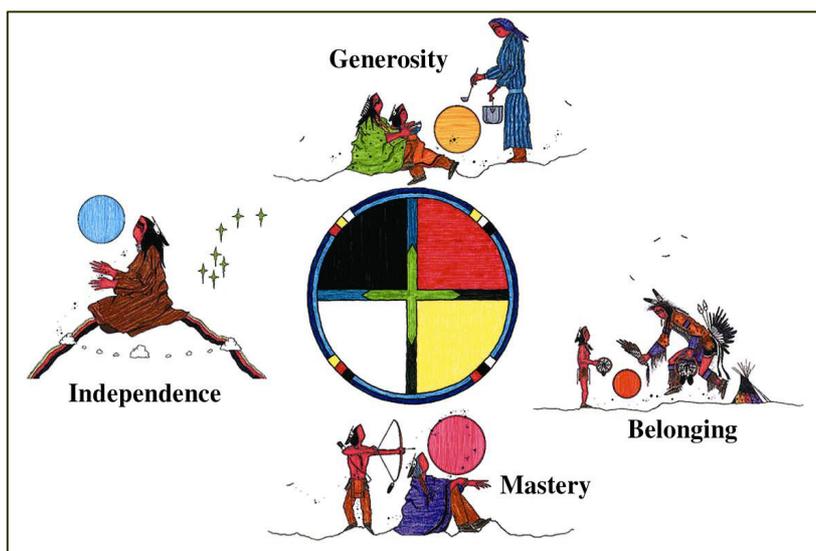


Figure 4.1 Circle of Courage

Source: Brendtro, Brokenleg and Van Bockern, 2002.

According to this approach, when one or more of the core values are absent or distorted, it leads to development becoming stunted or distorted (a broken Circle of Courage) and to maladaptive behaviour (Brendtro, Brokenleg & Van Bockern, 2002:62-65; WCED, 2004b:15). In practice this model entails that these components should be used as guidelines to create a “reclaiming environment” in the childcare settings as well as including these values in children’s lives (Coetzee, 2005:186; Larson, 2006:83).

The strength-based approach moves from traditional approaches that stress deficits and pathology to the focus on assets of youth (Laursen, 2000; Maton, Schellenbach, Leadbeater & Solarz, 2004; Saleebey, 2005; Weick, Kreider & Chamberlain, 2005:117; Wright, Russell, Anderson, Kooreman & Wright, 2006:241). Professionals who use this model focus on individual and environmental resiliencies, talents, connections, skills and gifts of children (Gilliam & Scott, 1998:12; Gleason, 2007:51) and not on deviance (Lambert, Rowan, Longhurst & Kim, 2006:147). According to Heckenlaible-Gotto (2006:130) professionals may find undeveloped virtues when searching for strengths in children and youth. Although the strength-based approach avoids fixating on problems, it still acknowledges that people (in this case children and youth) experience risks and challenges that need attention (Gleason, 2007:52).

The second underpinning of the *Circle of Courage* approach is resilience science. Resilience is the capacity to recover from or to get through major and numerous life stresses (Minnard, 2001:233). It is about how children manage to survive in spite of their troubles and on what they learn in the face of misfortune or from their own mistakes. Professionals want to understand what part of the struggle is useful to the children. Donald, Dawes & Louw (2000:10-11) refer to the three models of Garmezy *et al.* (1984) that explain the way in which resilience operates, namely:

- The compensatory model that refers to a specific positive stimulus that neutralises the influence of other stresses on a particular result such as educational attainment.
- The challenge model that explains that children, who have experienced hardship and have developed the ability to manage, are likely to feel more able to cope with problems yet to come
- The protective factor model is a course of action that interrelates with a risk factor in reducing the likelihood of a harmful result, for example, the support of a caring caregiver when the child goes through difficult times

Resilience researchers are thus not only concerned with the absence of dysfunction but also with the wellness and maximizing of potential of the children (Luthar, Cicchetti & Becker, 2000:573-575). The risk and protective factors that must be taken into consideration when developing an IDP (Gilliam & Scott, 1998:177) will be discussed under assessment.

The similarities between the *Circle of Courage* approach and Peter Senge's management philosophy / organisational learning, that provides the theoretical framework for this research study, have been identified by Herman (2007:50-52). A summary of this information is given in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Similarities between the circle of courage and organisational learning

VALUE	CIRCLE OF COURAGE (Brendtro, Brokenleg & Van Bockern, 2002)	ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING (Senge, 1999)
BELONGING	In order to create an effective learning environment where youth can feel a sense of community, there should be a team spirit among staff in schools (in this case in residential settings).	It is the responsibility of the principal to facilitate a sense of belonging within the school community.
MASTERY	With a “mastery mindset” staff is more able to follow a strengths-based approach to service delivery to young people.	Staff can really only effectively encourage others in their quest for personal mastery if they are serious about their own.
INDEPENDENCE	The painful inconsistency between the wish for mastery and the blinding fear of failure is understood as stunting youth’s independence.	“Creating the safety to look inside oneself and the emotional space for growing and expanding personal identity is vital”.
GENEROSITY	The well-being of the entire school population is a collective duty / responsibility of all. In order to assist youth to become less self-centred and more other- centred it is important to involve them in service to others.	Human motivation and selfless actions are based on people giving themselves to a greater good. When staff has a shared vision they accept ownership of the organisation and they are placed on a level playing field. Compassion is not a private emotion. When staff takes a broader systems view they can appreciate the difficulty affecting others and develop genuine consideration and empathy for them.

Source: Herman (2007: 50-52)

It is, therefore, evident that the elements of belonging, mastery, independence and generosity are important when working towards behaviour change in children or in organisations. In this regard Pinto, Guevara & Baldwin (2004) speak of their success with combining principles of Organisational Learning and the Circles when rendering services to high risk children and youth.

The next mandated approach to service delivery to children and youth is the developmental approach.

4.2.1.2 The developmental approach

The developmental approach has been proven to be the most effective way to deal with adolescent problems and the most powerful way in which adolescent growth and well-being can be assured (UNICEF, 2007). The developmental approach moves away from the curative model and focuses on building capacities of children and youth (Inter-Ministerial Committee on young People at Risk, 1996(a); Department of Education, 2001:6; WCED, 2004:5; Donald, Dawes & Louw, 2000:1-25). To put this approach into perspective it is important to first ascertain what is meant by development. According to Johnson (2007:27), development refers to “certain changes that occur in humans or animals between conception and death”. Aber, Gephart, Brooks-Gunn & Connel (1997 as cited by Donald, Dawes & Louw, 2000:2) extends the meaning of development to “the acquisition and growth of the physical, cognitive, social and emotional competencies required engaging fully in family and society”.

Erikson (1950 as cited by Woolfolk, 2007:67) viewed development as a passage through a series of stages each with specific purposes, anxiety, accomplishments and challenges. Achievement at later stages relies on how conflicts are resolved within earlier years. At each stage the child is confronted with a development crisis – a conflict between a positive choice and a potentially harmful choice. The way in which the individual comes to a decision during each crisis will have a lifelong effect on that child or young person’s sense of self and notion of humanity.

(a) First Stage: Basic Trust versus Mistrust (Birth to 12-18 Months)

This is when the child must experience a nurturing and trusting relationship with an adult. However, if he/she is subjected to unreliable and inconsistent parenting he/she develops a sense of mistrust. This will negatively impact on the child’s ability to develop

relationships in the future in that it would lead to a sense of rejection with “miscomitant” cynicism and distrust toward life and people (Bergh & Theron, 2005:78).

(b) Second Stage: Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt (18 Months to 3 Years)

The child must develop physical ability including walking, grasping and controlling his/her bodily functions. If the child does not succeed and this is not managed well, he or she may develop humiliation and self-doubt.

(c) Third Stage: Initiative versus Guilt (3 to 6 Years)

Building on the trust and self-confidence already established, the child will persist in developing into an even more self-confident child and taking the lead. His/her need to exercise some control over others can be positive but if he/she is too forceful, and adults do not deal with this behaviour correctly, it can bring about self-reproach. If the child does not succeed in developing resourcefulness and is censured repeatedly he/she will become introverted or may overcompensate for the lack of initiative.

(d) Fourth Stage: Industry versus Inferiority (6 to 12 Years)

At this stage the child wants to master new tasks and acquire new skills. However, at school, he/she might not be able to cope with the pressure to learn new skills and, in the process, run the risk of experiencing a sense of inadequacy, incompetence, and uselessness. This is described as “fear of success” and “learned helplessness” (Bergh & Theron, 2005:79).

(e) Fifth Stage: Identity versus Identity Confusion (12 to 20 Years)

This stage is a search for identity and allows opportunities for the young person to try out, without restraint, diverse roles, different ways of thinking and characters before making significant life decisions. When this stage is completed effectively the child will have developed a secure personal identity otherwise he/she will not be able to make life choices. If the young people feel that they do not have the same identity in other’s eyes as they have of themselves they become confused and doubt who they are.

(f) Sixth Stage: Intimacy versus Isolation (Young Adulthood)

The young adult must develop close relationships. If this does not happen he/she will experience feelings of segregation / isolation.

(g) Seventh Stage: Generativity versus Stagnation (Middle Adulthood)

Each adult must find some way to satisfy and support his/her children, the next generation.

(h) Eight Stage: Ego Integrity versus Despair (Late Adulthood)

The conclusion is an awareness of self-acceptance and a sense of fulfilment or accomplishment.

The developmental approach thus focuses on life stages and the mastery of life tasks. Professionals who follow this approach must, when assessing the child's or young person's developmental needs, keep in mind that developmental tasks take place gradually. Also, development can only be supported and encouraged but not forced or manipulated. What is of particular importance for the members of the team is that, with the right resources, the child or young person will develop towards well-being. This places the emphasis on a correct assessment of the developmental needs of children and youth in order to ensure that the appropriate resources are utilised to assist them.

Bronfenbrenner (1998 as cited by Swart & Pettipher, 2007:10) suggests that when endeavouring to understand the development of a particular child, four interrelated dimensions or properties need to be considered. These dimensions are the behavioural predispositions that either support or inhibit certain kinds of responses from others (person factors); the patterns of connections that take place in a system (process factors); families, schools classrooms and local communities (contexts); and changes over time to do with maturation in the individual as well as changes in the surroundings (environment). These aspects should therefore be assessed when developing the IDP.

The third approach to assessment and service delivery to children and youth is the ecological approach.

4.2.1.3 The ecological approach

Education White Paper 6 (as referred to in Chapter 2) refers to the shift in accent from viewing the individual within a concept of remediation to one of a social construct where the difficulties children experience are a result of the external, ecological factors that produce barriers to education and learning (Department of Education, 2001). The ecological approach “transformed the helping professions” as it led to increasing appreciation for the fact that youth behaviour does not occur “in a vacuum” and that there is a strong link between the behaviour and environmental / ecological influences. Bronfenbrenner (1997) refers to these influences as the “circles of influence” (Brendtro, 2006:162-166). He mapped these influences by placing the child (Bergh & Theron, 2005:74; Brendtro, 2006:162-166) at the centre of a series of complex systems: the microsystem, exosystem, and macrosystem. These systems are all depicted in concentric circles (Bronfenbrenner, 1977; 1979). The microsystem consists of, for example, family, friends, the school (including the expectations in the classroom), religious groups, youth groups and neighbourhood connections. These are the most influential circles that make up the immediate life space of children.

The interrelations between home, school and work are referred to as the meso-system while the formal and informal settings (extension of the meso-system) are referred to as the exosystem. The exosystem refers to the work place of parents, neighbourhood and residential settings that contain indirect influences. The exosystem, in turn, is contained within a more distant layer, the macrosystem that includes cultural norms. According to Allen-Meares *et al.* (1996:78) and Brendtro (2006:162-166), the micro- meso- and exosystems are the concrete manifestations of the overarching institutional patterns of the culture, economy, social, education, legal and political systems referred to as the macrosystem (Allen-Meares *et al.*, 1996).

These environments could be responsive to the individual's needs or could even be the origin and maintenance of the symptoms that the individual experiences. Vulnerable children normally have less access to basic services and opportunities in their communities than other children and live in weakened or collapsed social safety networks (USAID, 2007:7). The ecology of modern society is often “inhospitable” and impact negatively on youth at risk (Brendtro *et al.*, 2002:8). Four ecological hazards impact on children and youth, namely:

- Destructive relationships lead to children, who have experienced hurt and rejection, to expect to be hurt again. This then impacts negatively on their ability to form relationships with others
- Climates of futility lead to children feeling inadequate and fearing failure
- Learned irresponsibility cause children to act in an indifferent, defiant and/or rebellious manner to mask their feelings of powerlessness
- Loss of purpose leads to children feeling confused and desperately searching for meaning in a world of confusing values (Brendtro *et al.*, 2002:8).

When rendering services to children all the variables in a child's ecology cannot be dealt with but it is essential to scrutinise the ecology for issues of the most significance (Brendtro, 2006).

The fourth approach to assessment and service delivery is the restorative approach.

4.2.1.4 Restorative approach

A restorative approach is one in which misbehaviour is defined as a violation or harm to people and relationships (Zehr, 1997 as cited by King, 2004:1). This model makes a structure available for working with individuals who have been subjected to harm (the victim) and individuals who have caused harm. It presents occasion for empowerment of both parties in the context of community responsibility (King, 2004:2).

Restorative practices incorporate concentrating on the relationship and how people (in this case children and youth) are affected, restoring broken relationships and discussing the actions without censure or blame. Furthermore, it considers mistakes and misconduct as opportunities for learning and making amends (Harrison, 2007:18). This means that the individual is invited to accept responsibility and, instead of blaming and shaming, healing of the hurt is promoted. Avenues are opened for redress and working relationships between the parties. An example of this is where a child who bullies and a child who is bullied are brought together. Opportunity is given to the victim to express what harm has been done to him and the bully to explain the rationale behind his behaviour (what he hoped to achieve through his behaviour). A joint decision is then made as to how the bully can take responsibility and make amends for his behaviour. It must be cautioned that all cases of bullying behaviour would not necessarily be best dealt with in this manner. It depends on the seriousness of the bullying and the willingness of the parties to participate in the process that calls for them to make themselves vulnerable.

The success achieved by following restorative practices has been documented in research. A significant decrease in referrals of learners, who presented with challenging behaviour, as well as a substantial reduction in out of school suspensions, occurred due to this practice (Harrison, 2007:19). The aim is to build quality relationships within schools, use “teachable moments” to improve learning, settle conflict and restore broken relationships. The foundation of this approach is that problems should be addressed by “working with youth rather than doing things to them or for them” (Harrison, 2007:17) to assist them to make the changes on the inside.

The challenge of the restorative approach is to find a balance between discipline and support (Harrison, 2007:17) and to follow an “authoritative” rather than an “authoritarian” approach when working with children (YMCA of the USA, 2003 as cited by Harrison, 2007:17). In this regard two elements of the restorative approach, namely limit-setting and support, are of great importance (Rodman, 2007:49).

In terms of these approaches to service delivery, each learner’s IDP must focus on assisting him/her to be able to recover from adversity with greater power to meet future challenges (resilience approach) and focus on their strong points rather than on pathology. In doing so, a contribution will be made to their experiences of belonging, mastery, independence and generosity (Circle of Courage approach). In line with the resilience perspective, intervention should build on and promote protective factors on an individual, family and community level. According to the developmental approach, risk reduction strategies must take into account a child’s developmental stage. In line with the ecological-transactional approaches, interventions should be undertaken at multiple levels. In other words, children’s development is the result of multiple individual-context relationships (ecological approach). When children cause harm to others they should be dealt with compassionately and given the opportunity to learn from their mistakes by providing an opportunity for them to restore the relationships with the persons they harmed (restorative approach). This teaches them valuable lessons about taking responsibility for their actions and provides insight into the impact of their behaviour on others. All these approaches inform the development of the IDP of the learner.

4.2.2 Phases of IDP Development

The development of the IDP for each individual learner in an institution, such as the YCEC, requires:

- Coordinating all learner, educator, curriculum and institution development support
- Identifying barriers to learning at learner, educator, curriculum and institutional levels
- Developing strategies to address the identified needs
- Drawing in internal and external resources needed (Longborough, Shera & Wilhelm, 2002:68)

The first phase of the IDP development is the assessment phase during which data collection is undertaken.

4.2.2.1 Assessment phase

Limited methods of assessment must be strongly discouraged because such methods are directed at the child as the problem, rely on so-called “tick-off checklists”, and focus on once-off behaviour or qualities of the child. Assessment should rather be an ongoing process that starts before the child is admitted to the YCEC and continues after he/she returns to his/her family and community.

Due to the range of psychosocial needs that children experience, it is imperative that the skills and knowledge of an array of professionals should be available to ensure a holistic approach to assessment and service delivery. Legislation and mandates, such as job descriptions, determine role formalisation to a large extent but each team member brings a theoretical approach and knowledge base to the table that, for the most part, dictates the roles they will fulfil within the team.

(a) Roles and Responsibilities of the Various Role Players

Understanding of the children’s entry points into service systems and their services pathway is believed to provide vital information about their needs at particular points in time. It is also considered a precursor to assessing the effectiveness of services (Farmer, 2000 as cited by James *et al.*, 2006:198). In this regard, the role of the designated social worker, who influences the referral of the child to the YCEC, is of vital importance.

i. The Designated Social Worker

In terms of subsection 155 of the Children’s Act 38 of 2005, the report of the designated social worker must contain, amongst others, information of the measures recommended to assist the family (RSA, 2005). This could include counselling, mediation, prevention and early intervention services, family reconstruction and rehabilitation, behaviour modification, problem solving, and/or referral to another suitably qualified person or organisation (RSA, 2005). This means that the designated social worker must provide information on how the child came to the point of referral and the cumulative outcome of early trauma and ongoing life stressors on the child (Freado & Heckenlaible-Gotto, 2006:132), as well as his/her strengths. This information forms the basis of the initial assessment made at the YCEC but the IDP must be based on the team’s combined developmental assessment of the learner within three weeks of admission to the YCEC (WCED, 2004b:44). It is therefore important to consider the contributions that each of the team members can make toward the development of the plan.

The next figure indicates the members of the ILST namely the educator, the residential educator, the school social worker, the educational psychologist, the school nurse, and the occupational therapist.

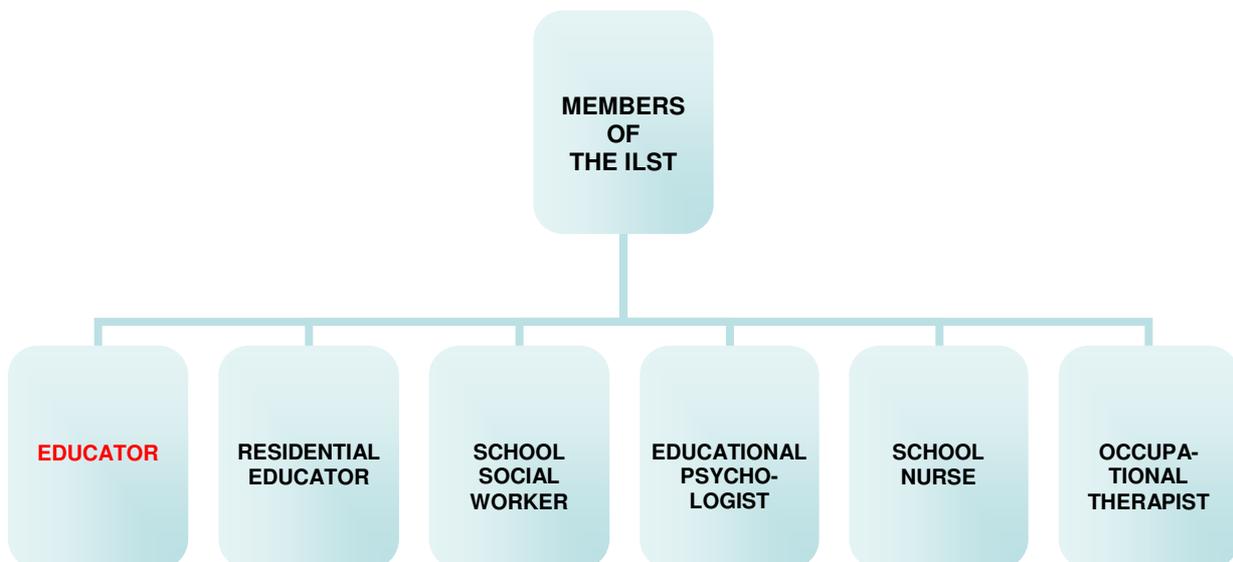


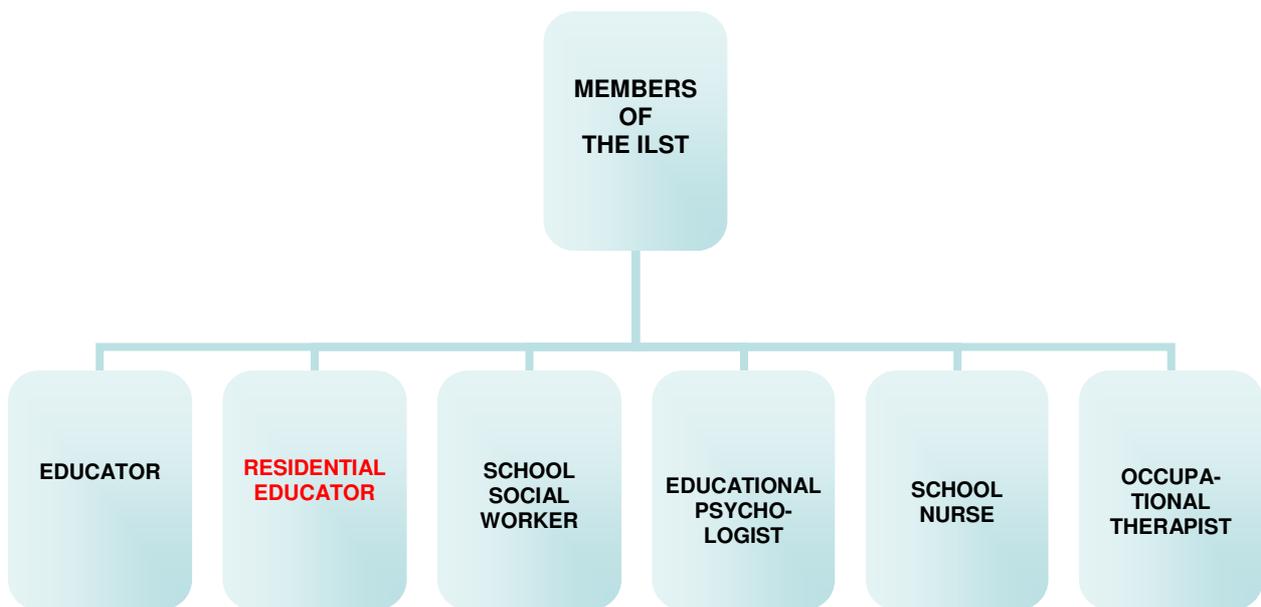
Figure 4.2 Members of the Institutional Level Support Team: The educator

ii. The Educator

Assessment practices of educators must be matched with Outcomes Based Education (OBE). Thus, assessment is defined as the process of identifying, gathering and interpreting information about a learner's achievement, as measured against nationally agreed outcomes for a particular phase of learning (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:44; Department of Education, 1998 4). The outcomes describe what the learner should be able to do by the end of a particular phase of learning. Learner outcome measures incorporate learner contribution to and engagement with schools, how they view their educational functioning, their ability to retain information (school retention), to complete tasks, and their academic results (Silins & Mulford, 2002:562). The focus must be on assessment *for* learning and not *of* the learner or *of* the learning (Bouwer, 2007:46).

The aims of the educational assessment in the YCEC should thus be to classify or grade, facilitate progression, guide development, and provide alternatives. It further strives to identify weaknesses and deal with challenges, to provide feedback and encourage learners. Most of all, it contributes to a multiplicity of learning experiences and provides direction for the individual learner (Du Plessis, Du Plessis & Conley, 2007:70). It is deemed important that educators integrate diagnostic and formative assessment into their teaching (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2007:151). They make use of portfolio assessment, continuous assessment, self-assessment, tests, work sampling, discussion with the learner, checklists, observation, interaction, task accommodations to improve performance, interviews with parents, and assessment in a specific learning area (Bouwer, 2007:59). The educator should inform the other team members of any barriers to learning that need to be addressed and to work in collaboration with them in the addressing thereof.

The second member of the team that is discussed is the residential educator.



4.3 Members of the Institutional Level Support Team: The residential educator

iii. The Residential Educator

The residential educator works in the life space of the learners and is responsible for every aspect of the hostel activities where the children and youth spend a great deal of their time. This means that the residential educator exercises overall control in respect of the discipline and spirit in the hostel, including the welfare, study and recreation of learners (RSA, 1998b). Because the residential educators have access to learners a substantial part of the day, when learners might be more relaxed and “off guard”, they can seize opportunities to provide ongoing assessment. This includes assessing children’s natural relationships and natural circumstances as well as providing feedback to other staff members on the strengths and needs of the learners. The stressors that set off behaviour and the frequency of the behaviour should be assessed in order to provide assistance for youth to learn resilient ways of coping with these stressors (Winter & Preston, 2006:173). It also means that a strengths-based approach must be applied to the observation of the behaviour of the learner. One of the core facets of the strengths-based approach is identifying what occurs when things are going well with the child or youth, so that it may be rekindled or further developed (Gleason, 2007:52, 53). This information must be shared with the other team members in order for them to gain a better understanding of the strengths of and challenges that the child experience.

The third member of the ILST is the school social worker.

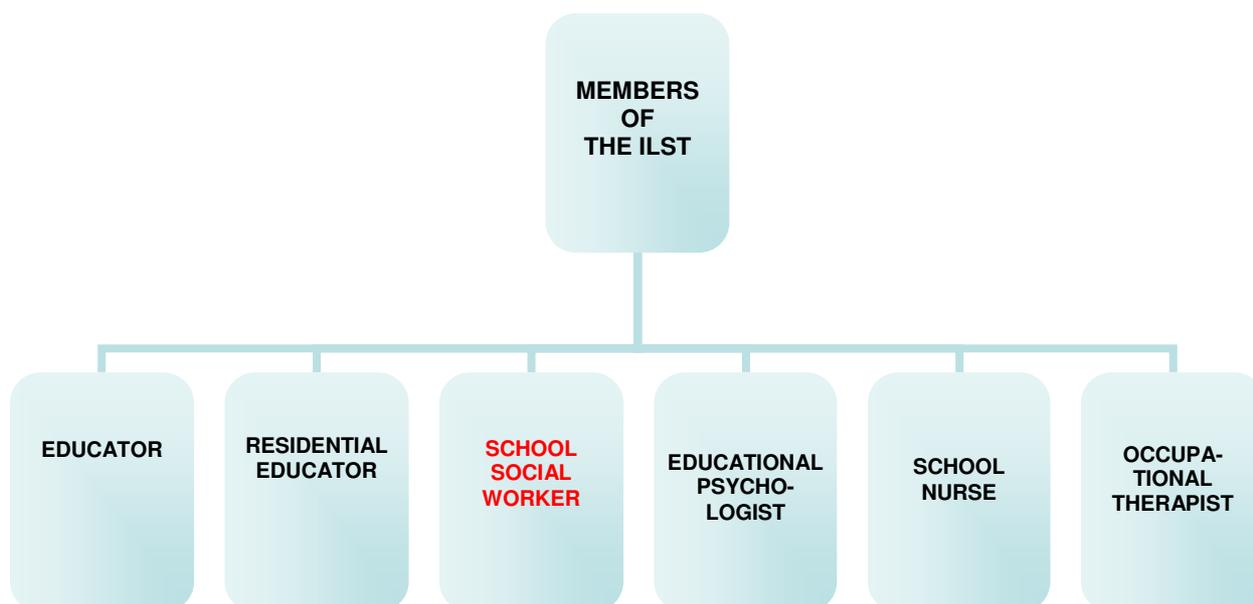


Figure 4.4: Members of the Institutional Level Support Team: The school social worker

iv. The School Social Worker

School social workers assist learners with school-, family- and community problems and also work with parents and educators and other education staff. They assist learners academically and socially, act as a link between home and school, make referrals to community agencies, render crisis intervention and provide prevention programmes (<http://internationalschoolsocialwork>). The profession is committed to the pursuit of social justice, to the enhancement of the quality of life, and to the development of the full potential of each individual group and community in society (Wikipedia: downloaded on 10 October 2008).

Most social workers' assessments should be explored as a legalistic task, maintained by a system of rights, responsibilities and openness about power differences (Holland 2004:28). The ability of social workers to “work against lay interpretation and human tendencies” is what distinguishes them as professionals (Holland, 2004:144). Amongst others, the social work assessment includes a social and family history to gain a better understanding of the barriers to learning that the child or young person experiences (Tonon, 2002:116). In other

words, the school social worker seeks to find an explanation of how a family of a learner has arrived at the present problematic condition where their child had to be removed from them and placed in residential care. The aim is to appreciate how the family members, including the child, feel about and maintain the problems in order to assist them in gaining insight into the contributing factors, from an ecological perspective, so that they can move forward (Holland, 2004: 36 and 127).

The Department of Health, the Department for Education and Employment, Home Office, (2000 as cited by Parker and Bradley, (2006: 19) suggest that the following information be gathered when assessing a child or young person:

- The child's development needs in relation to health issues, educational and behavioural development, identity, family and social relationships, social presentation and self-care skills
- The parenting capacity of main carers relating to basic care, ensuring safety, emotional warmth, stimulation, guidance, setting boundaries and maintaining stability
- Family and environmental factors with regards to family history and functioning, extended family, housing, employment, income, family and social integration, and community resources.

The Children's Act 38 of 2005, as amended, defines what elements constitute the best interest of the child and this should be included in the assessment done by the social worker (RSA, 2005).

Once the facts about the family situation have been gathered, others inside and outside the YCEC should be consulted to confirm or reinforce the information. This information must be interpreted to the rest of the team in order for them to understand the child better and to work towards addressing his/her needs.

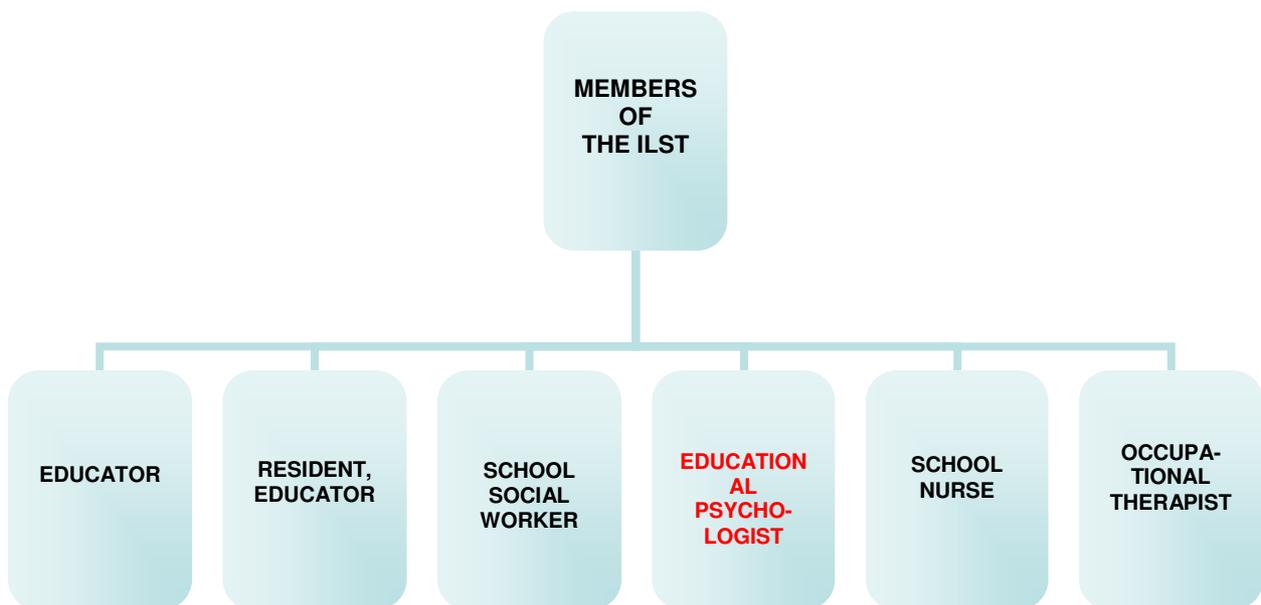


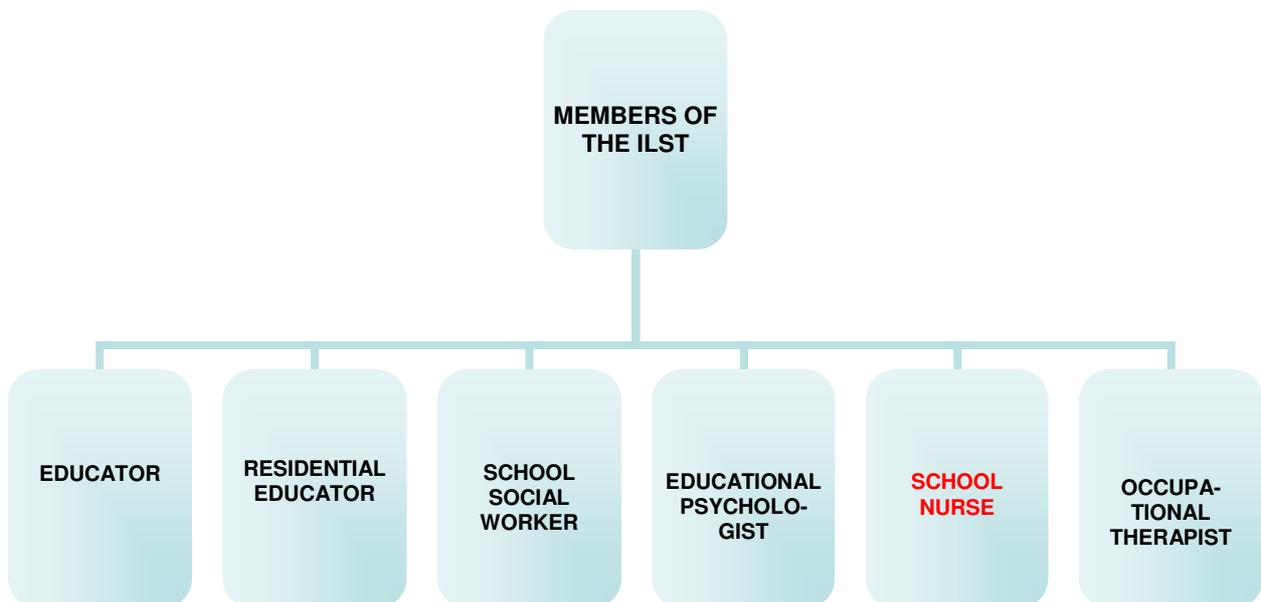
Figure 4.5: Members of the Institutional Level Support Team: The educational psychologist

v. The Educational Psychologist

Educational psychologists (EPs) apply principles of clinical psychology and education psychology to make a diagnosis of learners' behavioural and learning barriers. They study learning of learners and teaching by educators. At the same time, they strive to improve educational practice of educators (Pintrich, 2000 as cited by Woolfolk, 2007:9). The distinction between educational psychology and other fields of psychology is the emphasis it places on understanding and enhancing education, and the thought processes as well as actions and feelings of educators and learners within the learning environments (Johnson, e al., 2007:2). The educational psychologists identify conditions conducive to learning and determine how teaching can bring about effective learning (Mwamwenda, 1990:4).

Psychological assessment is defined as a process–orientated activity whereby a wide array of information is gathered by using assessment measures that include tests and information from many other sources. Information is gathered via interviews, a person’s history and collateral sources. All this information is then evaluated and integrated to reach a conclusion or make a decision (Foxcroft & Rood 2002:4). At school level, the EP takes the responsibility for assessing, in particular, the developmental processes of learners within the school systems and other systems such as families. They should confer with other team members about learning and behavioural challenges that learners present. Part of the role of the EP is studying the child in the classroom or in other settings (such as the playground), considering educator behaviour and looking at the suitability of the curriculum (Hickmore, 2000:108-109). The child’s reaction to formal learning situations and the defences he/she uses to manage anxiety (Dover-Council, 1997 as cited by Morton, 2000:143) are observed and explained to the other team members.

Another member of the ILST is the school nurse.



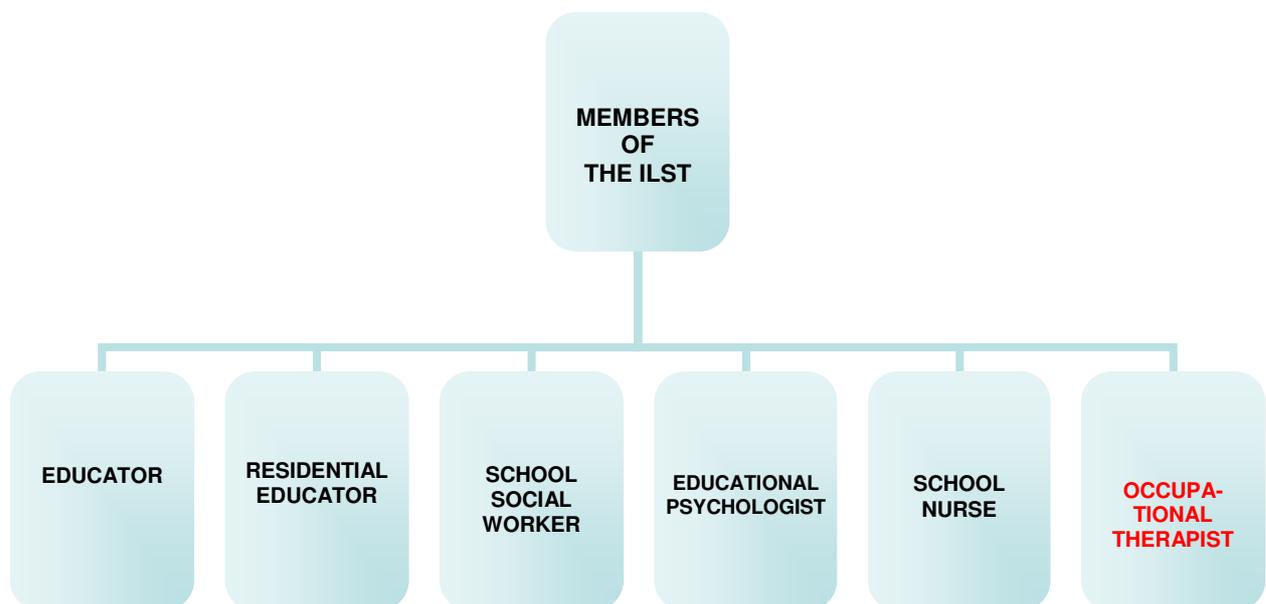
**Figure 4.6 Members of the Institutional Level Support Team:
The school nurse.**

vi. The School Nurse

Nurses have knowledge of disease, the nursing process, skills for performing treatments and procedures, and an understanding of the normal growth of children (Strawhacker,

2001:214). One of the roles of the school nurse is to conduct a health screening, upon the child's admission, in order to identify children at risk of health barriers that can influence learning (Valenzano, Rader, Luker & Hollingsworth, 2007:97). This should lead to the development of health care plans for individual learners, interpretation of the child's health needs to the rest of the team, and enlisting their support in matters such as encouraging children to use their medication.

Another member of the ILT is the occupational therapist.



4.7 Members of the Institutional Level Support Team: The occupational therapist

vii. The Occupational Therapist

Occupational therapy is a health profession that finds its origins in a strong belief in the therapeutic value of occupations and how these contribute to health, mental health and well-being (Blair & Hume, 2002:18; Creek, 2002a:18, 19). Occupational therapy is concerned with the 'form, the function and the meaning of occupation" (Blair & Hume, 2002:22). It is believed that the purpose and meaning inherent in the activities with which a person (in this case a child) chooses to become involved, can contribute to mental health.

Occupational therapists (OTs) are not only concerned with the individual child as he/she is functioning at the present moment but also with how he/she functioned in the past. In addition, it is important to observe how he/she functions at various times and in diverse settings (Creek, 2002a:30). "The value of OT is, therefore, crucially linked to the role of activity, work and occupation in integrating the physical, psychological and social functions of human beings" (Creek, 2002a:198; Blair & Hume, 2002:22). The OT should inform the other staff members of his/her observations but could also, to a certain degree, assist them with identifying learners with special needs.

Each team member brings to the team an assessment of the child based on his or her theoretical framework, model of service delivery and field of expertise. This asks for the interpretation of the needs of the child from that particular perspective for the other members of the team and enlisting their cooperation so that they can jointly address the identified barriers and contribute to the enhancement of the positive qualities of the child. Team members can only successfully develop an integrated individualised plan for the child if they are open to each other's perspectives on the circumstances of the child. They can, however, not be effective if they do not view the child and his parent(s) or guardians as important sources of information.

(b) Other Sources of Information

In order to ensure comprehensive assessment, information should be obtained from other sources. These include the child and the parents / guardians.

i. The Child

Policy documents such as the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations, 1989), the Constitution (RSA, 1993) and the Children's Act 38 of 2005 (RSA, 2005) indicate the importance of children's participation in matters relating to them. It has, however, been found that despite a rhetoric of agency, the reality is that learners remain objects of elite adult plans (Thomson, 2007:181). The child or young person should always be held at the centre of thinking to increase the likelihood of improvement and progress on the part of the child (Soan, 2006:210). In the process of identifying his/her needs he/she should be seen as an untapped expert on his/her life (Brendtro & Shahbazian, 2004; Heckenlaible-Gotto, 2006:130) and a primary data source (Brendtro, Du Toit, Bath & Van Bockern, 2006:138). The views of children should not only be sought but should also be taken into account when decisions

regarding them are made (Hickmore, 2000:109; Brooke & Welton, 2003:8; UNICEF, 2003:2; RSA, 2005). Child participation also includes representation by someone else of his/her views (RSA, 2005). This means that the child can be represented by a caring adult or even by a legal representative.

The child must experience the staff as forming an alliance with him/her (Gilliam & Scott, 1998) with the purpose of assisting him/her. In this regard, the child should also be given transparent information about the assessment and how it could benefit him/her (Zickel & Arnold, 2001:72). Unfortunately, children's voices are frequently ignored in the development of this individualised document (Asp-Onsjo, 2004 as cited by Tennant, 2007:205). Other important sources of information are the parent/s or guardian/s of the child.

ii. The Parent(s) / Guardian(s)

Parents can assist the professionals to understand the needs and strengths of their children better. They can provide information regarding their child's routine at home (Tisot & Thurman, 2002 as cited by Jung *et al.*, 2008:26), the things that they normally do with the child, as well as the child's likes, dislikes, strengths, needs, interests and motivations.

When working with parents and families of children and youth, assessors must move away from the position of acting as specialists on other people's lives and rather position themselves as listeners and catalysts (Parton & O'Brien, 2000 as cited by Holland, 2004:3). It is, however, imperative that parents must understand that they cannot simply deliver their children for treatment and collect them fully healed (Rodman, 2007:50). They also have to make a contribution to this healing process.

When engaging parents in assessment their contribution must be respected and they should be viewed as partners with the professional staff (Wearmouth, McKinney & Glynn, 2007:48). This includes the knowledge that parents have about their own actual and potential assets (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2007:121). When parents feel valued, listened to and understood they are prepared to collaborate with the staff. In other words, parents must be included in decision-making in a respectful, non-judgmental way and supported to assist their child. Factors that could encourage parental / family participation include a welcoming school climate, responsiveness to family needs, family-friendly school policies and procedures, and staff's willingness to collaborate with the parents. When

working with parents the role of the father figure must also not be underestimated. Assessment should be ongoing and could include an assortment of assessments that serve different purposes at different times.

(c) Types of Assessment of Challenging Behaviour

All the young people that have been referred to the YCEC present with challenging behaviour. Assessment of their behaviour is therefore important in order to assist the children to find more appropriate ways of dealing with situations. According to the statistics of Olivier (2008) 47,9% of the children admitted to the YCECs during 2008 (included in this study) were involved in criminal activities. These included the following categories:

Table 4.5: Reasons for referrals of children and youth to YCECs

NATURE OF REFERRAL	YCEC 1	YCEC	YCEC 3	YCEC	TOTAL
Housebreaking and theft	5	35	23	10	73
Theft / Theft from a motor vehicle	17	18	31	5	71
Possession of stolen goods	1	4	1	3	9
Behavioural difficulties	55	35	71	56	217
Assault	3	7	9	1	20
Rape / Indecent assault	2	0	0	2	4
Robbery	3	4	5	0	12

NATURE OF REFERRAL	YCEC 1	YCEC	YCEC 3	YCEC 4	TOTAL
Possession of a weapon	0	0	2	0	2
Deliberate damage to property	1	5	2	0	8
Attempted murder / murder	0	1	0	0	1
Possession of drugs	3	5	7	1	16

Source: Olivier, 2008

It is clear that most of the children and youth (217) experienced behavioural problems and (216) were involved in criminal activities that ranged from crimes of dishonesty to murder. The assessment of challenging behaviour is, therefore, of the utmost importance to effectively assist the children and youth. When assessing challenging behaviour, all the team members look for clarity regarding the major aspects affecting the child and his/her conduct and resolve how to bring about changes to have a positive effect on his/her behaviour (Hickmore, 2000:115). Deficit-based approaches to assessing behaviour have proven unhelpful as it does not provide sufficient information about the function or purpose of the behaviour and what interventions would be useful. Watson & Steege (2003:36) agree that children's behaviour serves a function. This means that they hope to have a need met through the behaviour. For this reason intervention based on the function of challenging behaviour, rather than on the form of behaviour, provides positive behaviour change (Watson & Steege, 2003:36 referring to the findings of Kennedy *et al.*, 2000 and Wachter *et al.*, 1990). It also enables service providers to design appropriate intervention plans for positive behaviour adaptation.

Functional Behaviour Assessment (FBA) provides a framework for the assessment of youth with challenging behaviour that moves to a deeper level of understanding of the child.

i. Functional Behaviour Assessment (FBA)

The children that are admitted to the YCECs often have shocking and heartbreaking stories of having to endure rejection, desertion, violent behaviour or mistreatment at the hand of adults or peers. The defences used by them signify that they lack confidence, are sad and frequently incapable of establishing significant relationships with others. An example of an assessment that has proven helpful in working with children and youth who present with challenging behaviour is the Functional Behavioural Assessment (FBA). This form of assessment is mandated by federal law (amended Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA)) in the United States of America and based on the Circle of Courage philosophy. The goals of the FBA are to detect the most challenging behaviours and the needs related to the behaviour as well as to plan restorative interventions (Winter & Preston, 2006:171-174). This kind of assessment includes a systematic and thoughtful approach to addressing these challenging behaviours. It assists with understanding why an individual displays behaviour in a particular setting and at a particular time. It is based on the premise that behaviour does not occur in a vacuum.

The aim of the FBA is to prevent long out of school suspensions for learners who present with challenging behaviour. Issues that are considered when undertaking the assessment are the strengths of the learner, the concerns of the parents / guardians and the results of the latest assessments. Attention is given to behavioural interventions that have already taken place and of programme-wide management of the presenting behaviour.

The most challenging conduct of the child and the needs connected to the actions are then identified and restorative interventions developed. It is deemed as very important that the members of the ILST must provide an explanation regarding the intent of the action and that they develop helpful interventions since behaviour is viewed as the youth's effort to manage challenges and meet personal needs (Winter & Preston, 2006:171-173). Positive results, with the management of challenging behaviour, are obtained when thorough consideration of all the aspects is effected.

Watson & Steege (2003) refer to three functions of behaviour. The first function is positive reinforcement (including the search for social attention), access to activities and

access to things. Secondly, negative reinforcement refers to escape or avoidance of unpleasant stimuli / situations. Thirdly, when both positive and negative reinforcement come into play sensory stimulation and cognitively mediated events occur. These must be taken into account by the members of the ILST when a programme is developed for the learner.

Another type of assessment of challenging behaviour that can make a contribution to the decision making process of the team is the developmental audit.

ii. Developmental Audit

The developmental audit is a short or extensive strength-based assessment used in education, juvenile justice, mental health and child welfare systems (Freado & Heckenlaible-Gotto, 2006:133; Brendtro *et al.*, 2006:139). The developmental audit is rooted in recognising a child's "private logic" and goals (Doerr, 2008:24). It is a tool for planning restorative outcomes for youth and provides a clear understanding of the problems and strengths of a young person, which forms the basis for effective intervention. The developmental audit draws practice proficiency from Responsibility Pathways (RAP), Life Space Crisis Intervention (LSCI), and Positive Peer Culture (PPC) (Brendtro, Du Toit, Bath & Van Bockern, 2006:138). These are discussed in Chapter 5.

The audit includes identifying information about the presenting problem, important life events, strengths and supports, private logic, coping strategies of the youth, and goals for growth (Brendtro & Shahbazian, 2004 as cited by Doerr, 2008:24; Brendtro, Du Toit, Bath & Van Bockern, 2006:144). With the intention of filling in gaps in information, a meta-review of obtainable records are carried out, the ecology of the child is scrutinised, significant developmental timelines of behaviour are followed, and the needs to be attended to in a restorative plan, are identified (Freado & Heckenlaible-Gotto, 2006:133). Key components of the developmental audit is the focus on strengths, development of respectful associations, recognition of significant links in the environment, clarification of coping conduct that causes risk or resilience, and enlisting of youth in the search for restorative solutions (Brendtro, Du Toit, & Van Bockern as cited by Doerr, 2008:24).

It is important that the members of the ILST at the YCEC adapt assessments to ensure that the right questions are asked that will lead to the development of targeted

strategies. These will, in turn, ensure individualised, tailor-made services to children and youth in YCECs.

4.2.2.2 Intervention phase

In implementing service delivery strategies all learner-, educator-, curriculum- and institution development support in the YCEC must be coordinated by the ILST.

(a) Selection of Intervention Strategies

The systematic plan for intervention (called the IDP), developed by the team members, must connect goals with strategies that they can, without effort, slot into the usual daily activities of the child (Jung *et al.*, 2008:26). The IDP must clearly outline the strategies required to accomplish the plan. It must further be ensured that all the team members apply the selected strategies and that each of them knows the roles they must fulfil from their particular professional perspective.

The most powerful interventions with children and youth are those that seek to build a supportive ecology around them (Bronfenbrenner, 2005 as cited by Brendtro, 2006). Interventions selected in the past were often based on a personal decision of one team member who chose these interventions based on literature reviews that he/she undertook (Watson & Steege, 2003:2). The choice of interventions was based on these having been demonstrated in the literature to be effective with individuals who displayed similar challenging behaviours. In other instances the team chose an intervention for assisting children and youth that they had already implemented effectively. The selection of intervention strategies must now, in terms of the changed child and youth policies, be a joint effort by all the members of the ILST (Department of Education, 2001; WCED, 2004b). Principles of service delivery, as set out in these policy documents, must be followed.

(b) Principles of Service Delivery in Implementing Interventions

Individualised assessments must lead to individualised services and programmes that are multifaceted. This means that multiple intervention strategies must be used with

multiple targets and have multiple specific goals. Provision must be made for a variety of educational, therapeutic, recreational and cultural enrichment programmes (WCED, 2004b). In addition, sustained expert assistance for the particular child must be deployed purposefully. Each team member has to be aware of what his/her role is in the implementation and monitoring of the IDP. It is also crucial that an “ongoing cycle of planning for and review of needs occur” (Scottish Executive, 2001 as cited by Thomson, 2007:278; WCED, 2005). Everything in the institution must be done with a singular purpose in mind, namely to help, encourage and prod the high risk children and youth to turn their lives around before it is too late (Kongshem, 1996:39).

Dawes & Donald (2000:1) reiterate that the design, delivery and effectiveness of psychosocial intervention with children and adolescents will be enhanced if they are underpinned by theory and research. When selecting the strategies to address identified needs, it is important for the ILST to decide upon the criteria for change.

(c) Criteria for Change

Regarding the hoped for change in the child, Holland (2004:51) refers to two lines of thought among social workers that participated in her research. The one group was of the view that change should be “demonstrable, measurable, real, tested, sustained, consistent, maintained and positive”. The other group touched on the importance of change in terms of “potential, capacity, prospect for, ability to and commitment”. It would be important for the team members to consider these carefully and to include the child in setting the goals and in developing and executing the intervention programmes (Zickel & Arnold, 2001:71). The changes hoped for can be behavioural and/or attitudinal in nature (Holland, 2004:51). Behavioural change could include that the child does not react in an aggressive way to teasing by peers whilst attitudinal change could be that a child no longer resists assistance from staff.

(d) Setting of Objectives within Time-frames

When discussing the implementation of the IDP, realistic time-frames should be set for the attainment of the goals. This must be discussed with the child so that he/she can understand that his/her everyday life will be affected by the objectives, strategies, adaptations and implementation of his/her individualised programme (Zickel & Arnold, 2001:71). The child should be in a position to indicate what he/she thinks he/she will be

able to accomplish (Kamens, 2004:77) within the set time-frames. The application and relevance of the objectives set to the child's life and family life must be emphasised.

This will contribute to him/her understanding that his/her return home, in due course, will have some bearing on his/her placement stability and behaviour. It is believed that youth who are hopeful in this regard will present with more positive behaviour and cooperate with the staff in reaching the goals set in his/her IDP. Despite this, the research findings of Zickel & Arnold (2001:72) were that many children did not know what the content of their IDP was and if they knew they could not make sense out of it.

In order to reach their goals children must be enlisted in a "reflective process" to get to know their "private logic". This includes reflecting on their strong points and limitations / weaknesses and on what weak points stop them from doing their best as well as how they can prevail over those weaknesses (Zickel & Arnold, 2001:72). In addition, the staff and children must come to a decision of how their strong points can support or build on their limitations and set objectives regarding which abilities they would like to improve with the assistance of the professionals. Only if this information is available will goals be understood and will interventions be successful (Brendtro *et al.*, 2006:138, 139).

When the child visits home during weekends and school holidays the parents can play an important role in assisting with the implementation of the goals of the IDP.

(e) Parental Involvement

In order to assist the child in reaching the objectives of his individualised plan, parents must be aware of the objectives set for the child in order to avoid that they work at cross purposes with the team members. They can be assisted to also address the child's target behaviour when he/she spends holidays and weekends at home. In addition, they can provide opportunities for the child to practice the skills he/she learnt in the institution within his/her home and community. It would also be particularly helpful if parents and family, even neighbours, could assist by recording the frequency of the child's / young person's behaviour.

(d) Contribution of the Team Members

All staff members must be involved in the implementation of the IDP.

i. The Roles and Responsibilities of the Educator

The roles of the educator prescribed by the Department of Education (Department of Education, 2000a) include the role of mediator of learning; the role of interpreter and designer of learning programmes and materials, as well as being an assessor and an area / subject / discipline / phase specialist; the role of pastoral caregiver and leader; and administrator and manager (Du Plessis, Conley & Du Plessis, 2007:1).

South Africa's National Curriculum framework guides educators in the role of a mediator of learning. This framework, which sets out the country's education goals (Du Plessis, Conley & Du Plessis, 2007:47), is a critical vehicle for reaching children and youth. It also provides information and skills for the promotion of health, security and welfare (Frank, 2006:42). The curriculum relates to the aims and purpose of the entire schooling programme. The delivery of the curriculum encapsulates the syllabus, how programmes are structured and the process and methods of teaching and learning. It also includes the nature of extramural activities, the structure of staff-learner relationships and leadership and management structures and procedures (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2007: 19). The primary function of the educator is to provide learners with appropriate grade-level instruction and academic guidance.

Teaching is the creation of learning opportunities for learning as well as the process of helping learners to learn (Du Plessis, Conley & Du Plessis, 2007:2; Landsberg, 2007:68). The essence of being an effective educator lies in knowing how to foster learners' learning. The efficient educator is someone who is capable of inspiring, motivating and challenging learners but who takes the final accountability for organising their learning (Harris, 1999:31). This is a challenge for educators in institutions such as the YCECs as these learners' emotional / behavioural and academic disabilities often led to school problems and/or failure causing negative self-image that led to dropout, suspension and involvement in criminal activities. This is referred to as the school failure theory (Osher, Woodruff & Sims, 2002).

Furthermore, the experience of these learners of having learning disabilities oftentimes led to personality and cognitive deficits that prompted them to demonstrate antisocial behaviour. These include inadequately developed impulse control, touchiness, suggestibility, incapability to foresee consequences, and lacking perception of social signals. This is known as the susceptibility theory.

The underdevelopment of these learners' problem solving strategies and their inadequate social-cognitive development, in general, makes them more susceptible to present with challenging behaviour (Larson, 2006). This is referred to as the meta-cognitive deficits theory. In other words, not only do the learners experience learning difficulties they, for the most part, develop a learnt helplessness due to their past failures. Their maladaptive way of dealing with these difficulties pose further problems. The educator will have to understand the learner's attitude towards learning and be able to manage and guide the learner in the process. This means that more attention might have to be given to these attitudes before the child will be able to benefit from the educational opportunities provided. The negative attitude of some high-risk children became clear when they indicated, to the probation officer at the youth court, that they would prefer to await trial in prison where they would not attend school than in a place of safety where they would be forced to attend school.

The second role that the educator fulfils is that of interpreter and designer of learning programmes and materials. Educators must make a mind shift from working within the categorical system of classification and service delivery to emphasising individualised instruction (Landsberg, 2007:68). This means that they should follow more inclusive approaches to the design of the curriculum and to teaching methods (Department of Education, 2001c; Keil, Miller & Cobb, 2006:169). In terms of inclusion, major changes must occur in the education classroom ensuring that learners with learning difficulties are accommodated adequately. Thus, the classroom management, the curriculum, instructional practices and organisation should be changed to better meet the needs of learners rather than expecting of them to adapt to the classroom (Mcleskey & Waldron, 2002:65).

The third role assigned to the educator is the pastoral role. The pastoral role of the educator refers to the learner-educator relationship. The educator is one of the most powerful adults in the youths' expanding world. The educator-learner connection is of vital significance because of the implication it has for children's school related outcomes (Blankemeyer, Flannery & Vazsonyi, 2002:293). Murray & Greenberg (2001) found that a supportive child-teacher relationship positively correlated with positive school-related adjustment. For children with interpersonal and emotional problems, educators can be a source of assistance. The view of the educator as caring or indifferent has an impact on learners' level of engagement in school and their perseverance in seeking assistance (Montalvo, Mansfield & Miller, 2007:144, 145). According to Valenzuela (1999 as cited

by Woolfolk, 2007:83), “[c]hildren needed to be cared for before they could care about school”. This is of particular importance to the learners at the YCECs as they mostly did not have good relationships with their educators.

For the purpose of this study, the administrative managerial role will not be discussed.

The second team member that contributes to the implementation of the IDP is the residential educator.

ii. The Roles and Responsibilities of the Residential Educator

The YCEC provides a 24 hours service and learners live on the premises in hostels. The residential educators are on duty after 14h00 during the week and certain hours during weekends and public holidays. As the YCEC can be viewed as a community in itself, it necessitates a wide range of services that encompass the youth’s entire daily activities. The main roles of the residential educator are, therefore, supervision and instruction; identification of barriers to learning; monitoring of the progress with objectives of the IDP; and life space intervention. These roles are briefly discussed here but are further explained when the monitoring and implementation of the IDP is discussed.

The residential educator must ensure that the learner receives supervision and instruction whilst in the hostel. He/she is further responsible for developing, coordinating and facilitating educational / developmental programmes outside the classroom for the learners (Provinsiale Administrasie: Wes-Kaap, 1998:2), in line with the IDP of each learner, that address their needs for socialisation, recreation and rehabilitation.

Residential educators are in the ideal position to monitor progress made by the learner with the goals set in his/her IDP. He/she must assist learners to exercise the skills they learnt in other settings whether it is via individual assistance or group involvement. The residential educator must also identify what needs the youth experiences by constantly assessing his/her behaviour. It must, amongst others, be established whether the youth is in touch with his/her own feelings and able to express it, as well as able to make friends, engage in a civil conversation, deal with someone else’s anger, use self-control, and stand up for his/her rights. When it comes to relationships with co-learners in the institution the young person often does not have the skills to respond to teasing, avoid

getting into trouble with others, keep out of fights, deal with being left out, and respond to persuasion. This should be dealt with in the learner's life space.

The residential educator can assist the learner in his life space by connecting his/her current behaviour to previous behaviour in similar circumstances. This means that the residential educator can help the child to understand that his/her challenging behaviour has taken on a pattern and is not a once-off occurrence. Assistance should then be given to how he/she can deal with the same situation, in a more appropriate manner, in future. These social learning situations must be dealt with in a professional way as to avoid that the young person feels rejected (Social Skills Enhancement, 2002:1). This means that the residential educator must observe the challenging behaviour with which the youth presents as his/her "attempt, however maladaptive, to cope with challenges and meet personal needs" (Winter & Preston, 2006:173) and address this.

The third member of the ILST that contributes to the implementation of the IDP is the school social worker.

iii. The Roles and Responsibilities of the School Social Worker

School social work services were introduced to the education system because it is understood that schools can bring little influence to bear on a child's achievement when the school operates independent of the child's background and general social context. The social difficulties imposed on children by their home, neighbourhood and peers spill over into the school environment and become the social barriers to learning in the classroom. These include risk factors that need to be addressed

Risk factors within the family and home environment could include inconsistent, excessive or indulgent discipline as well as inadequate parental monitoring (Bemak & Keys 2000:17-18; Farrar 2006:37; Davis & Campher, 2008:140-141). This will contribute to a learner expecting the same treatment from adults and not connecting with them. Family stressors (such as poverty and substance abuse), overcrowding and a lack of privacy, and competition for scarce resources are also risk factors. This has oftentimes contributed to the children becoming involved in criminal activities such as theft.

The absent or not fully present male role models, especially for boys (Bemak & Keys 2000:17-20; Morrell, 2001:51; Ketterman, 2002:8; Murray, 2003:4; Farrar, 2006:85; David & Campher, 2008), also pose risks as the children tend to experience “father hunger” or “mentor hunger” (Canfield, 1996: 22, 35; Biddulph, 2004: 19) that leads to them connecting with other male role models, such as gang members. In this regard, Rossouw (2007:6) found that 41,53% of the 197 learners from YCECs had no contact with their fathers and 12% had limited contact with them. Similar information was reflected in the statistics kept from the records of all the children referred to the YCECs in the Western Cape during 2008. According to the referral reports 90% of the children had no involvement from their fathers (Olivier, 2008).

There are also several risk factors within the community. According to Braithwaite (1989 as cited by Rodman, 2007:50) healthy communities have two characteristics, namely “interdependency and communitarianism”. If these are not present children are at serious risk. Communities where high-risk youths live are often hostile, have high crime rates (HSRC 2006:6), have a high degree of community disorganisation (Donald, Dawes & Louw 2000:11-12) and alcohol and drugs are available. This renders them particularly vulnerable to criminal involvement and abuse of dependence-producing substances.

The school also influences the child in a profound way as a great deal of his/her days is spent there. Smyth (2006 as cited by Gunter & Thomson, 2007:185) explores the increasing worldwide confirmation that, for a disappointingly large number of youth, school is an alienating, bewildering, unsatisfying, unrewarding and damaging process, to the point where many make an active decision to give up, drift off, or drop out altogether. For the most part, schools lack effective strategies for incorporating at-risk learners as productive members of the broader educational community (Schreur, 2006:106-111).

Poor quality schools with low prospects for learner achievement, a non-demanding syllabus, unsuccessful management, and poor connections among school staff, parents and learners are also risk factors (Durlak, 1998 as cited by Minnard, 2001:233). Exclusionary aspects (push factors) at schools include large classes, examination orientated education systems, lack of support services, rigid teaching methods, and assessment dominated by the medical model (Thomson, 1998 as cited by Hay, Smit & Paulsen, 2001:214; Van Niekerk & Prins, 2001 as cited by Booyens, Beukman & Bezuidenhout, 2008:27). These factors contribute to a “cycle of discouragement”, premature disengaging from school, suspension and involvement in criminal activities (Brendtro, Brokenleg & Van Bockern 2002:60-61).

Children and youth in YCECs are the most excluded children due to untreated educational difficulties that impact negatively on them and present a challenge for the adults that work with them especially in the school setting. This was confirmed by Rossouw (2007: 19) who found that one hundred and thirty seven (69,54%) of the children who were referred to the YCECs and Special YCECs, during 2007, had dropped out of school prior to their admission to the centres. Olivier, 2008 found that 98% of the children who were referred to YCECs in the Western Cape in 2008 had dropped out of school before being found in need of care (Olivier, 2008).

A very real risk factor for children and youth is the influence of the peers with whom they associate. Pro-social children tend to choose pro-social peers (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998 as cited by Dawes & Donald, 2000:9). The opposite is also true. Association with undesirable friends / gang members and susceptibility to peer pressure has been found to contribute to especially boys presenting with challenging behaviour. The abuse of dependence-producing substances and bully behaviour are also attributed to, amongst others, peer pressure (Head 1999:143; Kronick 2002:11; Gillman 2003:48; Murray 2003:35; Rossouw, 2007:38). Furthermore, boys are particularly at risk of verbal and physical abuse from other young men (Gillman 2003:229).

When rendering services, school social workers, therefore, follow the intricacy of the influences, associations and interrelationships connecting the individual learner and several other systems. Trained to understand human behaviour, psychopathologies and social problems, they utilise different techniques of intervention and different approaches to assist their client system. They are thus responsible for the promotion of social functioning and amelioration of environmental circumstances that hamper the developmental process (Allen-Meares *et al.*, 1996:51). In rendering services, the school social worker considers and increases the protective factors in the lives of the children.

Protective factors for children are referred to as factors that “insulate” children from a problem (Mbambo, 2001:36). These could be contextual factors and within-child factors (Thomson, 2007:274). Three main sources of resilience are identified as a secure base, self-esteem and self-efficiency (Gilligan, 2000:45). Children raised in secure environments are expected to develop the qualities of self-control that predispose them to achievement in other settings (Donald, Dawes & Louw, 2000: 8). Within the family and community setting the protective factors include positive, safe relationships, satisfactory socio-economic status, family members having a reasonable level of

education, and positive aspects in the neighbourhood and/or wider community. Protective factors within the school include opportunities to experience mastery and an encouraging educator. Good cognitive aptitude, social capability, and positive self-awareness are protective factors within the child (Blankemeyer, Flannery & Vazsonyi, 2002:302; Meyer, 1999 and Dent & Cameron, 2003 as cited by Thomson, 2007:273).

The fourth member of the team responsible for the implementation of the IDP is the educational psychologist.

iv. The Roles and Responsibilities of the Educational Psychologist

Within the YCEC the roles of the educational psychologist (EP) include secondary and tertiary prevention; specific direct and indirect interventions; facilitating change; individual and group counselling; crisis intervention; and lifespan development. This would necessitate EPs to fulfil the roles of expert consultants, organisational facilitators and collaborators in school improvement, school transformation and intersectoral cooperation. They also assist schools to set up systems for including and supporting learners who are facing barriers to learning and in assisting educators and school managers to foster mentally healthy learners. Within the school system, school psychologists are not only concerned with the psychological well-being of the child but also with their educational well-being (Barwick, 2000:1).

Various researchers have found a high incidence of emotional needs in children in out-of-home settings (Burns *et al.*, 2004; James, Leslie, Hurlburt, Slymen, Landsverk, Davis, Mathiesen & Zhang, 2006:196-200). They found that 45% of the children, they studied, in out-of-home care scored in the clinical range for externalising or internalising behavioural problems. About one fifth of the sample experienced “measurable developmental challenges”. Meltzer (2003) as cited by Upton, Maddocks, Eiser, Barnes & Williams, (2005:410) found that young people in care are four to five times more prone to have mental health problems than those in the broad population. The Child Welfare League of America (2005 as cited by Barth *et al.*, 2007:46) reported that more than 80% of children in out-of-home care presented with Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties (EBD). Children with EBD often have a history of maltreatment or other family dysfunction (Harden, 2004 as referred to by Barth *et al.*, 2007:47). This needs to be addressed in the YCEC.

The psychologist should tend to the emotional needs of children and youth in the YCEC. When entering the institution they experience feelings that range from loss, pain, anger and despair or depression (Hajii, 2005:69; Marshall, 2005; Estell, 2008). Challenging behaviour could be due to the pain that the learners experience coupled with an inability to express these feelings and seek assistance. The psychologist should be able to interpret this pain-based behaviour to the other members of the ILST and to assist them to manage the learner in the classroom and hostel.

EPs are reported to have an important role in the area of crisis prevention and intervention. They render crisis intervention when incidents occur that threaten the security and stability of a school community (Allen *et al.*, 2002:427). Brief interventions are provided and therapeutic programmes are developed by the EP, sometimes in collaboration with other professionals. Distressing life events that cause barriers to learning are also addressed by the EP (Barwick, 2000:1). Emotional relief will better allow youth to focus on developmental tasks at hand. The EP works towards gaining an understanding of the child's experiences and communications that provide an indication of his/her inner world and how he/she engages with the school environment (Watt, 2000:71; Hickmore, 2000:115).

The implementation of the IDP is crucial and, therefore, it is mandated that it be monitored on a regular basis in order to ascertain whether it has the desired impact on the youth.

4.2.2.3 Monitoring phase

Simply reviewing the forms that result from multidisciplinary meetings could be viewed as sufficient monitoring. However, ensuring that the individual services and programmes are implemented in the classroom and hostel is another matter entirely (Mcleskey & Waldron, 2002:66). In order to ensure effective implementation there should be aimed at reaching the timeframes set in the IDP. All members of the ILST are responsible for monitoring the child's progress with the set objectives. In addition, parents can assist by providing information regarding the needs and strengths of the child, the likelihood of his/her continued involvement in challenging behaviour, and the level of risk based on observations during holidays and weekends at home. This information can feed into the review process.

4.2.2.4 Review phase

The review of the IDP should be done at least every eight months to ensure that services are rendered in a coordinated way and that the learner is making progress in relation to the set goals and objectives. If the progress is non-existent or too slow the plan should be adapted to meet the changing needs of the learner (WCED, 2004b; Kochhar, West & Taymans 2000:105; Soan 2006:71; Jung *et al.*, 2008:33). During the periods between joint assessments there must be flexibility on the part of the staff to adjust interventions to changed circumstances.

4.3 CONCLUSION

Children and youth, referred to institutions such as the YCECs, are viewed as in need of care despite the nature and extent of the challenging behaviour with which they present. All of them need high levels of support to change their behaviour. Although they have some similar needs, like the need for belonging, mastery, independence and generosity, they all have needs due to factors within themselves or within their ecosystems. To address the range of unique needs, the services of a range of service providers are required. The educator manages classrooms whilst simultaneously establishing a secure and efficient learning milieu for the children. The residential educator observes and assists children within the hostel setting and provides life space intervention whereas the support staff renders individual assistance to learners from a social work, psychological, occupational and health perspective. These professionals, organised within a team, must take joint responsibility for assessing, implementing, monitoring and reviewing the individualised plan for each child or youth. Assessment and development of the IDP must determine intervention strategies needed to address the set goals within the institutional milieu. To facilitate this, a range of services and programmes must be available to the youth in the YCEC. It is, therefore, important to consider whether this is a realistic expectation. This can only be ascertained if consideration is given to the available programmes, in line with the changed child and youth policies for high risk youth. These programmes and services are set out in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

THE SHIFT FROM A DEARTH OF SERVICES AND PROGRAMMES TO A RANGE OF SERVICES AND PROGRAMMES TO CHILDREN AND YOUTH IN YOUTH CARE AND EDUCATION CENTRES

5.1 INTRODUCTION

During 1996 the Inter-Ministerial Committee on Young People at Risk (IMC) reported that there was a “dearth of appropriate developmental and therapeutic programmes” in the residential child care facilities they visited (IMC: Discussion Document 1996a:17; Editor, 1996:5-6). These institutions included the Schools of Industries (now known in the Western Cape as YCECs). In response to this, the Minimum Standards document was developed by the Directorate: Specialised Education Support Services of the Western Cape Education Department. It clearly states that the team at the YCECs must ensure that a range of developmental and therapeutic services and programmes are available for children and youth (WCED, 2004b). The team is further obligated to provide these sustainable programmes and services in line with the child’s IDP and within a warm, friendly environment in a nurturing and caring way.

In this chapter attention is paid to the legislation regarding the provision of services and programmes; the needs of children and youth that must be addressed; the setting in which these services and programmes must be provided; and the various categories of available programmes.

5.2 LEGISLATION REGARDING PROVISION OF THERAPEUTIC / DEVELOPMENTAL PROGRAMMES

Various policy documents speak to the need for services and programmes for youth in residential facilities to be provided in an integrated manner (IMC Discussion Document 1996a:18-37; RSA, 2005; WCED, 2004b).

5.2.1 The Inter-Ministerial Committee on Young People at Risk

The Inter-Ministerial Committee on Young People at Risk refers to the necessity that staff must make available a range of services and ensure that interventions are varied, take place on an uninterrupted basis, are sustainable, provided within the developmental and ecological perspective and are entrenched within communities (IMC: 1996b).

5.2.2 The Children's Act 38 of 2005

The Children's Act 38 of 2005 stipulates that therapeutic and developmental programmes must be offered to children and youth in out-of-home settings (RSA, 2005). In future these settings will have to register their specific programme with the Department of Social Development to ensure that quality services are provided for the children and youth in their care.

5.2.3. The Western Cape Education Department

The WCED reiterates that learners, during their stay in the YCECs, must have access to differentiated educational services that promote holistic development in a caring environment and effective support services that are both educating and reclaiming (WCED, 2004b). In line with these requirements, training has been provided for team members at YCECs to equip them to render appropriate services and programmes.

5.3 TRAINING OF STAFF IN THE NEW SERVICE DELIVERY PARADIGM

The programmes and services provided for children in YCECs must adhere to the strengths-based / resilience approach (discussed in the previous chapter). Interlinked training programmes available, to enable staff to implement this approach, include the philosophy of the Circle of Courage (discussed in Chapter 4); the Responsibility Pathways (RAP) Programme; Life Space Crisis Intervention (LSCI); and developmental assessment (Coetzee, 2005:185). The two following "relationship models" (Brown, 2008:13) – RAP and LSCI – are of particular relevance to the provision of services and programmes because they assist team members to build connections with youth and help them to overcome self-defeating patterns of conduct, thoughts and feelings.

RAP training focuses on strengthening the abilities in the staff and youth to “connect for support, clarify challenges, and restore harmony” (Brendtro & Du Toit, 2005:162-166). Firstly, it helps staff to respond and not react to troubled youth (Brendtro & Du Toit, 2005:162-166; Forthun & McCombie, 2007:95) and, in so doing, breaks the cycle of violence. Secondly, participants learn about the process of CLEAR (Challenges register in Logic and Emotions causing Actions that lead to Results thinking). This entails assisting children and youth to clarify their thoughts and mull over their challenges to help them to be more able to deal with their problems (Brendtro & Du Toit, 2005:79). Thirdly, participants are made aware of the importance of providing support and assisting youth in meeting their needs and goals in order to work towards successful solutions.

LSCI “provides a competency based approach to communicating with children who are experiencing emotional, psychological or behavioural disruption in their personal ecology or ‘life space’ (e.g. family, friends, schools etc.)” (Long, Fecser & Wood, 2001; Brendtro, 2006). This approach is designed to make staff more conscious of the reason for the conflict cycle in which children are trapped and to use certain strategies to manage crises more constructively (Dawson, 2003). Understanding of young people’s perceptions of the crisis and their role in it is important. The young people must be seen as the best source of information on why they think, feel and act as they do (Long, Fecser & Wood, 2004 as cited by Brown, 2008:13).

The LSCI consists of two main stages comprising six steps. These are diagnostic stages (Drain Off, Timeline and Central Issue) and the therapeutic / reclaiming stages (Insight, New Skills and Transfer of Skill Learning). These stages assist the child to learn new social and interpersonal skills in order to change inappropriate behaviours. Forthun, McCombie & Freado (2006:95) found that educators who practiced LSCI were less likely to use coercive strategies when learners presented with challenging behaviour and were less inclined to make disciplinary referrals.

The services and programmes must target the children’s individual needs as contained in the IDP. It is, therefore, important to note what is generally known about the needs of children and youth who receive treatment in the YCECs. This information must inform the development and provision of services and programmes provided for them.

5.4 IDENTIFIED NEEDS OF CHILDREN IN YOUTH CARE AND EDUCATION CENTRES

In chapter 4 the grounds on which the children had been removed from their parents' care were discussed. Most of the children and youth admitted to the YCEC during 2008 presented with general behavioural difficulties (217), property crimes such as theft (153), and violence related crimes (39). Information was also provided in relation to the challenges that high-risk children often experience in their ecosystem. These are, however, the perceived needs of children and should be supplemented with information of their felt needs. With this in mind, and in line with changed child and youth policies that highlight child participation, children and youth in the Youth Care and Education Centres and Special Youth Care and Education Centres (n=197) were asked what they would want to change about themselves (Rossouw, 2007: 43-44).

The following themes emerged from the interviews with them. The first theme deals with the young people's expressed need to change their attitude.

Table 5.1 Theme 1: The boys' expressed need to change their attitude

THEME	SUB-THEME	NARRATIVES
THE NEED TO CHANGE THEIR ATTITUDES	Attitude towards life	"I want to be more positive." "I must stop stressing." "I want to make more jokes." "I want to be more self-confident."
	Attitude towards others	"I want to have respect for adults." "Listen to adults when they speak." "I must not be rude." "I must be less hard." "I want to leave people alone and respect them." "I sometimes have rough manners with adults – I feel bad about it – I am unnecessary." (<i>Ek het rowwe maniere soms met grootmense - ek voel sleg daaroor – ek is onnodig.</i>)

Source: Rossouw, 2007: 43-44.

The young people acknowledged, on a cognitive level, that their previous attitude towards others caused harm to others and to them. This awareness must be further strengthened in services and programmes.

The next theme alludes to the boys' expressed need to change their behaviour.

Table 5.2 Theme 2: The boys' expressed need to change their behaviour

THEME	SUB-THEME	NARRATIVES
THE NEED TO CHANGE THEIR BEHAVIOUR	Stop involvement in criminal activity	<p>"I want to stop stealing / taking things from other people / being dishonest."</p> <p>"I don't want to break into homes."</p> <p>"I hurt and assaulted many people – I feel bad about it."</p>
	Control my behaviour	<p>"I don't want to get cross so quickly."</p> <p>"I want to leave other children alone."</p> <p>"I don't want to become aggressive and fight."</p>
	Stop associating with negative persons	<p>"I don't want to walk with my tjommies [friends] any longer."</p> <p>"I don't want to be involved in gangs."</p>

Source: Rossouw, 2007: 43-44

These comments show that the children did understand that crime does not pay and that, for instance, their involvement in gangs had, in the past and would in the present and future, lead to them experiencing problems. They, however, admitted that they were not able to change their behaviour without the assistance of adults. These include finding healthy and safe alternatives to their past behaviour. In other words, they knew what they needed to change but they did not know how to do so.

The third theme is about the boys' need to change their circumstances.

Table 5.3: Theme 3: The boys' expressed need to change their circumstances

THEME	SUB-THEME	NARRATIVES
1 THE NEED TO CHANGE THEIR CIRCUMSTANCES	Home circumstances	<p>“My heart is sore due to my circumstances.”</p> <p>“I wish I did not have my past.”</p> <p>“I want to change my circumstances.”</p>

Source: Rossouw, 2007: 43-44

What is clear from the heartfelt comments of the young people was the desperate need that their families be assisted to change their circumstances. They portrayed a sense of hopelessness due to their background and current circumstances and the awareness that this was beyond their control. This is exacerbated by the fact that re-unification services are, for the most part, not rendered by the designated social workers and no or very limited changes are brought about in the children's home circumstances. This means that they normally returned to the same challenging circumstances.

All these issues must be addressed in the services and programmes provided for the children and youth in the YCECs. The following section focuses on the setting in which service and programmes must be rendered.

5.5 THE SETTING IN WHICH SERVICES AND PROGRAMMES MUST BE RENDERED

When addressing the needs of children and youth, the ideal is to merge “community development practices with youth development to provide a ‘wrap-around’ approach” (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2008:89). Within the YCEC this means that interventions must target both school and individual levels (Sprague & Walker, 2005:62). School wide interventions speak to changes effected in the school structure, school climate, and school policies. The school structure must be such that it encourages the

implementation of programmes and services that address the individual needs of the high-risk learners. The buy-in of the management, sufficient time allocation, and provision of the necessary resources to provide these services and programmes, are important. The school climate must be reclaiming, which means that children should experience belonging, mastery, independence and generosity within the YCEC (Brendtro *et al.*, 2002: 3). In this regard, Biddulph (1998:42) refers to the reduction in bullying behaviour in a school due to the introduction of a more supportive environment where educators no longer treat badly or threaten children and where bullying is addressed with special programmes.

Services and programmes provided for children and youth should, at the very least, “be both proactive and developmental through the intentional provision of learning experiences which relate to the child’s welfare and contribute to his or her personal and social development” (Best, 1995:11). In addition, school policies must reflect the children’s rights contained in the child and youth care policy framework. This means, for instance, that management of challenging behaviour should be done in line with a restorative and not a punitive approach. There is no place for a zero tolerance policy within the YCECs as this excludes children and youth and will deny them the right to learn from their mistakes.

At individual level, the adults who facilitate the programmes and services must be child and youth friendly. In this regard, children and youth in YCECs have indicated that they relate best to adults who are “loving”, “friendly”, “willing to help them to not do wrong things”, who “treat all learners equal”, “make jokes”, “trust them”, and “do not subject them to corporal punishment” (Rossouw, 2007:27). This indicates that, unless the facilitator of the programme conveys that he/she genuinely cares for the child by creating a sense of belonging, the child will not respond to the content of the programme. This corresponds to the findings of Campbell (2003:13) that children who strongly feel that they are unloved, become angry and therefore cannot take in the information given to them in an anger management programme.

Various categories of programmes exist to address the identified range of needs in children and youth. The first category of programmes is the developmental skills programme.

5.6 CATEGORIES OF SERVICES AND PROGRAMMES

5.6.1 Social Developmental / Life Skills Programmes

When it is identified that a child has a weakness in his/her social skills development, inclusion in a structured, but flexible, programme would be of benefit. A variety of life skills education, covering a wide range of topics, has been identified.

One life skill that is deemed important, for especially high-risk learners, is the ability to handle apparent negative comments or rejection (Rosenthal & Simeonsson, 1991 as cited by Sprague & Walker, 2005:163). Another very important life skill is help-seeking skills and assertiveness skills that could assist them to resist negative influences. Effective communication skills in children and youth (King, 2004; Strang & Braithwaite, 2001:3; Gumz, 2004:454) enable them to make friends, “join in a game or conversation and to read the body signals of others” (Biddulph, 1998:59). Children in YCECs also, for the most part, need assistance with self-control and problem solving (Sprague & Walker, 2005:163).

Much attention is given to the building of self-esteem in children and youth (King, 2004; Strang & Braithwaite, 2001:3; Gumz, 2004:454). A low self-esteem is viewed as contributing to at risk behaviour (Bezuidenhout, 2008:29). The reason for this is, amongst others, that there is an assumption that youth who lack the necessary social skills and are socially awkward gravitate to deviant social groups. The deficiency in social competence in youth can be by virtue of the fact that they do not have a fitting repertoire of appropriate behavioural responses. It could, however, also be that they do have a repertoire of such behaviour but have not had ample chance to practice and acquire competence. In addition, the children’s emotional problems could also interfere with effectual problem solving and social interaction (Social Skills Enhancement, 2002:2).

It is not helpful to place children in a skills training programme that covers all these topics. The training should target the area(s) with which the specific child has difficulty otherwise it will not make sense for him or her to be part of the group. Of importance is also that the life skills must be moulded in such a way that they connect with aspects of morals, philosophies and customs of the neighbourhood from which the children come

(Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2007:180). Furthermore, the skills training programmes must make provision for generalising the newly acquired skills to other situations (ERIC Digest, 1997; Larson & Lochman, 2002). A team member must thus inform the other team members of the information they shared with the children. This ensures that the child is given opportunity to practice what he/she learnt not only within the group setting but also in other settings in the YCEC such as the sports field, the classroom and the hostel. Provision must be made for role playing within the group (Du Plessis, Conley & Du Plessis, 2007:33) and follow-up booster sessions. To alter deep-rooted conduct and mindsets, programmes must run over months and be of adequate intensity.

When rendering programmes it must also be considered that the lecture style of presentation does not necessarily appeal to children and youth. Over the past few years there has been a call for understanding that, especially boys, find it difficult to sit very still, be quiet, learn passively, or do a lot of fine bookwork without much movement or hands-on practical work (Pollack, 2000: 5; Dobson, 2002:190; Biddulph, 2004:176; Gillman, 2003:225). Programmes must, therefore, make provision for activity, lively child participation, and varying presentation styles and activities. Boys at YCECs were asked what they would do if they were an educator to make school more interesting and fun. They responded that they would provide more sport and sport equipment, play games with learners, take them on more outings, arrange drama and dance classes, let them listen to music and singing, and arrange weekend activities (Rossouw, 2007:27).

The second type of programme for children and youth is the mentorship programme.

5.6.2 Mentorship Programmes

When the assessment shows that a child is alienated from positive adult role models, feels the absence of a sense of belonging due to abandonment, feels rejected or has been neglected and/or abused, the assignment of a mentor for the child could be of great value to him or her. In this regard the World Health Organization (2000a:5) confirms the importance, conveyed by the members of the United Nations General Assembly on Population and Development, of positive male role models for children, in general, and boys, in particular. This is also the view of Garbarino (1999: 28, 47), Canfield (1996:22, 35), and Eastwood (2001:19). For instance, "father hunger" (Canfield, 1996:22) or "under fathering" (Biddulph, 2004:19) leads to young people compensating for the loss of a father figure by looking for a connection elsewhere, often with a negative

peer group whose members have been similarly damaged. A mentor could provide in the need of the child in a positive way.

A mentor is typically an older, experienced guide who is acceptable to the young person and who can develop a relationship with the child to assist him/her with the challenges he/she experiences. Care must be taken in matching of the mentor to the learner, training for the mentor prior to the matching, regular exchange between the mentor and mentee, and regular supervision of the mentor. Ideally the programme must make provision for social as well as academic activities (Sipe, 1996 as cited by Bauldry & Hartman, 2004:13; Grossman & Garry, 1997; Herrera *et al.*, 2000 as cited by Sprague & Walker, 2005:161). In South Africa there are various programmes that make use of peer, youth and adult mentors from the community. One of these programmes is Big Brothers Big Sisters of South Africa (Big Brothers Big Sisters of South Africa, n.d.:1; Bauldry & Hartmann, 2004; Steyn, 2005:223).

A third category of programmes acknowledges the youth's need for adventure.

5.6.3 Wilderness Therapy

Wilderness programmes are also referred to as adventure therapy, outdoor experiential programmes and eco-therapy. These programmes appeal to the "daring spirits" of young people (Brendtro, Van Bockern & Brokenleg, 2002) and are suggested for youth for insight, growth and healing (Robertson & Van der Heyden, 2001) as well as for broadening their scope of interest and abilities. This type of programme has been successfully used as a treatment option for young persons with emotional, behavioural and drug related problems (Russell, 2003 as cited by Harper, Russell, Cooley & Cupples, 2007: 111). Stephenson (2006:197) also found a combination of wilderness treatment models and transpersonal psychology to be effective when working with adolescent boys.

In South Africa there are at least four main organisations providing these services, namely the National Peace Accord Trust, Siyavuka: Educo Africa, the Outward Bound Trust of South Africa, and NICRO (Steyn, 2005:167-222).

Components of the programme include the following:

- "Going solo" is an exercise that affords opportunity to the participants to spend time alone in the wilderness / outdoors with the goal of bringing a greater sense of inner peace and insight into their dilemmas.
- The technique of mirroring involves a way of reflecting back to the child or youth, of illuminating, or making him/her conscious of unrealised strengths and talents, or issues that he/she may have been struggling with.
- Rituals or rites of passage and adventure challenge activities present the opportunity to the participant to explore and discover new strengths and skills that can be meaningfully applied to personal life situations (Educo Africa Newsletter No 6, 2001-2002). An example of this is teaching the young men to climb inner mountains and confront fears by abseiling. It is important to note that the approach of the programme is soft, not military. The programme can be run over a few days or can be a structured intense programme (Child Justice Project, 2001). The rock climbing, river rafting and backpacking create elements of risk taking and feelings of discomfort similar to initiation and rites of passage for young people. Regarding the value of the programme, an assistant probation officer of the Department of Social Development, that underwent the wilderness training during 2003 reported as follows: "the effect of this programme is so powerful that I sometimes find it difficult to explain in words to others what happened. I know one thing and that is that our youth can only benefit from this programme" (De Goede, 2003:7).

Another category of programmes that focus on the transfer of skills for better employability is the vocational skills training programmes.

5.6.4 Vocational Skills Training and Entrepreneurship Programmes

Programmes that offer vocational and entrepreneurial skills can provide in the need for mastery among the young persons. Providing the opportunity for children to do worthwhile things is the best source of increasing their self-esteem (Biddulph, 1998:103). Training in computer utilisation, hairdressing, arts and craft, motor mechanics, catering, bookkeeping, and basic office maintenance are provided for youth. Participants are also provided with assistance to secure employment or starting their own small business. Kroon (2003:21) refers to the importance of teaching children entrepreneurial skills. According to her, children ought to be assisted with the development of, amongst others, the self-assurance, self-esteem, self-discipline, self-

motivation, determination to be of service, dependability, resourcefulness, ability to start a business enterprise, and perseverance. They should also be taught skills such as innovative problem solving, decision-making, scheduling, good interpersonal skills, leadership, as well as the ability to prioritise tasks, manage pressure and disappointments, and deal with change (Kroon 2003:22). In the YCEC the children and youth are taught skills in woodwork, building, hairdressing, welding. The staff, in general, and the OT, in particular, assists the youth as far as possible in finding employment. When training children and youth in vocational skills it must first be ascertained whether there is a market for these skills.

Another category of programmes is the restorative justice programmes.

5.6.5 Restorative Justice Programmes

South Africa works according to the restorative justice model (King, 2004). In this regard, a variety of programmes are available, for youth who are in conflict with the law, which also could be valuable when working with children in the YCECs. These include, but are not limited to, Family Group Conferencing (FGC) and Victim Offender Mediation (VOM). Both these programmes give the harmed child and the child that caused the harm the opportunity to meet and to express their feelings regarding the harm done, eventually reaching a joint agreement. The VOM involves only these two parties and a mediator whilst the FGC also involves the families in the process (Badenhorst & Conradie, 2004 as cited by Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2008:165).

Programmes that have proved successful as diversion options for youth in conflict with the law have been established as developmental programmes for the children and youth at risk of expulsion or suspension from schools of the WCED and for children and youth in YCECs. These programmes include the Mapping the Future Programme, The Drug Information Programme, and the South African Young Sex Offender Programme (SAYSTOP).

5.6.5.1 Mapping the Future Programme

The Mapping the Future programme of NICRO is based on the assumption that youth at risk generally lack social skills. The methods of training are group discussions, explaining, modelling and practicing of newly learnt skills. The sessions include the discussion of topics such as crime awareness, self-concept, assertive behaviour,

decision-making, laws and norms, and relationships. This programme is suitable for learners between the ages of twelve and eighteen years who present with challenging behaviour, relationship difficulties or who have admitted to committing a misdemeanour.

A second diversion programme that is part of the restorative justice category is the Drug Information Programme

5.6.5.2 Drug Information Programme

The Drug Information Programme is primarily geared towards approximately 25% of the youth of the YCECs who indicated that they have not yet used drugs or who are still in the experimental phase of drug abuse (Rossouw, 2007: 38). The programme was instituted by the Department of Social Services and Poverty Alleviation in 1993 after consultation with magistrates, prosecutors, probation officers, members of the South African Police Services, and welfare organisations specialising in the prevention and treatment of substance abuse. During group sessions, opportunity is given to the young persons to share their views with one another and to learn from one another. The programme includes sessions that assist children to assess what the nature of their drug abuse is, how much time and money they spend on drugging, why they use drugs, what services they can access, and how they can stop their drug abuse by using constructive measures. It also makes suggestions for healthy alternatives to drug abuse and how to set personal goals.

The third diversion programme is the SA Young Sex Offender Programme (SAYSTOP).

5.6.5.3 South African Young Sex Offender Programme (SAYSTOP)

As indicated in the previous chapter, at least four of the children and youth admitted to the YCECs during 2008 (Olivier, 2008) have been found guilty of serious sex-related offences. It is also believed that a greater number of these children have histories of inappropriate sexual behaviour. It is crucial that these children and youth receive assistance. Research findings show that approximately 50% of adult sex-offenders reported first committing a sex-related crime as adolescents (Becker, Cunningham-Rather & Kaplan, 1986 as cited by Ehlers & Van der Sandt, 2001:2).

The SAYStOP programme was developed by a consortium comprising the Institute for Criminology at the University of Cape Town; the National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders (NICRO); Community Law Centre at the University of Cape Town; and Resources Aimed at Preventing Child Abuse and Neglect (RAPCAN) (Steyn, 2005:114). Provision is made for a diversion programme for young sex offenders as well as for a programme for young repeat sex offenders. The SAYSTOP diversion programme focuses on the psychosocial life skills development and education. It comprises ten two-hour sessions and the central aim of the programme is to encourage the young people to develop respect and empathy for others and to be accountable for their behaviour. Each session has set objectives within a particular topic. To accomplish these objectives exercises have been developed. The sessions focus on crime awareness, self-esteem, understanding your body, sexuality, socialisation and myths, victim empathy, relapse prevention, and the way forward (Ehlers & Van der Sandt, 2001:3-5). A number of staff at YCECs has received training that comprises a combination of the prevention and treatment aspects of the two programmes.

The following category of programmes for children is expressive programmes.

5.6.6 Expressive Programmes

Expressive programmes include those with a focus on music, drama and storytelling, and art.

5.6.6.1 Music

The programmes that focus on music can assist children on a cognitive and emotional level (Wacks and Torrance, 2008) and can be customized to deal with individual needs. Moreover, music can be used to develop a clinical relationship and to assist the child to communicate feelings that he/she cannot easily put into words. This can further contribute to breaking down defences. Children often are prepared to do within the music therapy session what they are not able to do on the outside due to the fact that the music tunes them into a different range of experiences and relieves anxiety.

Various target groups have benefited by inclusion in programmes with a music focus. Young people in conflict with the law have been included in a South African music diversion programme referred to as Diversion In Music Education (DIME) (Steyn,

2005:135). This programme is also suitable to be presented in residential childcare settings such as the YCECs. Estranged youth have also benefited from programmes that use hand drums. One of the successful Australian programmes is called Discovering Relationships Using Music, Beliefs, Emotions, Attitudes and Thoughts (DRUMBEAT). The focus of this programme is to engage the young people and boost their social skills with the purpose of decreasing their social isolation. The drum is an easily mastered instrument (Faulkner, 2008:36). By drumming together the young persons learn, for example, to cooperate with others. Drumming with older men has been reported to provide children and young people with a sense of belonging to the tribe. In this regard, Stephenson (2006:225) states the following example from his experience: "Pretty soon all six 'bad' boys were forgetting to be bad, jamming with grown-ups who knew how to have fun legally and getting treated like young men who were not on probation". When youth are given the opportunity to write lyrics for songs or to discuss the lyrics of music that speak to them their response can provide adults with a measure of insight into their mood (for example dark and troubled) at that particular point in time (Stephenson, 2006:16).

5.6.6.2 Drama and storytelling

One of the creative South African programmes that incorporate comedy, drama and traditional song and dance is Khulisa. The Khulisa team, reportedly, consists of young people who speak powerfully, from first-hand experience, about crime, the circumstances leading thereto and the consequences thereof (Khulisa: Information Sheet, n.d). The programmes are based on the principles of restorative justice (Steyn, 2005:73). Provision is made for a culturally orientated personal transformation and life skill programme targeting young persons in general.

One of the elements of this programme is storytelling. It is described as one of the best therapeutic tools for working with children and youth. Many cultures use storytelling, rather than lectures, to teach the desired standard of behaviour. There are coming-of-age stories, stories to help a boy to break from over-attachment to his mother, stories to test values and ethics, and stories that address specific topics such as problems with anger management (Stephenson, 2006:208). It is believed that there is a story in everyone, "a story which lies at the heart of us: a story which needs time and space for sharing of experience before it can be told" (Adams, 2000:94). In addition, the structure of a story (beginning, middle and end) adds to the feeling of a structured space in which a child can perform his/her selected role (Winnicott, 1971 as cited by Adams, 2000:89)

and gives children an escape from everyday life (Stephenson, 2006:31). Feelings and emotions expressed are then dealt with through the use of metaphor (drama and movement therapy) (Kamin, 2007:27-36; Larson & Brown, 2007:1083). Oftentimes the participants are asked to complete a story and their contribution could provide more insight into their worlds. Opportunity for children to choose and enact roles could contribute to them dealing with problems that cannot be faced straight on.

5.6.6.3 Art

In the USA the Starr Commonwealth Schools have a rich history of using the arts to reach and heal troubled children. In South Africa programmes such as Khulisa and CRED make provision for art programmes with a therapeutic element for high-risk youth, such as youth in prison.

The use of art can be very therapeutic as this medium provides for children the opportunity to explore, examine and reconsider the trouble they experience (Hickmore, 2000:110). Stephenson (2006:222) found that mask making is a tool that can be used successfully in working with issues that teens face. It has been particularly useful as pre- and post tests. This means that children are requested to make a mask that best represent themselves before an activity and then again after the activity has been completed. This can be effectively applied to wilderness experiences that reportedly change children and youth's outlook. The similarities and differences in the two masks can give an indication of whether the child has benefited from the activity in any way and can then be discussed with him or her. An example of this is the boy who made a two-sided mask and explained that he has two sides to him that are in constant struggle with each other. This opened up a whole new discussion (Stephenson, 2006:222) and could contribute to healing.

Although all these programmes could contribute to stress relief in children there are programmes that specifically target this group.

5.6.7 Programmes Targeting Stress in Children

The children and youth in YCECs normally experience high levels of stress produced by, amongst others, their exposure to drugs and their unsuccessful attempts to stop using these substances (Levy & Devlun, 1989 and Beck *et al.*, 1975 as cited by Bezuidenhout,

2008:120). Furthermore they have often been subjected to multiple stressful placements prior to their placement in the YCEC. This could include awaiting trial in the youth section of a prison where they are often sodomised. They are also frequently, prior to admission, exposed to violent crime, death and overstressed adults who transfer their stress onto them (Hart, 1992:180). Yet, one must be careful not to only concentrate on the disastrous events that lead to stress but to also consider the events that occur on a daily basis that can be just as noteworthy. In the YCEC this includes, but is not limited to, having to share space with many other troubled children who resort to bullying and other harmful behaviours towards their peers. To some extent these experiences could be more harmful to the children and youth because they are more general, more problematic to recognise, not early identifiable and could carry on until considerable harm is done (Hart, 1992:11).

To put this into perspective, Lazarus & Folkman (1984 as cited by Kraag, Zeegers, Kok, Hosman & Abu-Saad, 2006:449-472) define stress as “a particular relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing and exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being”. The lack of skills to deal with stress often leads to children underachieving, becoming violent, experiencing physical symptoms, abusing dependence-producing substances and reacting to any cue in a negative way. Especially boys experience stress due to their lack of constructive ways of articulating their emotions and dealing with stress (World Health Organization, 2000b:48). According to Biddulph (2004:7) a significant number of boys he studied, led lives of “quiet desperation”. They, therefore, have a very limited array of responses when feeling angry, provoked or dissatisfied (Bemak & Keys, 2000:18). Pollack (1998) refers to this as the so-called “Boy’s Code” of toughness and as a societally condoned gender straitjacket for boys. This leads to them externalising responses in the form of violent behaviour (Varma, 1997:31-33; Canada, 2000). Biddulph (2004:23) warns that “toughing things out is a short-term survival technique, but not a good way of life. Continue with it and you become numb and dead”. When asked whether it is better to be mad than to be sad, 73 (42,19%) of the boys from YCECs, who responded to the question, agreed. They indicated that boys may only cry when they are small or when they attend funerals. They made statements such as: “I don’t know what to do with my sadness”; “I don’t like sadness”; and “I will rather fight than cry” (Rossouw, 2007: 9). With this in mind, the World Health Organization (2000b:48) recommended that programmes for boys must offer them “alternative ways of resolving conflicts, developing their identities and expressing emotions”. This alludes to the fact that the issues with which children and youth have to deal cannot really be compartmentalised since they

are interrelated. For example, stress could lead to violent behaviour and abuse of substances.

Fortunately, coping with stress is a skill that can be taught and modelled to the children and youth. The team at the YCEC can help the children and youth by understanding stress and how it impacts on children; by understanding and learning to manage their own stress; by considering how they are contributing to the child's stress in the YCEC (Hart, 1992: 155); and working towards decreasing stress in the child. However, programmes that target stress in children can only be successful if they are presented in a relatively stress free milieu. Kraag *et al.* (2006:451-472), when studying nineteen publications, found that these programmes are most likely to be effective in schools and should therefore be promoted as such.

One of the programmes that focus on the generosity of youth is Service Learning.

5.6.8 Opportunities for Community Service / Service Learning

Adams (2000:51) states that service learning transcends volunteerism since it enhances young people's individual participation in school and community life. When undertaking a literature search, Lakin & Mahoney (2006:513-531) found that the value of youth service was often corroborated only by subjective anecdotal facts and that many of the formal assessments of programmes were incomplete. They attempted to fill gaps in the literature on youth service by means of an evaluation of procedures and results of community service programmes. They found that involvement in community service activities did in fact contribute to greater self-worth, self-efficacy, enhanced interpersonal relationships and abilities, which included social relatedness, pro-social ways of thinking and acting, a sense of community, compassion, nurturance and unselfishness. In this regard, Billing (2000 as cited by Allen, 2003:54) refers to four main benefits to learners engaged in Service Learning. These are academic learning, civic responsibility, personal and social development, and opportunities for career exploration. Kielsmeier, Scales, Roehlkepartain & Neal (2004:143) also refer to the consistent evidence of support for learner engagement in community service and service learning but indicate that it is important to, amongst others, strengthen service-learning infrastructures, supports, and effective implementation. Children and youth must also be given the opportunity to make the key decisions in every facet of the programme and the adult facilitators must concentrate on providing structure and support when needed. In experiencing a sense of community the vulnerable youth can be assisted in finding a

balance between individual and community needs. Opportunity for reflection is given in order for the members to successfully assimilate the skills, approaches and characteristics targeted in the programme into their self-identity (Lakin & Mahoney, 2006:519). Youth community service programmes thus have the makings to be a significant and appealing way to encourage positive youth development.

The following category of programme is character education.

5.6.9 Character Education

Character education programmes are generally developed on the foundation that a good character is essential to effectively meet life's challenges. Therefore, children need to be taught that their character counts. It is further believed that character provides the basis for sustained positive behaviour. By agreeing to a joint framework of values, relationships in the school will be formed in keeping with these values. At a school level these values should be reflected in the code of conduct of the school, form an integral part of the curriculum (for example, LO), and be demonstrated by educators and peers. At an individual level, the integration of the six pillars of character or values into the life of a child or young person should lead to the development of an appreciation of the distinction between right and wrong. These values are trustworthiness, respect, responsibility, fairness, caring and citizenship. Researchers of the South Dakota State University found that criminal activity and drug abuse markedly dropped from 1997 to 2003 due to the children's exposure to the character counts programme. Representatives of YCECs, who underwent the training, indicated that it has had a positive impact on the whole school and that there is a deliberate attempt on the part of a number of staff members to infuse these values in daily activities.

Of importance is that children's low level socio-moral reasoning contributes to illegal actions on their part. This reasoning includes the beliefs that, regardless of laws and rules, actions are only wrong if one gets caught, actions that have the purpose of protecting the self and self-interests are moral and right, and that actions that protect significant people in one's life are moral and right (Bezuidenhout & Joubert, 2008:85, 90). These need to be addressed.

Black (1996:29) does not agree with the value of character education. She is of the opinion that the attempt of American public schools to form character by teaching, for

example, through regulation and through the content of the curriculum, is not really effective. According to her “kids seldom practice what their school’s character education programmes preach”. She motivates this statement by referring to the findings of Lockwood. He maintains that by merely instructing young people to do the correct thing and having them “parrot back a litany of good behaviour traits” is not enough. Children need to see examples of a range of ethical and moral behaviours in all aspects of school life. An example of this is when a learner sees his friend acting in a dishonest way. Does he remain loyal to the friend or is he honest enough to report the behaviour? Adults who work with children and youth must also be very sure not to apply double standards when it comes to learners’ and their own behaviour.

The boys in the YCECs also indicated the need for opportunities for more physical activities.

5.6.10 Physical Activities

Children who engage in physical activities learn, amongst others, the ability to work in teams, sportsmanship, leadership, commitment, self confidence, and connections with others. Team sport can generally give a boy a sense of belonging, build character, boost self-esteem and have health benefits. It provides children and youth with an opportunity to show affection to one another and it could bring fathers closer to their sons. However, if exposed to the wrong kind of “jock culture” sport can be damaging (Gillman, 2003:235). For those who are scrawny, less gifted or overweight there follows the painful awareness of relentlessly feeling ridiculed, either by staff who belittle their efforts or call them derogatory names or by their peers. According to Biddulph (2004:157, 179), some coaches today push for boys in contact sports to hit and hurt as long as they can get away with it. Competition becomes too extreme or coaches promote cheating or aggression on the playing field.

One of the programmes that effectively combine physical activities with masculinity and self-reflection training is the Rock and Water Programme. The programme is sponsored by the Gadaku (young boy) Institute and Boys in schools programme of the Family Action Centre of the University of Newcastle. A new way of interacting with boys via physical / social teaching is offered. It provides a framework of exercise and thoughts about boys and manhood that assist boys to become aware of purpose and motivation in their lives. Topics discussed include intuition, body language, mental power,

empathic feeling, positive thinking and positive visualising, bullying, sexual harassment, homophobia, goals in life, desires, and following an inner compass.

Another category of programmes is self-protection programmes.

5.6.11 Self-protection Programmes

Rossouw (2007: 11) found that youth in YCECs are very aware of the importance of being able to protect themselves and their families in future especially due to the fact that the majority of them come from very violent communities. They indicated a need to learn how to effectively protect them. Examples of such programmes in the USA are the Boys Project, which not only assists boys in protecting themselves but also in developing social awareness about gender and other equity issues, and the Gang Resistance Education and Training (G.R.E.A.T) programme that assists children in resisting pressure to join or support gangs.

Given the high incidence of violence in mainstream schools, in general, and in YCECs, in particular, violence prevention programmes are crucial elements of the service delivery.

5.6.12 Violence Prevention Programmes

The emphasis of violence prevention programmes should not be on the child's behaviour but on the reasons why he/she becomes violent. The assumption is that if young people understood the motivations for violent behaviour and have greater self-esteem they will not act in a violent way (Garbarino, 1999: 86-89). Violence is often the function of positive reinforcement and behavioural modelling (Duhon-Sells, 1995:2). In this regard, Tshiwula (1995) refers to the devastating pressure on boys to be hardy, be sharp, get the better of adversaries and be aggressive and commanding and powerful – the future protectors of their families. Duhon-Sells (1995) agrees that in their socialisation boys are taught from an early age that aggressiveness, violence and force are acceptable means of expression and can contribute to sustainable solutions to conflict.

Boys and girls who present with challenging behaviour usually present with a lack of self-control, problem solving skills and communication skills. It is, however, not good enough to tell children how to respond. The adults around them must model this

behaviour. It does not make sense that when a child or young person hits a peer, he/she is subjected to corporal punishment by an adult. By administering this kind of punishment, the message is sent to boys that violent behaviour is the only measure of controlling behaviour and this could perpetuate this approach in other relationships (Gillis, 1996:44). Educators must demonstrate how they manage strong feelings such as anger. It is not reasonable of adults to expect of children that which they are not able, or willing, to do themselves.

A good example of a successful violence prevention programme is The Omega Boys Club / Street Soldiers, a youth development and violence prevention programme with its centre of operations in San Francisco, California. This programme has been piloted, with great success, in one of the Special Youth Care and Education Centres (known as Reform Schools) in the Western Cape Province. The club assists an estimated 800 young people at any given time. Youth violence is characterised as a disease. This information has been documented in the 2001 Surgeon General's Report on Youth Violence (Marshall, 2001:18-22; Marshall, 2005; Estell, 2008). The overall aim of the Boys Club is to "offer inoculation to the disease of violence". The youths are also informed that if they continue to live by the dangerous "Commandments of the Hood", they would not survive. Marshall believes that if they live by the set of rules that he provides for them, they will indeed be "Alive and Free" (Marshall, 2001:18-22; Marshall, 2005; Estell, 2008). These three words have become the theme of the club.

Youths who want to turn their lives around become part of a group that places an emphasis on the importance of education and volunteering in the neighbourhood. To date, the club has produced 133 college graduates all supported by the Omega Boys Club Scholarship Fund. Another 50 Omegas are currently enrolled in college. The students are prepared academically and also equipped with the skills to hold off the temptations that they would come across in college. This shows to the importance that there should be some incentive for children to make them feel hopeful and lead to them giving their full participation. Other programmes that are presented in schools are Safe Schools Programmes, Violence Free Schools, Healthy Schools, and Gun Free Schools.

There are also programmes that focus on spiritual development.

5.6.13 Programmes with a Spiritual Focus

The Starr Commonwealth School, a childcare services organisation in the USA, attends to the spiritual needs of children by focusing on spirituality, not religion that entails the connection with God and others (Schuler, 2006:103-105). Garbarino (1999) refers to the “anchoring effect” that “spirituality” (in the form of non-punitive religion) has on young people. It was found that their involvement in such programmes led to reduced suicide, less depression, less casual sex and better response to trauma.

Upon admission, the chaplain interviews children and the information obtained during this session is incorporated into the treatment recommendations. When appropriate, individuals from the places of worship (church, mosque and synagogue) are involved as possible co-workers or partners. Children who do not show specific interest in their spiritual development simply attend the non-denominational services held once a week on site. Those children who do show an interest in their personal spiritual development is assisted with developing an individual growth plan. The programme provided for them includes, firstly, the basics programme (a spiritual development programme, fine Arts, drama and song) and, secondly, a sound off programme (music and lessons in the use of musical instruments). Thirdly, the cross training programme provides opportunity for children to be creative through the medium of clay and ceramics. Fourthly, the outreach programme gives young persons the opportunity to share their creative talents and faith journey with others. One of the boys who attended the programme is quoted as saying that the programme afforded him the opportunity to “get out what is deep inside” (Schuler, 2006:103-105). In South Africa the Young Men’s Christian Association (YMCA) presents various programmes such as Ikamba Bantu and Teen Challenge to youth.

The vast majority of children in the YCECs are male and it is important to assist them with gender issues especially because they often do not have positive male role models that could guide them.

5.6.14 Programmes That Focus on Gender Issues

Programmes that focus on gender issues must, amongst others, challenge the socially constructed unhealthy beliefs about masculinity that were referred to earlier on in this chapter and must discuss alternative behaviours (Rossouw, 2007: 55). Various programmes already focus on these male issues. These organisations include, but are

not limited to, the Men as Partners programme, Men Kindness Programme, and the Fatherhood project. At school level boys can belong to the Boys' Education Movement (BEM). There is, however, a need for more such programmes given the variety of boys' needs.

5.6.15 Initiation and right of passage programmes

There have been, over the past few years, many advocates for the provision of programmes that address initiation and rights of passage for boys. According to these authors, in the distant past, becoming a man was a lengthy purposeful dynamic intervention by the entire community (Biddulph, 2004:243; Stephenson, 2006). The main messages sent to the boys were that they were part of a larger world wherein they, who no longer were children, had a part to play (Biddulph, 1997:22; Biddulph, 2004:241; Gillman, 2003:16). The initiation process was intended to provide a boy with courage (mastery) and a memorable experience (belonging). This is lacking in modern society.

To put this into perspective, the initiation normally consisted of the following components:

- A separation from all that was familiar, including the home and family
- A wound inflicted to the boy by the older men
- Sharing with caring elders the best of the boy's culture (myths, stories and songs) in order to instil in him a sense of belonging.

It also had as purpose that males could prove themselves as worthy to be called men. This is not the case in our modern day where only "threshold events" in their lives have aspects of initiation Stephenson (2006:59). These events include, amongst others, getting a driver's licence, going on a first date, or completing a final school examination. Stephenson (2006:59) explains why this is not sufficient. Acquiring a driver's licence shows that the boy has successfully committed to memory the contents of the instruction booklet and passing the driving test is evidence that he has the skilfulness to handle the motor vehicle. Provision is, however, not made for putting to the test his responsibility or understanding of the implications of getting behind the wheel. Acquiring a driver's licence thus brings a degree of self-sufficiency but is not a criterion for manhood.

It happens that boys who do not go through an initiation process will take risks (use drugs, fight, and join gangs) as possible initiations into manhood. Gangsters expect of

new members to go through an initiation process in order to prove themselves worthy of being in the gang. This could include that a boy is expected to harm someone else. The fact that random, age-based signposts of manhood substituted initiation practices has brought about that there is an endless version of teenage years. With no clear finish line boys are, in reality, never certain when they make the changeover to manhood. This was clear from the responses of boys at YCECs when asked at what age the transition from boyhood into manhood takes place. There was a vast variety of responses that ranged from thirteen years to 50 years. Most of the boys (66) answered that the transition occurs at the age of eighteen, followed by the age of 21 (40) and the age of sixteen years (17) (Rossouw, 2007: 39).

From the literature it is clear that various types of programmes can be combined to assist the youth. These include storytelling, music, masculinity training, physical activity and wilderness experiences to assist the boy in putting himself to the test, to learn what he actually accepts as true, and to demonstrate to himself and his community that he is ready to act as a man. His maturity must, however, determine his readiness for this process. It must be cautioned that young people should not be subjected to harmful social, medical and cultural practices as set out in the Children's Act 38 of 2005 (RSA, 2005). Boys need a "deep and spiritual transition, an internal shift that cannot come from an arbitrary bestowing of legal rights" (Stephenson, 2006:59). This should not, in modern days, include bloodletting and infliction of wounds.

5.6.16 Programmes That Focus on Substance Abuse

The programme available to assist learners who are not using or are only in the experimental phase of drug abuse, the Drug Information Programme, was discussed earlier in this chapter. Many of the young people in YCECs, however, experience addiction problems. In chapter 4, Table 4.2 indicated that sixteen of the young people, admitted to the YCECs, were found guilty for possession of drugs. From the reports it also became clear that many of the crimes committed by the other young people were drug related either because they were under the influence of drugs when they committed the crime or because they committed the crimes as a means to obtain drugs.

Two main reasons why young people abuse drugs are reported to be fear and pain (Israelowitz & Singer, 1983 as cited by Bezuidenhout, 2008:6). Fear is related to wanting to feel "good enough" and thus pleasing others by, for instance, succumbing to pressure from them. Head (1999:143) agrees that boys reportedly use drugs in order to gain acceptance and prove that they are real men. Girls tend to abuse drugs (in this case

TIK) to lose weight in order to be more acceptable to others. There is also reliance on quick fixes (Kronick, 2002:11) and chemical assistance to allow them to be more “emotionally expressive and socially at ease” Pain results from a person not feeling complete and wanting to escape from this perceived reality. He or she is prone to self medicate, detach him or her or lash out at others (Gillman, 2003:114).

These findings correlate with the feedback received from children and youth at YCECs interviewed during 2007 (Rossouw, 2007). They admitted to using drugs to alter their mood, for excitement, to experiment, to be accepted, and to escape from reality (Chart 5.1).

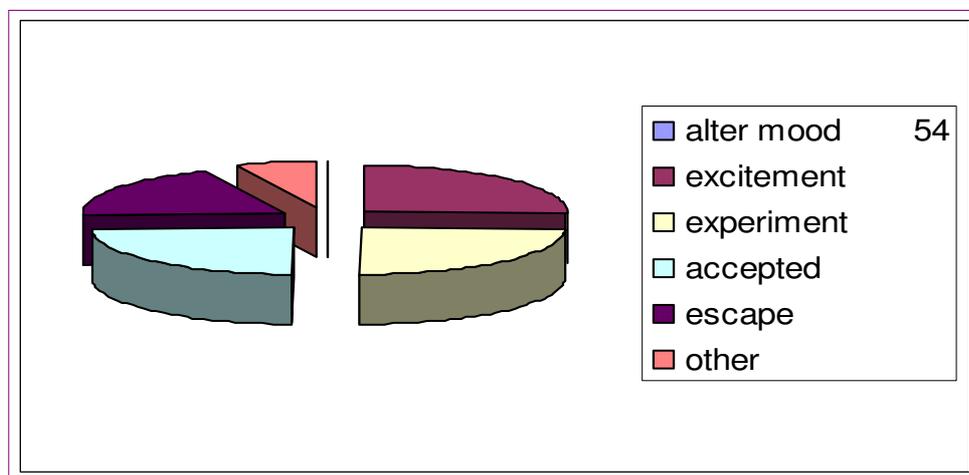


Chart 5.1 Reasons for boys in YCECs abusing substances

Source: Rossouw, 2007: 38

The role of the team members in the YCECs is not to provide treatment for the youth who abuse substances, but to identify these young people and to motivate them to consider what the abuse of substances do to them and to significant others. It calls for breaking through the defences that the young people put up, such as denial, manipulation and lying (Pickhardt, 1999:149) and bringing them to the point where they understand the need for professional assistance. When they do go for treatment the team members must support the young persons and assist them to reintegrate into the YCEC programme upon completion of the treatment. Collaboration between the team members of the YCEC and the team members at the rehabilitation facility is crucial.

It is unfortunately true that young people in YCECs, for the most part, have access to drugs in the institution. This is due to the location of some of the institutions and a lack of cooperation from the local police service to stamp out the surrounding drug dens. This is an example of the environment enabling children to continue with substance abuse.

A number of programmes provide a combination of services.

5.6.17 Combination of Programmes

The limited focus of programmes, at times, makes them less appealing for young people (for example, a violence programme, where this might not be their most pressing need). A need exists for a range of programmes that can address the variety of needs of the high-risk youth. The findings of Wright, Russell, Anderson, Kooreman & Wright (2006:204) confirm this view. They found that youth with serious emotional disturbances showed improvement in school and home functioning after receiving a “co-ordinate mix of services”. In South Africa a number of organisations are involved in partnerships whereby a mentee is placed in a diversion programme, receives Life Skills from NICRO, wilderness therapy from EDUCO, and formal matching with a mentor from Big Brother Big Sister South Africa. When rendering the services and programmes it must be ensured that the focus is on the belonging, mastery, independence and generosity of children and youth.

All these programmes address one or more of the elements of the Circle of Courage. The specific element(s) of the Circle of Courage addressed within a specific programme, is reflected in Table 5.4. It is important to note that belonging is not necessarily the focus of some of the programmes but that children could, in the process, also experience this due to the caring, supportive environment created when the programme is presented.

Table 5.4: Elements of the Circle of Courage addressed by the programmes

PROGRAMME	BELONGING	MASTERY	INDEPENDENCE	GENEROSITY
Life skills programmes		X	X	X
Mentorship programmes	X	X	X	X
Wilderness / adventure therapy		X	X	
Vocational skills training and entrepreneurship programmes		X	X	
Restorative justice Programmes		X		X
Expressive programmes	X	X		
Programmes targeting stress	X	X		
Character education	X	X	X	X
Physical activities	X	X	X	X
Self protection programmes		X	X	
Violence prevention programmes	X	X	X	
Programmes with a spiritual focus	X			X
Programmes that focus on gender issues	X	X	X	

All the programmes referred to in this chapter have been developed with certain achievement goals in mind. It is important, when implementing the programme, to indicate the achievements hoped for and to measure them at the end of the programme. In this regard, the children and youth must also provide input into this process.

5.7 EVALUATION OF GOAL ATTAINMENT

Programmes must be sustainable and one should be able to measure the achievement of the goals in terms of impact on children and youth. According to Senge *et al.* (2007a: 345), there are four different mental models that people hold regarding “achievement”. These are scores for external tests, scores of measurable improvement, external life measures, and internal awareness.

Within the YCECs, scores for external tests can include the completion of child friendly pre- and post-tests that provide an indication of the knowledge gained and/or attitudinal changes that occurred during the inclusion in the services or programmes.

Feedback from other team members regarding decrease in frequency of unacceptable behaviour and increase in acceptable behaviour can be an indication that the child or young person has benefited by his/her involvement in the programme.

The ability of the child to transfer the information obtained during sessions to various other settings can be ascertained from educators in the classroom, residential educators in the hostel, sports coaches and support staff on the sports field and support team.

Internal awareness is immeasurable.

Programmes that are linked with the IDP of each child or young person must be targeted toward their specific needs and strengths. This means, amongst others, that the programme must target certain behaviour, circumstances and attitudes of the child or youth that need to change in order for him/her to function optimally. This makes it possible to measure the effectiveness of the programme in terms of attitudinal and behavioural changes.

5.8 CONCLUSION

In terms of changed child and youth policies, services and programmes for children and youth must contribute towards their healing and development / growth. To ensure this the environment must be safe, relationships must be healing, and the children and youth must be taught self-management and coping skills. The team members must be consistent, dependable, predictable, accessible, sincere and transparent in their dealings with young people. All team members must strive for the goals contained in the children and youth's IDPs within their life space. This refers to the classroom, hostel, playground, sports field and any other space within the YCEC. Team members are, therefore, obligated to collaborate and share information about their observations, assistance provided and the response of the child or young person across the board. A menu of services and programmes must be available to address the range of social, emotional, psychological, and physical needs of children and youth. In doing so, team members must be creative in combining these programmes and services to best assist the children and youth. This new way of working can be time consuming and emotionally draining for the team members given the nature of the longstanding challenging behaviour with which the target group presents. It calls for persistence, patience, understanding, commitment and caring on their part to address the needs of children who are mostly filled with anger, fear and pain, and are distrustful of adults due to past experiences. The perspectives of the team members on this and other changes in the child and youth policies are discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6

THE DYNAMICS, EXPERIENCES AND STRATEGIES OF THE TEAM REGARDING THE CHANGED POLICIES

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the findings of the empirical study is set out in line with the goal and objectives of the study. The goal of the research was to gain an understanding of how members of institutional level teams experience the implementation of changed child and youth policies in YCECs.

The study is classified as exploratory descriptive research as limited results were found regarding the perspectives of team members of changed child and youth policies in South Africa (Rubin & Babbie, 2001:123 as cited by Fouché & De Vos, 2005:34). For the purpose of this study the population was team members who render services to children and youth in YCECs. The study was limited to the Western Cape Province as it was geographically accessible to the researcher. Purposive sampling (Bloor *et al.*, 2002:30; De Vos *et al.*, 2005:202; Welman *et al.*, 2008:69) was used for the study. The total population of the four YCECs comprises sixteen support team members (four school social workers, four school nurses, four psychologists and four occupational therapists); 32 residential educators and 80 educators (N=128). In total, a number of 43 (33,6%) participants were involved in the study.

The objectives of this study are to gain an understanding of:

- The nature of the changes contained in child and youth policies that impact on service delivery by the team in the YCEC in general.
- The nature of changed child and youth policies in terms of:
 - The shift from working in silos to working in teams
 - The shift from rendering generic services to children and youth to rendering individualised services (IDP)
- The obligation to provide IDP-linked developmental and therapeutic programmes for children and youth

To gather data two questionnaires were utilised. One of the questionnaires (Addendum 1) was used as guideline for the interviews and the focus groups. The other was a self-administered

questionnaire that was provided for all the team members at three of the YCECs (Addendum 2). One of the YCECs closed down shortly after the interviews were done. Quantitative information that was obtained dealt with identifying information of participants (age, qualifications, and years' experience), and the nature of changed child and youth policies that needed to be implemented by the team at the YCECs. Qualitative data focused on the respondents' perspectives on the implementation of changes in changed child and youth policies and legislation.

Two processes were followed:

- Participants of two of the YCECs were included in interviews (n=14) and participants from the other two YCECs were included in two focus groups (n=14). In line with qualitative studies, semi-structured interviews were used to engage participants (Greeff, 2005:292; Welman *et al.*, 2008:166).
- Self-administered questionnaires were then sent to all the team members at three of the YCECs. (The one YCEC, that was excluded, closed down two weeks after the initial interviews were completed.) Participants included all the support team members (n=12), all the residential educators (n=24), and all the educators (n=60). The support team members were the same persons that participated in the focus groups and interviews. Feedback was received from all the support team members: three psychologists (100%), three school social workers (100%), three school nurses (100%), and three occupational therapists (100%). Of the 60 educators and 24 residential educators, 21 (35%) and six (25%), respectively, completed the self administered questionnaires. Information of four team members of YCEC 4 was included namely 1 school social worker, 1 school nurse, 1 psychologist and 1 occupational therapist. In total, 43 team members participated in the study.

6.2 RESULTS OF THE STUDY

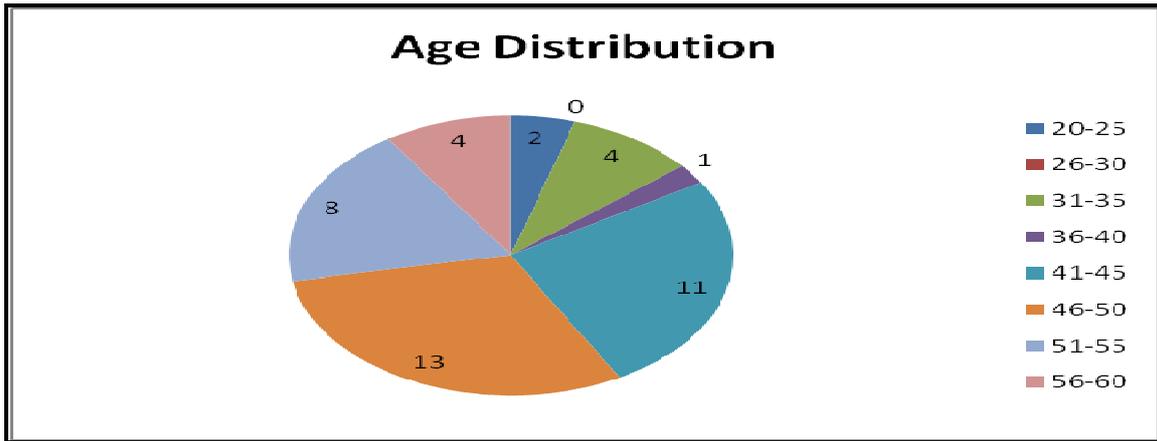
The data that was gathered via the completed questionnaires are reflected according to the relevant sections in the questionnaire attached as Addendum 1. Information received from the interviews and focus groups are incorporated in the narratives under the different themes.

6.2.1 Profile of Participants

In order to develop a profile of the participants in this study, identifying particulars such as their ages, qualifications, years of experience, and the years they have been in the service of the YCECs receive attention in the next section.

6.2.1.1 Age of the participants

The age group of the participants is reflected in Figure 6.1.



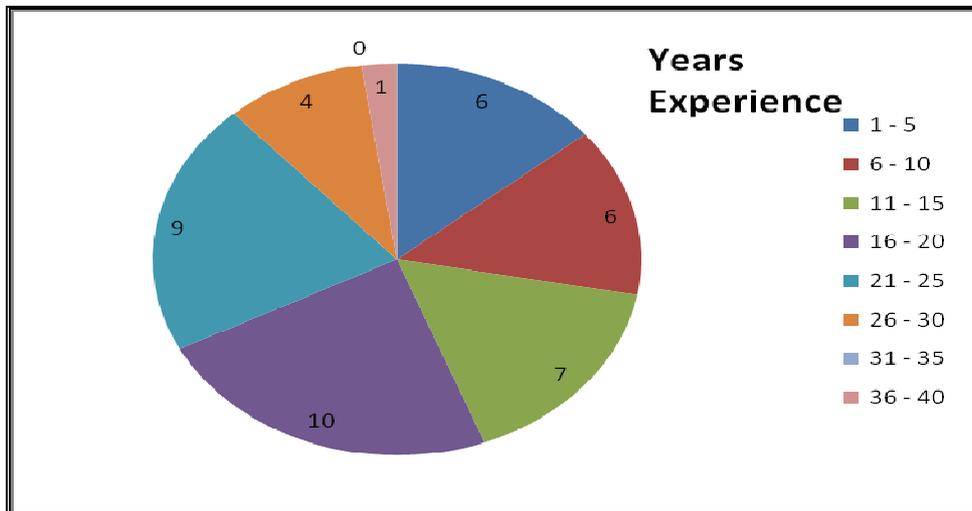
n=43

Figure 6.1 Age of participants

It is clear that the majority (24) of the participants falls within the age range of 41 to 50. This means that most of the team members at the YCECs are in their middle age.

6.2.1.2 Years of experience

Participants were requested to indicate how many years experience they have in child and youth care work and education. The responses are reflected in figure 6.2.



n=43

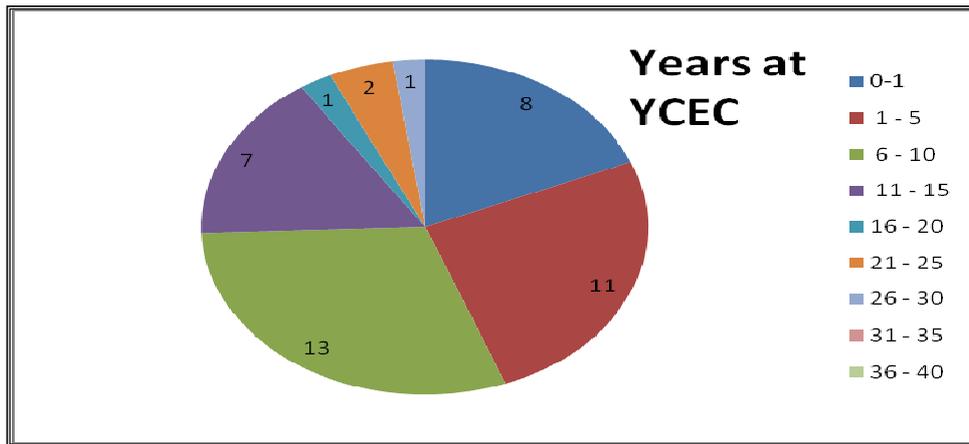
Figure 6.2 Years of experience

The participants represent a wide range of experience in their field. Twenty-six (60,9%) of the participants have between eleven and 25 years experience and twelve (27,9%) participants

have less than eleven years experience. Of the latter group, six of the participants have less than five years experience.

6.2.1.3 Period connected with the YCEC

The period that the participants have been connected to the YCEC was established. The information is captured in Figure 6.3.



N=43

Figure 6.3 Period connected with YCEC

Team members comprise both newcomers and experienced team members. Thirteen (30,2%) of the participants have been connected to the YCEC for between six and ten years while nineteen (44,1%) participants have less than five years experience.

6.2.1.4 Qualifications of the participants

The participants who took part in the study hold the following qualifications:

Table 6.1 Qualifications of the participants

QUALIFICATIONS	NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS
<p><u>EDUCATION QUALIFICATIONS</u> BA General / NHOD B Paediatrics. B, Education B Com Higher Education Diploma B Domestic science Bachelor of Education (BED) Bachelor of Education (BED): Education Management Bachelor in Education (BED): Remedial Higher Diploma in Education Higher Diploma in Education (Postgraduate) Education Diploma BSc Consumer science education OD Junior Primary and HED School Music Primary MA in Education</p>	<p>2 1 1 2 2 1 1 4 1 2 2 1 1</p> <p>(21)</p>
<p><u>PSYCHOLOGISTS' QUALIFICATIONS</u> BA Honors (Psychology) MA in Psychology MMED (Psychology) DPhil in Psychology</p>	<p>1 1 1 1</p> <p>(4)</p>
<p><u>SOCIAL WORK QUALIFICATIONS</u> Diploma in Social Work BA Social Work Internal Masters of Science in Social Work MA Social Work</p>	<p>1 1 1 1</p> <p>(4)</p>
<p><u>OCCUPATIONAL THERAPY</u> BA Occupational Therapy BSc Occupational Therapy</p>	<p>2 2</p> <p>(4)</p>
<p><u>NURSES</u> General Nursing and Obstetrics</p>	<p>4</p> <p>(4)</p>
<p><u>RESIDENTIAL EDUCATORS / CHILD CARE WORKERS</u> Matric Diploma Theo, Dip Counselling Diploma Public Administration and Management</p>	<p>3 2 1</p> <p>(6)</p>
<p>TOTAL</p>	<p>43</p>

The information in this table indicates that the staff members have a variety of training, even within the same profession, and therefore would work from different theoretical perspectives.

Table 6.2 Other qualifications of the participants

OTHER QUALIFICATIONS	NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS
Certificate in Family Therapy	1
Certificate: Assessor	4
Diploma in Bible Science (“Bybelkunde”)	1
Pastoral training	2
Master 4 Life Coach	1
ICDL Computer literacy	1
Nursing	1
N4 Secretarial	1
HOD Wood and Metalwork	1
Diploma in Mechanical Engineering	2
Qualification in Secure Care	1
DPFM	1
Higher Education Diploma	2
Diploma in Education	1
Junior Educator	1
Journey Educator	1
BA degree	1
BA honours	1
HIV/AIDS Counselling	1
Master Hypnotist (SAIH)	1
RAP training	2
Court supporter and intermediary	1
TOTAL	29

Twenty-nine (67,4%) of the team members have additional qualifications that range from profession specific to generic training.

6.2.1.5 Professions of the participants

The participants that completed the questionnaires represent a diverse group of professionals.

Table 6.3 Professions of the participants

PROFESSION	NUMBER
Educator	21 (35%)
Residential Educator	6 (25%)
School social worker	4 (100%)
Psychologist	4 (100%)
School Nurse	4 (100%)
Occupational Therapist	4 (100%)
TOTAL	43

The table shows that the team members are trained to assist the children and youth with education, social, emotional, psychological, health and occupational health issues.

The following themes emerged during the interviews and focus groups (phase 1) and from the self-administered questionnaires (phase 2). The narratives of the participants in this study are reflected without any adaptation or preparation on the part of the researcher.

6.3 THEMES THAT EMERGED FROM THE STUDY

Seven main themes emerged from the responses of the participants. These are their perspectives on:

- The introduction of changed child and youth policies
- The implementation of changed child and youth policies
- Teamwork
- Children's rights contained in the changed child and youth policies
- Service delivery approaches as mandated in changed child and youth policies
- Individualised services for children and youth (IDP)

- The disciplines of the organisational learning model

Themes were coded by the researcher. The process included coding frequent themes, categorising the themes onto a *pro forma* to assist with the analysis and substantiation of the themes as well as arrival at conclusions (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996 as cited by Bloor *et al.*, 2002:63; Greeff, 2005:292; Welmann, Kruger & Mitchell, 2008:214).

The first theme identified is the perspectives of team members in the ILST on the introduction of changed child and youth policies. As introduction to this theme attention is given to the type of policies introduced to the team members and the methods used to introduce the policies to the staff.

The policies that were introduced to team members are reflected in Table 6.4. Participants could give more than one answer.

Table 6.4 The type of policies introduced to team members

POLICIES	YES	NO
United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child	27 (62,7%)	16 (37,3%)
The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa	18 (41,6%)	25 (58,4%)
The Children's Act 38 of 2005	24 (55,8%)	19 (44,2%)
Abuse No More Protocol	22 (51,2%)	21 (48,8%)
Minimum Standards Document	34 (79,1%)	9 (20,9%)

n=43

It appears that most of the participants (34 or 79,1%) were introduced to the document that contains the minimum standards for service delivery in schools and facilities such as the YCECs.

Twenty-four (55,8%) of the participants were introduced to the Children's Act 38 of 2005, the new act that has received much attention recently. Twenty-seven (62,7%) of the participants were introduced to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child and were, therefore, provided with the international framework for the South African child and youth policies. Fewer of the participants (18 or 41,6%) were provided with the national framework (the Constitution of South Africa) for the child and youth policies.

What is of concern is that only 22 (51,2%) of the participants indicated that they were introduced to the Abuse No More Protocol that provides guidelines for staff about how to manage disclosures of all forms of abuse by learners. All staff should be able to manage such a disclosure on varying levels as stated in the Minimum Standards document (WCED, 2004b).

Participants reported on the way the policies were introduced to them, as reflected in Table 6.5. Participants gave more than one answer to the questions.

Table 6.5 The methods used to introduce policies to team members

METHODS USED TO INTRODUCE POLICIES	YES	NO
Staff was given the opportunity to express their feelings regarding the changed policies during workshops.	30 (69,6%)	13 (30,4%)
Policy documents were read to staff at a meeting.	24 (55,8%)	19 (44,2%)
Policy documents were given to the staff and they were expected to read it and provide feedback.	26 (60,4%)	17 (39,6%)
Policy documents were pinned to the notice board and staff had to sign that they are aware of the policies.	11 (25,6%)	32 (74,4%)

n=43

According to most of the participants (69,6%) they were given the opportunity to express their feelings regarding the changed policies during workshops. The ideal is that all participants should have been provided this opportunity to ensure that all the team members are in agreement.

The following section focuses on the perspectives of team members on the introduction of changed policies.

6.3.1 Theme 1: Perspectives on Introduction of Changed Child and Youth Policies

The first theme deals with the introduction of changed child and youth policies to members of the ILST and consists of two sub-themes as indicated in Table 6.6. This table provides the framework for further discussion.

Table 6.6 Framework for discussion on theme 1: Introduction of policies

THEME 1: PERSPECTIVES ON INTRODUCTION OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES	
SUB-THEME	CATEGORIES
<p><u>SUB THEME 1:</u></p> <p>THE METHOD(S) USED TO INTRODUCE CHANGED POLICIES TO EMPLOYED STAFF</p>	<p><u>Category 1:</u> Policies were given to team members</p> <p><u>Category 2:</u> Policies were pinned to the notice board</p> <p><u>Category 3:</u> Team members signed for policy document</p> <p><u>Category 4:</u> Policies were workshopped with team members</p> <p><u>Category 5:</u> Team members had to study policies independently</p>
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2:</u></p> <p>THE METHOD(S) USED TO INTRODUCE CHANGED POLICIES TO STAFF WHO JOINED THE YCECs AFTER THE POLICIES HAD BEEN INTRODUCED</p>	<p><u>Category 1:</u> Orientation of newly appointed staff in relation to changed child and youth policies</p> <p><u>Category 2:</u> Availability of orientation documents</p> <p><u>Category 3:</u> Provision of policy documents with no explanation</p> <p><u>Category 4:</u> Informal (in-service) orientation by co-team members</p>

Payne (2002:31) refers to the importance of specifically ascertaining how a new policy that is unpopular is introduced to staff. In this regard, Senge *et al.* (2007:66) refer to the importance that the principal provide the team members with dependable information regarding, amongst others, the underlying principles of change. This means that the leader must sell the changes to the team members. Only 18 (41,8%) of the participants, however, indicated that the principal introduced the policies or were in some way involved in introducing the policies. Three (6,9%) of the participants reported that the team leader (the psychologist) introduced the changed child

and youth policies to the team. Other persons who introduced the policies to the team members came from the provincial education department (6), the Department of Social Development (1), and the National Association of Child Care Workers (2). Thirteen (30,2%) of the staff members reported that nobody introduced the policies to them.

Furthermore, staff must be given the opportunity to embrace and work through changes (Ursiny & Kay, 2007:9; Maginn, 2007:5). In order for them to do so strong emotions, which are normally produced by change, should be addressed (Schein, 1992 as cited by James & Jones, 2008:3; James & Connolly, 2000; Partridge, 2007b:31). Questions were thus posed to the participants to ascertain their perspectives on the issue.

6.3.1.1 The method used to initially introduce changed child and youth policies to employed staff

The responses of the participants relating to their experiences of the changed child and youth policies when initially introduced to them are contained in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7 The methods used to initially introduce changed child and youth policies to employed staff

THEME 1: PERSPECTIVES ON THE METHOD USED FOR THE INTRODUCTION OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB THEME 1</u></p> <p>THE METHOD USED TO INITIALLY INTRODUCE CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES TO EMPLOYED STAFF</p> <p><u>Category 1</u> Policies were given to team members</p>	<p>“If you just get a document that was <u>delivered to a person’s room</u> – this is now your baby and you must feed the baby. It does not work.” (<i>“As jy net ‘n dokument kry wat by een se kamer afgelaai word – dit is nou jou baby en ons moet die baby voed. Dit werk nie.”</i>)</p> <p>“The way I learnt about policies.....I felt that the IDP was something that was <u>just thrown onto me.</u>”</p> <p>“Policy was <u>simply delivered and was not explained</u> to the staff.” (<i>“Beleid was net afgelewer en is nie aan personeel verduidelik nie.”</i>)</p> <p>“Again the <u>policy was just given to me to implement with no explanation</u> of how it came about.”</p> <p>“...because they were not hundred percent knowledgeable about the act, they <u>did not buy into</u> the whole situation.” (<i>“...omdat hul nie honderd persent kundig was oor die wet nie het hul nie ingekoop in die hele situasie nie.”</i>)</p>

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>Category 2</u> Policies were pinned to the notice board</p>	<p>"The principal <u>pinned the policy documents to a notice board</u> where you had to sign that you read it." (<i>"Die prinsipaal het beleidstukke teen kennisgewingbord geplak waar 'n mens dan moes teken dat jy dit self gelees het."</i>)</p> <p>"...the people are <u>ignorant</u> of why certain things are there, because as they say they are disempowered by the act – nobody spoke to them about it." (<i>"...die mense is onkundig hoekom sekere goeters daar is, want soos hul sê hul word ontmagtig deur die wet – niemand het met hul gepraat daaroor nie."</i>)</p>
<p><u>Category 3</u> Team members signed for policy document</p>	<p>"You <u>signed for it</u>, but the onus is now on you to read it, but if you are for example not a good reader you will just leave that document and remain ignorant." (<i>"Jy het geteken daarvoor, maar die onus berus nou op jou om dit te lees, maar as ek byvoorbeeld nie 'n goeie leser is nie gaan ek daardie dokument net daar los en ek gaan onkundig bly."</i>)</p>
<p><u>Category 4</u> Policies were workshopped with team members</p>	<p>"In my opinion Mr K did it very well. And <u>he divided all the staff up into groups</u> - from kitchen staff to deputy-principal and then he let us discuss it (reference to policy) and then we went back into a bigger group and we shared our ideas. And he did it over a few – I think two or three months, to help us to make the mindshift." (<i>"Mnr K het dit uitstekend gedoen na my mening. En hy het vir ons in groepe laat vergader. Hy het die ganse personeel opgedeel, van kombuis tot visie-hoof en dan het hy vir ons dit (verwys na beleid) laat bespreek en dan het ons teruggegaan in die groter groep en ons idees weer daar uitgeruil. En hy het dit gedoen oor 'n paar - ek dink twee of drie maande heen, en om vir ons die kopswaai te help maak."</i>)</p> <p>"I think some of the staff was maybe a little worried because it was where to from here? But I think the <u>whole process let you feel, at an early stage, that you knew...</u>" (<i>"Ek dink van die personeel was miskien 'n bietjie bekommerd want dit is mos maar nou waarheen nou? Maar ek dink die hele proses het jou baie gou laat voel jy weet..."</i>)</p>
<p><u>SUB THEME 1</u> <u>THE METHOD USED TO INITIALLY INTRODUCE CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES TO EMPLOYED STAFF</u></p> <p><u>Category 5</u> Team members had to study policies independently</p>	<p>"...and I had to float and run with it and I just <u>had to do my own research.</u>"</p> <p>"What if I had not read up on <u>White Paper 6?</u> I would not have known how to bring the child and educators together and teach them adaptive ways of dealing with the child. Not all staff members will study policy in their own time."</p> <p>"<u>Persons like me will go and figure out</u> what the rationale is, but it is not spelt out." (<i>"Mense soos ek sal gaan uitwerk wat is die rasionaal, maar dit word nie uitgespel nie."</i>)</p> <p>"We can discuss policy issues, but answers are rarely given to questions asked. <u>Had to figure it out for myself.</u>"</p>

What became evident from the narratives reflected here is that, where team members were not given occasion for reflection and questions, and when limited or no opportunity for two-way communication was given, the participants expressed concerns about what they would lose or leave behind as well as what they had to unlearn and concerns regarding to what they were committing themselves. These experiences correspond with the findings of Harris (1999:46) and Van Deventer & Kruger (2008:45). The opposite is true where the opportunity was given for team members to discuss these feelings of uncertainty and fear in the form of workshops. They felt informed and, therefore, empowered to implement changed policies.

Within the context of the organisational learning model (Senge, 1999; Senge *et al.*, 2007), when the introduction of the changed policies provided ample opportunity for the staff to discuss the changes, it assisted them in modifying the ways they think (mental models) and in acting in accordance with the changes in the policies. In doing so they established a focus on mutual purpose (shared vision). Furthermore, when given the opportunity to discuss these changes in groups they got a taste of what it is like to work in teams (team learning). However, when the participants were not given opportunity to discuss their feelings concerning the changed policies they did not take ownership of the new way of rendering services.

In this regard, Argyris (n.d. as cited by Senge *et al.*, 2007:55) also refers to “undiscussability” in human systems. Such topics are referred to by Senge *et al.* (2007:7) as “dangerous and discomforting topics”. Herold & Fedor (2008:71) focus on the fact that leaders do not consider differences in the thinking of individuals as this further complicates a complex change process. When a setting is not provided or permission not given for conversation to take place, it could lead to a lack of progress with policy implementation. In the learning organisation the capacity is developed to talk about these topics (Senge *et al.*, 2007:7).

The next section concentrates on how the policies were introduced to team members who joined the team at a later stage.

6.3.1.2 The methods used to introduce changed child and youth policies to newly appointed staff members that joined the YCEC after the policies had been introduced

The responses of the team members that joined the staff at the YCECs after the changed policies were introduced are reflected in Table 6.8.

Table 6.8 Methods used to introduce changed policies to newly appointed members

THEME 1: PERSPECTIVES ON THE METHOD USED FOR THE INTRODUCTION OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u> THE METHODS USED TO INTRODUCE CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES TO STAFF THAT JOINED THE YCEC AFTER THE POLICIES HAD BEEN INTRODUCED</p> <p><u>Category 1:</u> Orientation of newly appointed staff in relation to changed child and youth policies</p>	<p>“My experience is that <u>very limited in-service orientation</u> is done regarding policies and even regarding job descriptions.” (<i>“My ervaring sigself is dat daar word weinig binnenshuisoriëntering gedoen ten opsigte van beleide en selfs ook ten opsigte van job descriptions.”</i>)</p> <p><u>“I did my own induction and orientation”.</u></p>
<p><u>Category 2:</u> Availability of orientation documents</p>	<p>“I think when one comes here there really is <u>nothing in writing</u> or there is no specific file where you can go to see what the policies are. So, I think one learns with experience and then starts to realise what the policies really entail.” (<i>“Ek dink as ‘n mens hier inkom, is daar nie regtig goed op skrif gestel of daar is nie ‘n lêer spesifiek waar jy kan gaan en sien dit is van die beleide nie. So, ek dink ‘n mens leer met jou ervaring en dan begin jy besef wat behels die beleide eintlik.”</i>)</p> <p>“I am at the school now for a year and I know a little bit about what should happen. I get my information from what family members that work at schools talk about. <u>So I got nothing else”.</u></p> <p>“To date I received <u>no policy documents”.</u></p>
<p><u>Category 3:</u> Provision of policy document with no explanation</p>	<p>“I was simply given a copy in a very negative way – the attitude of the head of support services at the time was “this is what you must do.” (<i>“dit is wat jy moet doen.”</i>) My <u>questions could not be answered</u> by him at the time and it was clear that he as senior did not buy into the changed policies.”</p>

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>Category 4:</u></p> <p>Informal (in-service) orientation by co-team members.</p>	<p>“I am the newest member here and it took me one day before I felt part of the staff and I never went through an adaptation phase. <u>Everybody's doors are open to me.</u>” (<i>“Ek is omtrent die nuutste hier en dit het my 'n dag gevat toe voel ek sommer deel, en ek het nooit deur 'n aanpassingsfase gegaan nie. Almal se deure is oop vir my.”</i>)</p> <p>“...then I see clearly, you understand how the man is <u>taking chances with the new guy and exploits him.</u> I have now said to a few guys that came in – listen here, just be careful, I see you are enthusiastic, but just make sure exactly what is expected of you and from who you take your orders. So, at the end of the day any Dick, Tom and Harry can give you orders and you are on equal level.” (<i>“...dan sien ek duidelik, jy verstaan, hoe die man nou kansse vat met 'n nuwe ou en hom rêrig waar uitbuit. Ek het nou al vir 'n paar ouens wat ingekom het gesê – hoor hier, wees net versigtig, ek sien jy is entoesiasties, maar maak net seker presies wat van jou veronderstel is en van wie vat jy orders. So, aan die einde van die dag kan Piet, Paul en Klaas vir jou orders gee en ons is op gelyke vlak.”</i>)</p>

If persons that join the YCECs do not receive adequate orientation they will not be on the same page as the existing members and this will immediately put them at a disadvantage. Orientation should be provided by ways of documentation, training opportunities and through in-service supervision.

The next theme alludes to the perspectives of team members on the implementation of changed policies. The sub-themes and categories pertaining to this theme are contained in Table 6.9 and form the basis for the discussion.

6.3.2 Theme 2: Implementation of Changed Child and Youth Policies

Table 6.9 Framework for discussion of theme 2: Implementation of policies

THEME 2: PERSPECTIVES ON IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES	
SUB-THEME	CATEGORIES
<p><u>SUB THEME 1:</u></p> <p>LEADERSHIP IN IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES</p>	<p><u>Category 1:</u> Support and encouragement from the Principal</p> <p><u>Category 2:</u> Direction from the principal</p> <p><u>Category 3:</u> Ensuring compliance with changed child and youth policies</p> <p><u>Category 4:</u> Confidence instilled in team members by principal</p>
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2:</u></p> <p>IMPLEMENTABILITY OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES</p>	<p><u>Category 1:</u> Benefit of policies for team members</p> <p><u>Category 2:</u> Infrastructure in which policies must be implemented</p> <p><u>Category 3:</u> Human resources allocation for implementation of policies</p> <p><u>Category 4:</u> Time allocation for implementation of policy</p>

The principal in a YCEC is the leader and must provide direction (Maginn, 2007:3; Herold & Fedor, 2008:43). Furthermore, the leader must ensure that the change is sustained (Senge *et al.*, 2007:6) and must motivate and empower the team to make the implementation of the changes happen (Maginn, 2007:17; James & Connolly, 2000:29). The bottom line is that the principal must be a champion for change (Senge *et al.*, 2007:161) and make a full commitment to ensure the implementation of policies, thus, setting the tone for change within the institution (in this case the YCEC). In the YCEC this mainly means that the activities of the various sections, such as education, residential education and support services, need to be coordinated and directed as a whole in addressing the developmental needs of the children and youth.

The first category addresses the perspectives of team members on the support and encouragement they receive from their principal.

6.3.2.1 Support and encouragement received from the principal

Twenty-nine (67,4%) of the participants reported that they feel supported by their principal. The responses of the participants in this regard are reflected in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10 Implementation of changed policies: Support and encouragement

THEME 2: IMPLEMENTATION OF POLICIES	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>LEADERSHIP IN IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES</p> <p><u>Category 1:</u></p> <p>Support and encouragement from principal</p>	<p>"I feel that the office (principal) must be more involved. The <u>office is often absent</u> where it is desperately needed." (<i>"Ek voel die kantoor (prinsipaal) moet meer betrokke raak. Die kantoor is baie keer afwesig waar hy broodnodig is."</i>)</p> <p>"The principal <u>does not attend</u> team meetings."</p> <p>"<u>Support is not always there.</u> Most often projects / activities / solutions are not carried out – there is no action which is frustrating."</p> <p>"There is an <u>open door policy</u> at the school." (<i>"Daar is 'n oop-deur beleid by die skool."</i>)</p> <p>"<u>Support and empathy</u> from the principal." (<i>"Ondersteuning en empatie van prinsipaal."</i>)</p> <p>"If problem areas concerning the child crops up <u>I know who and where my support base is.</u>" (<i>"Indien probleem areas rondom die kind opduik weet ek wie en waar my ondersteuningsbasis is."</i>)</p> <p>"<u>There is a lot done to meet your needs</u> – and I think it makes you feel positive." (<i>"Daar word baie na jou as mens en jou eie behoeftes ook omgesien – en ek dink dit maak jou positief."</i>)</p> <p>"We are <u>encouraged to immediately discuss our problems</u> and suggest solutions for managing problem cases." (<i>"Ons word aangemoedig om probleme dadelik aan te spreek en die bestuur stel oplossings voor of hanteer probleemgevalle."</i>)</p>

The perspectives range from the principal not being available when desperately needed and not attending team meetings to the principal providing support by way of an open-door-policy and even empathy. It became clear that where staff felt supported they felt secure and where this was not the case they felt abandoned. Ursiny & Kay (2007:92) agree that the team needs to be supported by the principal in order to adapt to changed circumstances and to develop skills.

The next category focuses on the perceived direction that team members receive from the principal.

6.3.2.2 Direction from the principal

The principal must explain to staff the outcomes of the changed child and youth policies, procedures and methods of implementation (Van Deventer & Kruger, 2008:44). He/she must make team members' engagement and transition part of the policy implementation process (Ursiny & Kay, 2007:91). In addition, he/she is responsible for managing the process of planning and implementing. This comprises setting and "agreeing on objectives, planning the details, as well as implementing and monitoring plans" (Partridge, 2007b:91). Perspectives of team members regarding the fulfilment of the leader of these tasks are reflected in Table 6.11.

Table 6.11 Implementation of changed policies: Direction from the principal

THEME 2: IMPLEMENTATION OF POLICIES	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>LEADERSHIP IN IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES</p> <p><u>Category 2:</u></p> <p>Direction from the principal</p>	<p>"Here are no <u>limits, no structure, no policy and random crises management.</u>" (<i>"Hier is geen grense, geen struktuur, geen beleid en lukraak krisisbestuur."</i>)</p> <p>"No assistance for team <u>we have to work it out on our own.</u>"</p> <p><u>"Lack of managing and revising</u> policies on grass roots level."</p> <p>"...so there are different views regarding this, but no plan is made to say OK, come we meet and talk about how we will take this matter forward. <u>The people are allowed to go their own way.</u>" (<i>"...so daar is verskillende menings rondom dit, maar daar word nie'n plan gemaak om te sê oukei, kom ons kom bymekaar en ons sê dit is hoe ons dit verder gaan vat nie. Die mense kan maar elkeen op sy eie voortgaan."</i>)</p>

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>UB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>LEADERSHIP IN IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES</p> <p><u>Category 2:</u></p> <p>Direction from the principal</p> <p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>LEADERSHIP IN IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES</p> <p><u>Category 2:</u></p> <p>Direction from the principal</p>	<p><u>“Clear directives are not always given.”</u> (“<i>Duidelike direkte word nie altyd deurgegee nie.</i>”)</p> <p>“Policies have been changed, but there are <u>no clear practical guidelines</u> on ground level as how to implement it. So everybody kind of tries in their own way to implement things and this causes friction.” (“<i>Beleide is verander, maar daar is nie lekker praktiese riglyne gegee op grondvlak om dit te kan implementeer nie. So almal probeer half op hul eie manier dinge implementeer en dit veroorsaak wrywing.</i>”)</p> <p>“It is important that the leader of the school must show you in the right direction. <u>It does not happen here.</u>” (“<i>Dit is belangrik dat die leier van die skool vir jou kan wys in die regte rigting. Dit gebeur nie hier nie.</i>”)</p> <p>“But I only know that he (principal) was positive and indicated that we must take the lead. <u>The youth care centre will still take the lead and – and yes, we must set an example and we must put things in place and we must help with it.</u>” (“<i>Maar ek weet net hy was baie positief en het voorgesê dat ons moet die leiding neem. Die inrigting gaan nog leiding neem en – en ja, ons moet ‘n voorbeeld stel en ons moet goed daarstel en ons moet help daarmee.</i>”)</p> <p>“He <u>leads by example.</u>” (“<i>Hy neem leiding met sy voorbeeld.</i>”)</p> <p>“For me it feels as if the <u>leader is in control</u> - so I feel safe.” (“<i>Dit voel vir my asof die leier in beheer is. So ek voel veilig.</i>”)</p> <p>“...my background is totally different but the respect that everyone has for each other – and the <u>ideas you give through and how your ideas are accepted...</u> When you see there they run with your ideas - so the respect that each one has for the other, irrespective of your background, your education...” (“<i>...my agtergrond is heeltemal verskillend maar die respek wat elke ene vir mekaar het en jou idees wat jy deurgee en hoe jou idees ge-aanvaar word. As jy sien daar hardloop jou idee, so die respek wat elke ene vir mekaar het, ongeag jou agtergrond, jou education...</i>”)</p>

Some of the team members felt that they have “no compass” (Maxwell, 2001:101) and that they therefore do not feel directed as to how to move from the current situation to the desired situation (Maginn, 2007:7). They, therefore, felt that they had to find their own way of implementing policies. This created an “us and them” climate which is clearly not conducive for policy implementation, in general, and working in teams, in particular (Scharmer, 2002:21). Other team members indicated that they received direction and felt that their input was valued in the process. This made them feel secure and motivated.

The third category deals with the leader's role in ensuring implementation of changed child and youth policies as perceived by participants.

6.3.2.3 Ensuring compliance with changed child and youth policies

Effective change calls for effort on the part of all staff members. However, some people do not feel obligated to comply with the changes contained in changed child and youth policies. The principal is responsible to see to it that the policy obligations are met, must set a standard for service delivery (Van Deventer & Kruger, 2008:45), and work with resistance to change (James & Connolly, 2000:18). Accountability to the teams (Maxwell, 2001:2) and addressing poor performance (Ursiny & Kay, 2007:88) are seen as crucial. In this regard, the principal has a monitoring role (Partridge, 2007b:110). Imposing too little authority has been found to be one of the "tripwires" in implementing teamwork (Hackman, 1994 as cited by Hayes, 2002:195).

Participants reported that there was some staff who complied with policies, some who were committed to the implementation and some who simply did not comply. For instance, according to nineteen (44,1%) of the participants there are staff members who do not attend team meetings. The latter did not feel any consequences for their non-compliance and this frustrated other team members. It was felt that the lack of consequences was due to the fact that the changed policies had not yet been operationalised and sound planning frameworks were not in place. Furthermore, in some instances no rules existed in assisting the institution to ensure staff efficiency, in general, and the implementation of policies, in particular. By not ensuring that the staff understands what their goals and performance expectations are (Partridge, 2007a:41) monitoring of compliance is compromised. Some of the narratives of participants are reflected in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12 Ensuring compliance with changed child and youth policies

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>LEADERSHIP IN IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES</p> <p><u>Category 3</u></p> <p>Ensuring compliance with changed child and youth policies</p>	<p><u>“...but people are not held accountable.</u> They talk in the air. That is why people are cross because they feel that some people are corrected and others are not corrected.” (“...maar mense word nie verantwoordelik gehou nie. Daar word in die lug gepraat. Dit is waarom mense kwaad is want hul voel sekere mense word aangespreek en ander word nie aangespreek nie.”)</p> <p><u>“When I came to the institution I had to enforce a compliance culture.</u> Previously the staff was not taught accountability. Now I had also to infuse energy to bring it about. This left me unpopular – brought on attacks on me. <u>This should have been done by the principal.</u>”</p> <p>“Some team members <u>do not attend team meetings.</u>”</p> <p>“Disregard for policies with <u>no consequences.</u>”</p>
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>LEADERSHIP IN IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES</p> <p><u>Category 3</u></p> <p>Ensuring compliance with changed child and youth policies</p>	<p><u>“...people are not always kept accountable.</u> It may sound a little negative, but sometimes in certain situations it looks as if it is a ‘free for all’. I would think in an institution of this nature that you should be responsible.” (“...mense nie altyd verantwoordelik gehou nie. Dit klink miskien ‘n bietjie negatief, maar sommige kere in sekere situasies lyk dit asof dit ‘n ‘free for all’ is. Ek sou reken in ‘n inrigting van die aard dat jy verantwoordelik moet wees.”)</p> <p>“I just feel nobody is checking up on me – I can just sit in my office and do nothing. I am doing what I know what I have to do – I know I must keep records, I know I must keep statistics, but <u>no one comes to check up and give feedback.</u>”</p> <p>“...there is <u>no disciplinary structure for adults in the centre.</u>” (“...daar is nie ‘n dissiplinêre struktuur vir die volwasse nes in die sentrum nie.”)</p> <p>“He (the principal) just said this is the road that we must follow either you are on the boat or you are off.” (“Hy (die prinsipaal) het net gesê dit is die pad wat ons moet loop of jy is op die boot of jy is af.”)</p> <p>“...when there are discussions on Tuesdays, whether it is your off morning or not, <u>you must be there.</u> I think at other schools they have indicated that it is a problem for all to meet.” (“...as daar samesprekings elke Dinsdag is, of jy nou die Dinsdagoggend jou af oggend het of nie jy is daar. Jy moet daar wees. Ek dink by ander skole het hulle gesê dis ‘n probleem om almal bymekaar te kry.”)</p>

In light of the above narratives, a significant number of staff felt strongly that, in some instances, principals are not setting a standard for service delivery as referred to by Van Deventer & Kruger (2008: 18). They are, therefore, not able to closely monitor behaviours to ensure compliance (Herold & Fedor, 2008:45). Some of the narratives corresponded with the findings of Maxwell (2001:64) in that the committed team members resent the ones who do not

cooperate as they cause them to not reach their objectives effectively. This resistance or unwillingness to working in teams should be addressed by the principal (James & Connolly, 2000:18). In this regard, mention is made by Wheelan (1999:105) that if too much emphasis is placed on the social factors (taking into account the personal circumstances of the team members) it would lead to the task not being performed by the team members. This would be to the detriment of the high-risk children and youth in their care.

In some instances the principal, like suggested by Maginn (2007:58), made it clear that the people doing the work (in this case the team members) were accountable as a group. Responsibilities were assigned to team members to ensure the mandated outcomes. This led to team members buying into the changes in the child and youth policies and committing themselves to the implementation thereof.

The fourth category, under the sub-theme that alludes to leadership in implementation of changed child and youth policies, is confidence instilled in team members by the principal.

6.3.2.4 Confidence instilled in team members by the principal

It is important that the leader must gain credibility with the team members (Herold & Fedor, 2008:xii). In this regard, Senge *et al.* (2007b:194) specifically refer to the importance of trust and openness in times of change. People resist change because they do not trust the motives of those proposing it (James & Connolly, 2000:7). Leaders are not trusted if they are not “authentic in their conviction and sincere in their behaviour” (Senge *et al.*, 2007b:194). The responses of the participants in this regard are reflected in Table 6.13.

Table 6.13 Confidence instilled in team members by the principal

THEME 2: IMPLEMENTATION OF POLICIES	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>LEADERSHIP IN IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES</p> <p><u>Category 4:</u></p> <p>Confidence instilled in team members by the principal</p>	<p>“At this stage there is little confidence in the management of the school and it makes it difficult to accept and implement policies that they develop or that comes from them.” (<i>In hierdie stadium is daar min vertroue in die bestuur van die skool en dit maak dit vir ons moeilik om beleide wat hul bv opstel of wat inkom deur hulle te aanvaar en te implementeer.</i>)</p> <p>“I make suggestions to my principal with regard to inspections at hostels <u>but I don't know if it is communicated to the management.</u>” (<i>Ek maak voorstelle rondom die inspeksies by die koshuis aan my hoof, maar ek weet nie of dit aan die beheer deurgegee word nie.</i>)</p> <p>“Some of the members of management do not really have management skills. I get the impression that they are hanging around not knowing whatI think it is a big barrier. I think the <u>people cover for their own management positions</u> and the post that they are in and then you cannot get a thing from them because they have their personal agendas why they don't want to allow it. <u>The best interest of the staff is more important than the best interest of the child.</u>” (<i>Van die bestuurslede van die inrigting het nie regtig bestuursvaardighede nie. Ek kry die idee dat hul half rondhang en nie lekker weet ----- ek dink hier is 'n groot leemte. Ek dink mense 'cover' vir hulle eie bestuursposisies en die pos waarin hulle is en dan kan jy nie 'n ding by hul verby kry nie want hul het hul eie persoonlike agenda waarom hulle dit nie wil toelaat nie. Die beste belang van die personeel is meer belangrik as die beste belang van die kind.</i>)</p> <p>“We are not against change. When new things come our way and there are adaptations to make, <u>especially from the principal</u> and the management team, we take the change and implement it in a positive way and the other team members also join in.” (<i>Ons is nie teen verandering gekant nie. As die nuwe dinge kom en daar is aanpassings om te maak, veral van die hoof en van die bestuurspan neem ons die verandering en doen dit positief, en die ander spanlede skakel ook positief in.</i>)</p> <p>“The leader is very <u>transparent</u>”. (<i>Die hoof is baie deursigtig.</i>)</p>
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>LEADERSHIP IN IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES</p> <p><u>Category 5:</u></p> <p>Confidence instilled in team members by representatives of the provincial office.</p>	<p>“The <u>head office managers have no clue</u> as to what is endured at grassroots.”</p> <p>“<u>We have gone to a lot of trouble to make our needs known to the district- and head office</u> – I said that we cannot go on like that – we must educate the children but it is a difficult task. There are holes in the roof and the boys watch the girls. There are girls that leave the centre (without permission) on a daily basis – the boys go to them and have sex with them and we feel we cannot go on like this – <u>but nothing happened</u>”.</p> <p>“So many promises of support were made by <u>policymakers / WCED officialdom, but they never came down to grassroots level to explain operational and practical implementation</u> of policies. I get the impression that they themselves do not know. On the other hand people resist change and this makes progress difficult.”</p>

It needs to be stated that management support (top-down support) alone is not adequate but that commitment from the staff is also crucial to ensure effective service delivery (Mcleskey & Waldron, 2002:65). The principal can, therefore, not be kept solely responsible for the lack of implementation of changed child and youth policies.

Sub-theme 2 deals with the implementability of changed child and youth policies. The framework for this discussion was provided in Table 6.9. Category 1 of this sub-theme, namely the benefit of policies for team members, is discussed in the next section.

6.3.2.5 Benefit of policies for team members

Scepticism and uncertainty of certain professionals regarding the “legitimacy and wisdom” of the extent of changes have been referred to by Braganza (2001:119) and Partridge (2007b:22). In this regard, the children’s rights contained in the CRC and relevant policies could pose a challenge. These often come directly into conflict with traditional thinking (Wildeman & Nomdo 2007:1; Wilkins, Becker, Harris & Thayer, 2007:1).

Table 6.14 Benefit of policies for team members

THEME 2: IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u></p> <p>IMPLEMENTABILITY OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES</p> <p><u>Category 1</u> Benefit of policies for team members</p>	<p>“On <u>paper it is a wonderful policy</u> if only it could be implemented in practice I think we would almost sit with a Utopia, but unfortunately we live in a broken reality – broken world.” (<i>“Op papier is dit ’n wonderlike beleid as dit nou maar so in die praktyk ten uitvoer gebring kon word, dink ek het ons amper gesit met ’n Eutopia, maar ons woon ongelukkig in ’n gebroke realiteit - gebroke wêreld.”</i>)</p> <p>“When you are standing <u>in the trenches</u> you realise it is not always so easy.”</p> <p>“It is easy for <u>lawmakers to sit in their ivory tower</u> and hand down legislation that ignores the fact that staff is sworn at and assaulted daily.”</p> <p>“The <u>policy developers</u> that make the many crucial decisions about child and youth policy and practice do not have to live with those decisions.”</p>
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u></p> <p>IMPLEMENTABILITY OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES</p> <p><u>Category 1</u> Benefit of policies for team members</p>	<p>“At the end of the day the policy is there to position people so that each person can know exactly what he/she must do. <u>The tragedy is that it sounds good on paper but everybody does not understand it the same or some people do not implement policy at all.</u>”</p> <p>“My struggle with policies is there is <u>no protection</u> for either the parent or the teacher or childcare worker.”</p> <p>“It is a pity that politicians and their cronies <u>set these (policies) in stone.</u>”</p>

The above narratives correlate with the findings of Herold & Fedor (2008:x) that policies are often seen as unworkable or unrealistic. A significant number of participants in the study indicated that the policy developers are not in touch with the reality on implementation level. They felt that there is a big difference between the theory and practice.

The second category under the sub-theme, implementability of changed child and youth policies, allude to the infrastructure of policy implementation. Changes require that the procedures, the resource distribution and the timetables are considered and if necessary adapted.

6.3.2.6 Infrastructure in which policies must be implemented

Regarding the structural support, a number of staff members felt that although the principal has a role to play, the support from representatives of the district office and provincial office were seriously lacking. This referred to the fact that they did not provide funding to improve the structures within the YCEC. There was a perception that these representatives did not listen to nor did they have an understanding for their plight. The narratives of the participants regarding these issues are reflected in Table 6.15.

Table 6.15 Infrastructure in which policies must be implemented

THEME 2: IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u></p> <p>IMPLEMENTABILITY OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES</p> <p><u>Category 2:</u></p> <p>Infrastructure in which policies must be implemented</p>	<p>“The infrastructure causes that we cannot functionally manage the school (and implement changed policies). The children do not have privacy – they steal from each other – there is more fighting and the morale is low. As a result of the structural problems the children abscond on a daily basis. When they come back they are drugged and aggressive. There are obvious personality changes and now we come with our values. The child cannot benefit and the staff cannot work effectively. This has an impact on the staff that is starting to wonder what they are doing there.”</p> <p>“Working here is very stressful and strenuous, you can come here as prepared as ever (like today) and then you find you cannot get through to the children. If you come to the school and the children are full of dagga (like yesterday) it makes it difficult as I have to report on how children are progressing in the class. <u>This causes staff not to be able to implement the IDP effectively.</u> This upsets some staff and they go off sick. Their absence places extra responsibility on the other staff. Sometimes you do not know how to help a child – then it is too much for you. There are times that I can’t sleep. I dream about the children and I cry.”</p> <p>“<u>No policy can be implemented in a milieu like ours.</u> The no-smoking policy is not implemented – various policies cannot be implemented. So in a nutshell – currently we are not effective. We fail our children. Does the school have a right to exist?” (<i>“Geen beleid sal tot sy reg kom in ’n milieu soos ons s’n nie. Die nie-rook beleid kom nie tot sy reg nie – verskillende beleide kan net nie tot sy reg kom nie. So in ’n neutedop – huidiglik is ons nie effektief nie. Ons faal die kinders. Het die skool ’n bestaansreg?”</i>)</p> <p>“In our institution we specifically have the challenge of rehabilitating an alcoholic in a bar. <u>We are surrounded by drug dens</u> neighbouring the school and one of the main reasons our learners are doing drugs is because it is there”.</p>

The message conveyed by a number of participants is that, in line with the findings of Maslow (n.d. as referred to by Ursiny & Kay, 2007:25), if the most essential needs such as safety are not met children and youth cannot benefit when less essential needs (such as self-actualisation) are addressed.

The third category under the sub-theme, implementability of changed child and youth policies, allude to the human resources allocated for the implementation of policies.

6.3.2.7 Allocation of human resources for implementation of policies

One of the tasks of management is to provide adequate policy implementation capacity including human resources (Braganza, 2001:31). Lack of human resources within the YCECs poses a barrier to rendering services as mandated in the changed child and youth policies. Perspectives of team members are contained in Table 6.16.

Table 6.16 Allocation of human resources for implementation policies

THEME 2: IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u></p> <p>IMPLEMENTABILITY OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES</p> <p><u>Category 3:</u></p> <p>Allocation of human resources for implementation of policies</p>	<p>"I still remember the good old days when I worked – <u>there were seven psychologists in the School of Industries – a team of seven – today it is only single ones</u> and you can never provide the intensive support that you would like to and that you know is necessary, but I am not complaining. What one then says is that a directive should go out that more staff should be appointed. We must begin with social workers, let's begin there". (<i>"Ek onthou nog in die goeie ou dae toe ek gewerk het, was daar sewe sielkundiges in die Nywerheidskool, 'n span van sewe, vandag is dit net enkelinge en jy kan nooit die nodige intensiewe ondersteuning gee wat jy graag sou wil en wat jy weet is nodig nie, maar dit is nie klagtes nie. Wat 'n mens dan sê is daar moet 'n direkteif uitgaan dat daar meer personeellede aangestel moet word. Ons begin maar met maatskaplike werkers, kom ons begin daar."</i>)</p> <p>"...it is difficult for me to maintain discipline because we can only talk and <u>we do not always have the time to talk</u>. So we often neglect the children, not that we don't work with them, but we cannot. You know, there are 15 other children that are waiting and you can't conduct an hour session with every child, it is five minutes and it does not really address the child's needs." (<i>"...dit is vir ons moeilik om discipline te handhaaf want ons kan net praat en ons het nie altyd tyd om te praat nie. So, ons skeep dikwels die kinders af, nie dat ons nie met hulle werk nie, maar ons kan nie. U weet, daar is 15 ander kinders wat wag en jy kan nie 'n uur sessie met elke kind doen nie, dit is vyf minute en dit spreek nie regtig daardie kind se behoefte aan nie."</i>)</p> <p>"...we are <u>not enough people</u> to absolutely focus on each child." (<i>"..ons is nie genoeg mense om absoluut individueel te kan focus op elke kind nie."</i>)</p> <p>"Almost every learner has great and unique challenges in comparison with a <u>small staff that cannot give individual attention</u>." (<i>"Feitlik elke leerder het groot en unieke uitdagings teenoor 'n klein personeel wat nie individuele aandag kan skenk nie."</i>)</p>

What came out in the narratives of a number of participants is that they are not able to effectively implement services in line with the changed policies due to the fact that they have

been allocated fewer staff than in the past. For them this is particularly problematic given that the children and youth that come into care are in need of even more intensive services than before. These children and youth often have been in conflict with the law, have abused hard dependence producing substances and have not received the necessary structure and guidance at home. Parents are under enormous strain to provide for their children and are often overwhelmed by their responsibilities.

Brendtro *et al.* (2002) refer to the fact that vulnerable children and youth normally do not experience a sense of belonging, mastery, independence and generosity. It is therefore important for staff to provide a reclaiming environment for children and youth that include these elements. (These are described in Chapter 4.) To render such services adequate resources, funding and time must be allocated. The perspectives of the participants regarding the lack of human resources speaks to the statement made that South Africa is good when it comes to developing policies but less successful when it comes to the implementation thereof (September, 2006b:54).

The fourth category under the sub-theme, implementability of changed child and youth policies, allude to the time allocation for implementation of policies.

6.3.2.8 Time allocation for implementation of policies

A crucial factor in team development is the amount of time the team members spend together. Time constraints have been given as a reason for why staff is not able to meet policy obligations. Reasons for not having time are that people are being “pulled from crises to crises” (Soan, 2006:214; James & Jones, 2008:10). What is referred to as lack of time could also be lack of time flexibility (Senge, 2007:27, 68). This was found to be particularly relevant during this study.

Table 6.17 Time allocation for implementation of policies

THEME 2: IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p>IMPLEMENTABILITY OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES</p> <p><u>Category 4:</u></p> <p>Time allocation for implementation of policy (e.g IDP)</p>	<p>“Sufficient time at the YCEC – it is possible to set aside an hour. It is a personal commitment that you make and if you want to you will make the time. I will come in on a Saturday just so that we can work together, because then we can work more effectively with the child. So we are the heart to help the child, but if the heart is separated we cannot and then we will do more damage than good. We can make it.”</p> <p>“This is one area where we are actually good at (development of the IDP). There are set times for discussions – <u>we make the time for it.</u> (<i>“Dit is een plek waar ons eintlik goed is (opstel van IDP). Daar is vasgestelde tye vir samesprekings – ons maak tyd daarvoor.”</i>)</p>

The narratives of the participants correlated with the statements of the authors referred to above. In this regard some of the members of the ILST indicated that sufficient time was allocated to render services in line with the changed child and youth policies whilst others felt that time constraints prevented them from working in line with these changes. They often came from the same setting. In this regard, 22 (51,1%) of the team members were of the opinion that teamwork, valuable as it may be, take up too much of team members' time. Despite this view only six (13,9%) of the participants held the view that it is better to work on your own than in teams. The statements made by Senge (2007:27, 68) regarding time flexibility rather than a lack of time were confirmed by the narratives of a number of the participants.

6.3.3 Theme 3: Perspectives on teamwork

The fourth theme – which emerged from the interviews, focus-groups and self-administered questionnaires – focuses on perspectives on teamwork within the YCECs. The framework for this discussion is contained in Table 6.18.

Table 6.18 Framework for discussion of theme 3: Perspectives on teamwork

THEME 3: PERSPECTIVES ON TEAMWORK	
SUB-THEMES	CATEGORIES
<u>SUB THEME 1:</u> BENEFITS OF TEAMWORK	<u>Category 1:</u> Multiple perspectives <u>Category 2:</u> Improved outcomes for learners <u>Category 3:</u> Continuity of services
<u>SUB-THEME 2:</u> PROGRESS MADE WITH TEAM DEVELOPMENT: PERFORMING PHASE	<u>Category 1:</u> Power and status <u>Category 2:</u> Understanding own role and roles of other team members <u>Category 3:</u> Conflict within the team <u>Category 4:</u> Opportunities for team members to learn about each other's roles <u>Category 5:</u> Involvement of team members in teamwork
<u>SUB-THEME 3:</u> PROGRESS MADE WITH TEAM DEVELOPMENT: STORMING PHASE	<u>Category 1:</u> Trust among team members <u>Category 2:</u> Subgroups / cliques in the team
<u>SUB-THEME 4:</u> PROGRESS MADE WITH TEAM DEVELOPMENT: NORMING PHASE	<u>Category 1:</u> Agreement on team rules <u>Category 2:</u> A shared set of expectations of appropriate behaviour
<u>SUB-THEME 5:</u> PROGRESS MADE WITH TEAM DEVELOPMENT: PERFORMING PHASE	<u>Category 1:</u> Ability to perform the team task <u>Category 2:</u> Acceptance of team by members <u>Category 3:</u> Leadership

6.3.3.1 Perspectives of team members on the benefit of teamwork

Forty-two (97,6%) of the participants indicated that they believe that it is in the learner's best interests for staff to work in teams and not in their separate disciplinary groups or on their own. They felt that teamwork holds definite benefits for team members. Their perspectives on these benefits are reflected in Table 6.19.

Table 6.19 Benefits of teamwork: Improved outcomes for learners

THEME 3: PERSPECTIVES ON TEAMWORK	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>BENEFITS OF TEAMWORK</p> <p><u>Category 1</u></p> <p>Multiple perspectives</p>	<p>“<u>Teamwork broadens the vision of a school.</u> Each individual can make a valuable contribution to the team.” (<i>“Spanwerk verbreed die visie van ‘n skool. Elke individu kan ‘n sinvolle bydrae lewer in die span.”</i>)</p> <p>“Share of experience and exposure to <u>more insights and opinions.</u>” (<i>“Deel van ondervinding en blootstelling aan meer insigte en opinies.”</i>)</p> <p>“<u>Each staff member knows a different aspect of the learner</u> and each one helps / means something different to the child. Overarching objective must be to get the same message across.” (<i>“Elke personeellid ken ‘n ander aspek van die leerder en elkeen help / beteken iets verskillend vir die kind. Oorhoofse doelwit moet dieselfde wees, mens moet uit een mond praat.”</i>)</p> <p>“So that everybody can work on the <u>same objectives</u> and it strengthens your hand.” (<i>“Sodat almal aan dieselfde doelwitte werk en dit versterk jou hand.”</i>)</p>
<p><u>Category 2</u></p> <p>Continuity of services</p>	<p>“On occasion where staff members are perhaps <u>absent</u>, for whatever reason, there is a team member available who knows the duties of the other and who can take over.”</p>

Having established that there is a strong support for working in teams, it was important to ascertain at what phase of team development they were.

6.3.3.2 Perspectives on elements of phases of team development

Teams take time to develop to the phase where they are able to render the services expected from changed child and youth policies. Tuckman (1965 as cited by Partridge, 2007a:20) refers to four phases of team development: forming, storming, norming and performing phases. To proceed through these various phases team members must regularly meet and help each other with the change effort (Senge *et al.*, 2007:50) and show commitment at all phases (James & Connolly, 2000:29). It takes time to build the kind of team commitment (Maxwell, 2001:141) needed to reach the performing phase.

To ascertain at what phase of team development the team was, the participants were asked questions pertaining to the elements of the various phases of team development. The sub-

themes addressed are, therefore, in line with the phases of team development and the categories with the elements of that particular phase.

(a) Progress Made With the Forming Phase of Team Development

Representatives of the ILST at the YCEC are drawn from various sections, namely the support section, the education section, and the residential education section. During the forming phase the priorities are to encourage these professionals to work in teams (James & Connolly, 2000:111), to effectively organise diverse insights (Senge *et al.*, 2007:5) and to embark on role differentiation (James & Connolly, 2000:33). Throughout the phases the leader must assist with defining roles, the purpose of roles, and give clarity on the boundaries of the roles (Partridge, 2007a:20). Conditions within the institution must also be created to enable roles to be taken up and performed (James & Connolly, 2000:162). This phase is important as it provides for interface between team members about how the team can best use the advantage of division of labour (Payne, 2002: 8, 9). It was therefore necessary to ascertain whether the staff members understood the purpose and goals of the team. Thirty-seven (86,4%) participants responded in the affirmative.

The first category, to be discussed under the sub-theme that deals with the forming phase, is power and status. This is one of the barriers to effective team forming.

i. Power and Status among Members of the ILST

Teams are not “sites of equality and shared power” and, therefore, issues of power and status pose a barrier to effective team functioning (Wenger, 1998 as cited by Frost, Robinson & Anning, 2005:191; Marsh, 2006:150). Team members differ regarding the level of real or perceived authority and formal influence they enjoy.

Perspectives of the participants are that some of the team members see the team as a way of reinforcing their position. This correlates with the findings of Payne (2002:25). Furthermore, there are views that certain team members seem to use the right to instruct or direct activities when other team members think it inappropriate (Payne, 2002:73). Reference was also made to the tendency of “finger pointing” (Miller, 2008:23) by team members. In this regard, only fourteen (32,5%) of the participants felt that there was agreement among team members as to who should be in charge.

The narratives of the team members are contained in Table 6.20.

Table 6.20 Perspectives on teamwork

THEME 3: PERSPECTIVES ON TEAMWORK	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>PROGRESS MADE WITH FORMING PHASE</p> <p><u>Category 1:</u></p> <p>Power and status</p>	<p>"I <u>always have to fight here for my role</u>. Must always make it clear – this is my role so that people don't step over me."</p> <p>"Learner files were with LSK – when I came here it was brought to my office. Was not received well. <u>There was an attitude of 'these are my files'</u>. Reasonable move away from territorial – talked about differences and are busy to find each other. Insecure - many changes" <i>Leerder lêers was eers by LSK – toe ek hier kom is dit na my kantoor gebring. Was nie goed ontvang. Daar was die houding van 'dis my lêers'. Redelike positiewe wegbeweging van territoriale – gepraat oor verskille en is besig om mekaar te vind. Insecure - baie veranderings)</i></p> <p>"Some people just want to be difficult – they want to make their mark – this makes it difficult for other persons to buy into the situation." (<i>"Party mense wil net moeilik wees – hul wil so half 'n stempeltjie afdruk wat dit moeilik maak vir die ander mense om in te koop in die situasie in."</i>)</p>
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>PROGRESS MADE WITH FORMING PHASE</p> <p><u>Category 1:</u></p> <p>Power and status</p>	<p>"Very often there is <u>animosity and dislike among team members</u> especially when someone takes on leadership roles. The appointment of Z in a section has led to jealousy and envy and to the extent of friends breaking up."</p> <p>"Some people keep confidential information to themselves not because they are scared of what the next person will do with it, <u>but it is a source of power to them</u>. The message they send is 'I know it all so I have the upper hand'. They even talk in that way – 'yes...but if you knew what I know...' (<i>"Ja, maar as jy moet weet wat ek weet"...</i>) – It leaves you guessing."</p> <p>"<u>Boundaries are not kept</u>, thus people keep interfering in my professional capacity".</p>

Several of the participants expressed strong feelings regarding issues of power and status. They indicated that they did not receive guidance from the principal and it would appear that the team leader, normally the psychologist, was not always able to resolve the conflict regarding status and power. It is the role of the leader (in this case it should be the principal who is independent of the team) to foster effective communication among team members and, in so doing, further team development (Ursiny & Kay, 2007:92).

The second category under the sub-theme, which deals with the forming phase of team development, is the understanding of the team member's own role and the roles of the other team members.

ii. Understanding of Own Role and the Roles of Other Team Members

This category alludes to the measure of uncertainty as to which team member is responsible for which tasks. In this regard, Hayes (2002:38) explains that because the team comprises of different professions, responsibilities, status and skills they do not necessarily see themselves as being similar. Team members therefore should have a clear understanding of the way in which each of the team members contributes to the team efforts. To address this, opportunity must be provided for role clarification, in other words to clarify, for example, the views, assumptions and opinions in relation to an individual's role and role expectations (Hayes, 2002:60; Payne, 2002:69). This is one of the elements of team forming. Thirty-three (76,7%) of the participants indicated that they understand the roles of the other team members in the team whilst 36 (83,7%) participants felt that they understood their own roles within the team. The responses are displayed in Table 6.21.

Table 6.21 The forming phase of team development: Understanding roles

THEME 4: PERSPECTIVES ON TEAMWORK	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORIES	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u> PROGRESS MADE WITH FORMING PHASE</p> <p><u>Category 2:</u> Understanding own role and roles of other team members</p>	<p>"Everybody <u>does not understand my role</u>. There were accusations that I do not see how the children act, as I sit far away." (<i>"Almal verstaan nie my rol nie. Daar was beskuldigings dat ek nie sien hoe die kinders optree nie, want ek sit daar ver."</i>)</p> <p>"<u>No understanding</u> of each other's roles – especially the role of the residential educators. We can offer much more."</p> <p>"The roles of the OT and <u>psychologist are very unclear</u>, as they are not delivering services pertaining to their specific profession."</p> <p>"I think we <u>struggle to understand each other's work and to gel</u> with each other regarding collaborating. I don't think it is because the motivation lacks, that we don't want to, but I think it is difficult for us – how do we succeed in targeting the boundaries but also working together and I think it is practically difficult"</p> <p>"Some people feel that <u>too much attention is given to the social factors</u> and that too meticulous implementation of the policy occurs." (<i>"Sommige mense voel dat te veel aandag gegee word aan sosiale faktore en dat te puntenerige toepassing van die wet plaasvind."</i>)</p>

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORIES	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>PROGRESS MADE WITH FORMING PHASE</p> <p><u>Category 2:</u></p> <p>Understanding own role and roles of other team members</p>	<p>"I am <u>aware of roles</u> of people in my section as well as a few other sections. However <u>sometimes I feel that people are not fulfilling the roles they need to.</u>"</p> <p><u>Everybody is aware of everyone's abilities</u>, talents, gifts and allows each one to fulfil his unique role." (<i>"Almal is bewus van elkeen se vermoëns, talente, gawes en laat toe dat elkeen sy besondere rol vervul."</i>)</p> <p>"Team members <u>have understanding for the roles of others.</u>" (<i>"Spanlede het begrip vir ander se rol."</i>)</p> <p>"Roles are clearly spelt out in policy <u>documents / discussions / job descriptions are clearly spelt out.</u>" (<i>"Rolle word in beleidstukke / samesprekings / werksessies / pligtestate duidelik uitgespel."</i>)</p> <p>"Yes, <u>everyone has his task.</u>" (<i>"Ja, elkeen het sy taak."</i>)</p> <p>"We are a melody in which the resonance of each note is important." (<i>"Ons is 'n melodie waarin elke noot se resonansie belangrik is."</i>)</p>

What is apparent from the narratives is that, at this early stage of team development, many of the participants feel that they are already expected to be a self-led team and figure out for themselves what their roles are within team context. At this phase of team development the

leader should be providing direction (Aranda *et al.*, 1998:37) otherwise the team will not be able to move to the next phase of team development.

The third category under the sub-theme referring to the forming phase of team development is conflict within teams.

iii. Conflict within the Team

Thirty-one (72%) of the participants indicated that there is conflict / disagreement among team members. There is clearly still uncertainty amongst some team members not only about the roles of the other team members but of their own roles as well. The perspectives of most of the team members are that there is especially much ambiguity regarding the roles of the residential educators and the educators. Both groups have education qualifications and both groups have certain perceptions regarding the role of an educator. Within this framework both groups do not seem to be able to place themselves within the roles assigned to the residential educators. Apparently the educators look down on the residential educators because they view their role as inferior. The residential educators feel that the tasks they are assigned are demeaning.

Differences within the support team were also mentioned. One of the participants referred to this as follows:

“My interpretation of the problem is that there is always a ‘we and you’ between the educators and the residential educators. There is constantly an underlying frustration between the two groups of ‘we are here to educate and to teach and it is not our task to help in the hostels’. (My interpretasie van die probleem is dat daar heeltyd ‘n ‘ons en julle’ is tussen die opvoeders en die residensiële opvoeders. Daar is heeltyd ‘n onderliggende frustrasie tussen die twee groepe van ‘ons is hier om op te voed en te onderrig en dit is nie ons taak om by die koshuis te help nie’.)

Overlapping boundaries where team members take over the same territory (Payne, 2002:67) is also alluded to in Table 6.22.

Table 6.22 Progress with forming phase: Conflict within the team

THEME 3: PERSPECTIVES ON TEAMWORK	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>PROGRESS MADE WITH FORMING PHASE</p> <p><u>Category 3:</u></p> <p>Conflict within the team</p>	<p>“There is also the feeling that the <u>non-teaching (residential) educator is of less importance than the teaching educators.</u> The teaching educators are of the opinion <u>that their status is higher.</u>” (<i>“Daar is ook die gevoel dat die nie-doserende (residensiële onderwysers) die mindere van die onderwyspersoneel is. Die doserende onderwysers meen hul status is hoër.”</i>)</p> <p>“<u>No understanding of each other’s roles – especially the role of the residential educators.</u> We were advised that, instead of teaching Life Orientation we must do programmes (Circle of Courage) in the afternoon, but there is also the fact that we must also be cleaners and other staff do not value us as professionals. We can offer much more.”</p> <p>“<u>I was totally offended by her (professionally and personally).</u> It was almost as if my profession meant nothing – the way the person actually approached the whole thing. The Social Worker (nothing personal) took over the files and took control of the isolation – She made it clear that this is a social work thing. I felt it was – like I also studied for four years and did my Honours – I see us on the same level but different ways of helping the child. It felt like the hierarchy was social worker, then psychologist and then the OT.”</p> <p>“Other team members <u>constantly question my work</u> and the fact that I act according to the Child Care Act. I am also often given tasks pertaining to other professions (i.e. psychology and occupational therapy).”</p> <p>“Here is a hierarchy of <u>finger pointing</u> – of I am an educator and I don’t clean hostels. It should not be a problem, but I think it is people’s attitude.” (<i>“Hier is ‘n hiërargie van vinger wys – van ek is ‘n opvoeder ek maak nie koshuise skoon nie. Dit behoort nie ‘n probleem te wees nie, maar ek dink dit is die mense se ingesteldheid.”</i>)</p>

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORIES	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>PROGRESS MADE WITH FORMING PHASE</p> <p><u>Category 3:</u></p> <p>Conflict within the team</p>	<p>“If there is <u>conflict it is solved professionally</u> – both sides state their case and a third party solves it. This is mostly the psychologist.” (<i>“As daar konflik is word dit professioneel opgelos – albei se saak word gestel en ‘n derde party los dit op. Meestal die sielkundige.”</i>)</p> <p>“There is very seldom conflict. If so, a person will have the <u>liberty to talk about it.</u>” (<i>“Konflik kom baie min voor. Indien wel sal mens die vrymoedigheid hê om daaroor te praat.”</i>)</p> <p>“Sometimes there are <u>differences of opinion</u>, but not on a personal level.” (<i>“Daar is wel soms meningsverskille maar nie op ‘n persoonlike vlak nie.”</i>)</p> <p>“The best interest of the child is the deciding factor in a difference of opinion – resolution.” (<i>“Die beste belang van elke leerder is die gewone deler in meningsverskil – resolušie.”</i>)</p> <p>“Most of the time <u>learners cause conflict by exploiting situations</u> and adults end up disagreeing due to lack of consultation.”</p>

Given the fact that the forming phase is referred to as the “dependency and inclusion phase” when related to leadership roles (Wheelan, 1999:24-27), it is of concern that the narratives of many of the team members show that they are left to their own devices and find it difficult to reach agreement. This hampers the team development. Where the principal does provide the necessary leadership, progress with team development is enhanced. A number of participants reported that there is role conflict and role incompatibility within the team. This is normal for this phase of team development (Parker, 1996:61-70) but should be addressed effectively to enable teams to make progress within the phases of team development.

The fourth category under the sub-theme of progress made within the forming phase of team development is the opportunities provided for team members to learn about each other’s roles.

iv. Opportunities Provided for Team Members to Learn about Each Other’s Roles

During the forming phase team members must be given opportunities to meet and to learn about each other’s roles. According to the participants, these opportunities are not provided or are not provided frequently enough. It is of concern that the principal is not involved with the team as he/she should facilitate these discussions. Currently, it is expected of a team member to do so. That team member represents one of the components (normally a psychologist from the support section) and this places him/her in a position where he/she is not seen as totally objective. The responses of the participants are reflected in Table 6.23.

Table 6.23 Opportunities for team members to learn about each other's roles

THEME 3: PERSPECTIVES ON TEAMWORK	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORIES	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>PROGRESS MADE WITH THE FORMING PHASE</p> <p><u>Category 4:</u></p> <p>Opportunities for team members to learn about each other's roles</p>	<p>"There are <u>too few opportunities to really understand where each person comes from</u>. I think if we talk more to each otherput our feelings on the table, I can see that one can collaborate." (<i>"Daar is te min geleenthede om regtig te verstaan waarvandaan elkeen kom. Ek dink as ons meer praat met mekaar..... ons gevoelens op die tafel sit, dan kan ek sien dat 'n mens nogal kan saamwerk."</i>)</p> <p>"<u>No opportunity is given for the new member to explain what the nature of their work is so that everyone can understand what can or cannot be expected from the team member.</u>"</p> <p>"I feel that <u>job descriptions should be brought to the table</u>. I will then tell them about my profession and how I fit in the team."</p> <p>"...but people are also invited to <u>communicate and then it does not happen</u>, for reasons." (<i>"...maar mense word ook genooi om te kommunikeer en dan word dit nie gedoen nie, vir redes."</i>)</p>
<p><u>Category 4:</u></p> <p>Opportunities for team members to learn about each other's roles</p>	<p>"<u>Regular discussions</u> take place where the focus is on the objectives and roles." (<i>"Gereelde gesprekke vind plaas waar daar gefokus word op doelwitte en rolle."</i>)</p> <p>"<u>Information is regularly shared</u> at support team meetings as well as multi-professional team meetings and discussions where all the educators are present." (<i>"Daar word gereeld byeengekom en inligting uitgeruil tydens hulpdiens-vergaderings sowel as multi-professionele spanvergaderings en samesprekings waar al die opvoeders ook by is."</i>)</p>

From the narratives it is clear that many of the participants feel that they are not provided with "a mechanism and a process" (Senge *et al.*, 2007:394) to allow them to exchange ideas across disciplines and sections. Where this opportunity is given teamwork is perceived to be more successful.

The fifth category under the sub-theme, progress made in the forming phase of team development, is the involvement of team members in teamwork.

The responses of the participants are reflected in Table 6.24.

Table 6.24 Involvement of team members in teamwork

THEME 3: PERSPECTIVES ON TEAMWORK	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>PROGRESS MADE WITH THE FORMING PHASE</p> <p><u>Category 5:</u></p> <p>Involvement of team members in teamwork</p>	<p>“There is a tendency that some staff members do not want to share with the team. Recently I spoke to an educator (one-on-one) and asked why she did not share the fact that she found a way to work with one of the learners that reached him. She then replied that other persons must find their own way of reaching the child.”</p> <p>“<u>Not all staff members are on board.</u>”</p> <p>“Tuesdays the auxiliary team – consisting of the school social worker, psychologist, the nurse and the principal take place. <u>Residential educator and educator not present.</u> We should have them present but we don’t (not full complement).”</p>

From the narratives of a significant number of team members it would appear that a group of staff members do not even take the time to attend team meetings. This poses a serious barrier to effective service delivery in line with the changed child and youth policies. In this regard, one must consider the importance of social factors and task factors (Senge *et al.*, 2007:13). If too much attention is given to the social factors (personal circumstances of the staff such as an inability to accept the changes) and the task is not performed (development of the IDP) then it hampers the progress of the vulnerable children and youth who deserve to receive intensive individualised services. It is, therefore, important that it is ensured that all staff members become involved in teamwork.

Furthermore, it is concluded from the narratives of the participants, that the participants are generally of the opinion that the majority of the educators and residential educators do not attend team meetings. This is in line with the findings of Wenger (1998:24-26, 71) that educators, due to the nature of their profession, are used to working individually and enjoy their relative independence (Flower, Mertens & Mulhall, 2000 as cited by Clark & Clark, 2006:55). This needs to be addressed.

The next sub-theme addresses the progress that the team has made with the storming phase of team development. The categories are the trust among team members as well as the existence of sub-groups / cliques in the team.

(b) Progress Made With the Storming Phase of Team Development

The storming phase is the next phase of team development. Responses on the elements of this phase are contained in Table 6.25.

Table 6.25 Progress made with the storming phase: Trust among team members

THEME 3: PERSPECTIVES ON TEAMWORK	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u></p> <p>PROGRESS MADE WITH THE STORMING PHASE</p> <p><u>Category 1:</u></p> <p>Trust among team members</p>	<p>"Some staff members keep important information about the children to themselves. People <u>don't trust each other</u>. I would want to share information with educators but am scared that they might keep this information against the children."</p> <p>"...but as a result of wrong perceptions that we have or presumptions <u>the trust is not always there</u>." (<i>"...maar as gevolg van verkeerde persepsies wat ons het of veronderstellins is daardie trust nie altyd daar nie."</i>)</p> <p>"One finds it a lot that people <u>do not trust you</u> and do not believe in what you do." (<i>"n Mens kry dit baie dat mense vertrou jou nie in dit wat jy doen nie."</i>)</p> <p>"Regarding occupational therapists, psychologists, social workers and nurses – different information is given to different people. It is all about trust – and <u>people don't trust each other</u> and I can't trust you so I am not going to tell you what this child said."</p> <p>"There is <u>mistrust among team members</u>. Sometimes you feel like a messenger. For example when a child of the hostel is out of hand and you refer to the auxiliary workers there is no come back and you have to stay with the child."</p>

The impression is gained from the above narratives that staff who feel strongly about their territory are perceived as disregarding the roles of the other team members. The sharing of confidentiality is mentioned as one of the contentious issues. For the one team member the fact that information is not shared with others is seen as a power issue and for the one that does not want to share the information it is about protecting the child. These issues should be discussed in team context so that there can be a better understanding of each person's view on the issue and to come to some kind of understanding. As found by Frost, Robinson & Anning (2005:193) social workers were found to be at the centre of the debate when it came to the sharing of confidential information. It remains a challenge as sharing too little information with team members is not in the best interest of the child but the social worker and psychologist must adhere to the code of confidentiality to which he/she is bound. It needs to be highlighted that mention was made of the perceived inability of some educators to understand the fact that information shared with them should be kept confidential. This is of concern when bearing in mind that the educators do not have to adhere to a code of confidentiality. The importance of

keeping information confidential is implied in their code of ethics but there are no consequences for not keeping information confidential. When it comes to the sharing of information the child's best interests should be the deciding factor. What is viewed to be in the best interest of a child can also be viewed very differently by different team members.

A number of participants spoke about not only trusting each other but really looking out for each other's well-being. These responses included:

There is really a caring from bottom to top, top to bottom and amongst us. (*Daar is regtig omgee van ondertoe boontoe, van boontoe ondertoe en tussen mekaar.*)

“ I had a crisis with my wife – she became seriously ill. So I was off for two weeks. The house parents divided the children and said I must totally forget about the institution. I received calls from people (co-workers) that said ‘forget about the institution give your full attention to your wife’. This meant a lot to me. (*Ek het 'n krisis gehad met my vrou – sy het ernstig siek geraak. So twee weke was ek nie hier nie. Die huisouers het die kinders opgedeel en gesê ek moet heeltemal vergeet van die inrigting. Ek het oproepe gekry van mense wat gesê het ‘vergeet van die inrigting gee jou aandag aan jou vrou’. Dit het baie vir my beteken.*)

Ursiny & Kay (2007:92) confirm the importance of the principal providing support to the team in order for them to adapt and learn new skills.

The second category pertaining to the storming phase of team development is the presence of sub-groups within the team. Nineteen (44,2%) of the participants were of the opinion that there are sub-groups in the team. The narratives of participants in this regard are reflected in Table 6.26.

Table 6.26 Progress made with the storming phase: Sub-groups in the team

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u></p> <p>PROGRESS MADE WITH THE STORMING PHASE</p> <p><u>Category 2:</u></p> <p>Sub-groups / cliques in the team</p>	<p>“This is a big school with different levels of staff – teamwork does not always work so well – <u>undercurrents and camps</u> exist.” (<i>“Dit is ‘n groot skool met verskillende vlakke – spanwerk werk nie altyd so goed nie – onderlinge strominge en kampies kom voor.”</i>)</p> <p>“<u>Internal politics divide staff</u> and present challenges to effective teamwork.”</p> <p>“The <u>psychologist and occupational therapist</u> are a sub-group. They make decisions without consulting with the team.”</p> <p>“<u>Lack of communication in morning and afternoon staff.</u> Difficult to get everybody on the same page.”</p>

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORIES	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u></p> <p>PROGRESS MADE WITH THE STORMING PHASE</p> <p><u>Category 2:</u></p> <p>Sub-groups / cliques in the team</p>	<p>“We are equal in status, but there is still a <u>‘we and you’</u> feeling.” (<i>“Ons is gelyk in status, maar daar is tog ‘n ‘ons en julle’ gevoel.”</i>)</p> <p>“In practice it feels (for me) that the <u>sections still work very independent of each other.</u>” (<i>“In die praktyk voel dit vir my die afdelings werk nog baie onafhanklik van mekaar.”</i>)</p> <p>“People <u>congregate in groups</u> – especially during breaks – very few actually come to the staff room.”</p> <p>“Members, who do not agree with a decision, <u>normally meet on their own.</u>” (<i>“Lede wat nie saamstem met ‘n besluit nie, vergader gewoonlik op eie houtjie.”</i>)</p> <p>“There is a <u>struggle in forming and maintaining a team spirit.</u>”</p>

The development of sub-groups has been documented as normal during the storming phase (Michalski, 1998:18; Nash, 1999:257). Some of the participants refer to their struggles and the division experienced. Due to the absence of an external leader to facilitate and mediate they become stuck in this phase. When leadership is shown the team members report that progress is made with the team development. Team members can not be effective if they do not hold a shared vision, have a common understanding of the needs of the target group served and do not understand their own roles and the roles of others.

(c) Progress Made With the Norming Phase

In this section two elements of the norming phase of team development are discussed. These are the agreement on rules and the development of a shared set of expectations of appropriate behaviour.

i. Agreement on Rules

Partridge (2007a:21) explains the need for teams to agree on team rules in order to operate as a team. At the norming phase team members should be more positive and able to work together. From the data gathered it is evident that few of the teams have reached this agreement. However, 28 (65,1%) of the participants indicated that they felt that the team members have laid down team rules that are easy to understand and acceptable to all. Compliance with these rules is sometimes quite a different matter.

ii. Shared Set of Expectations of Appropriate Behaviour

Twenty-seven (62,7%) of the participants were of the opinion that they succeeded in developing a shared set of expectations of what appropriate member behaviour should be.

The next and final phase of team development is the performing phase.

(d) Progress Made With the Performing Phase of Team Development

At the performing phase of team development the team members should feel confident and committed to rendering the mandated tasks set out in changed child and youth policies (Kohn & O'Connell, 2007:59). With regard to the progress made with this phase the participants reported as follows:

- Thirty (69,7%) of the participants felt that they work well together as a team and that they are thus able to perform their task, which is mainly the development of the IDPs for children and youth
- Twenty-nine (67,4%) of the participants were of the opinion that all the team members accept the team
- Thirty-five (81,3%) indicated that they have a strong leader and 29 (67,4%) felt that the team got support from the management

What is of interest is that despite the fact that the participants, for the most part, see their team leader as a strong leader, a much lower percentage (14% less) of the participants felt that everybody accepted the team. The team leader is thus not seen as the reason why people do not accept the team.

The fifth theme that emerged from the interviews, focus groups and questionnaires is the perspective of team members of children's rights.

6.3.4 Theme 4: Perspectives on Children's Rights

The framework for the discussion of the perspectives of team members of the ILST on the children's rights contained in the changed child and youth policies is set out in Table 6.27.

Table 6.27 Framework for discussion of theme 4: Perspectives on children’s rights

THEME 4: PERSPECTIVES ON CHILDREN’S RIGHTS	
SUB-THEME	CATEGORIES
<u>SUB THEME 1:</u> GENERAL CHILDREN’S RIGHTS	<u>Category 1:</u> Wisdom of children’s rights <u>Category 2:</u> Impact of children’s rights on the staff <u>Category 3:</u> Impact of children’s rights on the families of children and youth <u>Category 4:</u> Impact of children’s rights on the children and youth
<u>SUB-THEME 2:</u> ABOLISHMENT OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT	<u>Category 1:</u> The impact of the abolishment of corporal punishment on the authority of the members of the ILST <u>Category 2:</u> Impact of alternatives to corporal punishment on discipline <u>Category 3:</u> Respect of team members for children’s rights
<u>SUB-THEME 3:</u> THE CHILD’S RIGHT TO MAKE INDEPENDENT DECISIONS AND PARTICIPATE IN MATTERS PERTAINING TO HIM OR HER	<u>Category 1:</u> The capacity of children to participate in matters pertaining to them and make independent decisions.

The first sub-theme is the perspectives of team members on the children’s rights in general.

6.3.4.1 Values underlying general children’s rights

Bearing in mind that policy content can mean different things to different people, the participants were asked what they thought the main values were underlying the changes in the policies. Responses included the shift to the “strengths-based / developmental approach”; “the shift from a retributive to a restorative approach”; “the developmental approach”; “the child-centred approach”; “child participation”; “starting where the child is”; “ensuring basic human rights when rendering services”; “listening to children”; and “respecting the uniqueness of the child”. It was clear that all the participants had some measure of understanding of the children’s rights perspective but focused on different aspects. The responses are reflected in Table 6.28.

Table 6.28 Perspectives on children's rights

THEME 4: PERSPECTIVES ON CHILDREN'S RIGHTS	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>CHILDREN'S RIGHTS IN GENERAL</p> <p><u>Category 1:</u></p> <p>Team members' perspectives on children's rights</p>	<p>"I would say that here it is about the rights of the child – that the child for instance knows that he must be <u>safe</u>, that he must be <u>protected</u>, that there is looked out for his <u>best interests</u>, that he lives in a <u>safe area</u>, that he must be safe when he walks in the street. That he should feel safe at home and that there are places where he can for instance <u>go to complain if things are not right</u>, that he must have <u>peace of mind</u> – um – that the child realises – somebody looks after me – <u>the legislation looks after me.</u>" (<i>"Ek sal sê dat dit hier gaan oor die regte van die kind – dat die kind byvoorbeeld weet dat hy veilig moet wees, dat hy beskerm moet wees, dat daar na sy heil omgesien word, dat hy in veilige area woon, dat hy veilig in die straat moet loop. Dat hy veilig by die huis moet wees en dat daar wel plekke is waar hy bv. kan gaan kla indien dinge nie reg is nie; dat ek bv. gemoedsrus in myself het – um – dat die kind die besef het – iemand kyk na my – die wet kyk na my."</i>)</p> <p>"You must <u>at least listen</u> to the child. Take the child's social circumstances into account. You must not just listen, but must also hear." (<i>"Jy moet ten minste na die kind luister. Neem die kind se sosiale omstandighede in ag. Jy moet luister en nie net hoor nie."</i>)</p> <p>"They (lawmakers) are focusing on building the behaviours of our children. They want people to think that <u>children can change no matter how you see them</u>. He or she still can change!!!"</p> <p>"To <u>stamp out abuse</u>. We have good policies but the implementation is a problem."</p>

Table 6.28 Perspectives on children's rights

Participants had a good understanding of what the rights of children are and did not dispute that these rights should be given to the children. The statement was, however, often made that children have rights and no responsibilities and that adults have responsibilities and no rights. These narratives are reflected in Table 6.29 that illustrates the second category. This category relates to the perspectives of team members about the impact that children's rights have on the various role players.

Table 6.29 Impact of children's rights on role players

THEME 4: PERSPECTIVES ON CHILDREN'S RIGHTS	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>Category 2:</u></p> <p>Impact of children's rights on the staff</p>	<p>"I believe in the rights that the documents give to children and do not feel that it violates my rights as an adult. <u>I believe that when children are more demanding it is because adults are not explaining their rights to them.</u>"</p> <p>"Some of the youth take advantage of these changed policies and use it not to become better citizens. They <u>become 'the law unto themselves'</u> and know whatever they do – nothing will come of it."</p>
<p><u>Category 3:</u></p> <p>Impact of children's rights on the families of children and youth</p>	<p>"I often think why parents don't want their children to go home, because I have heard many <u>adults say we don't have rights anymore</u>, it is the children who have rights. So, the children overpower the parents – we cannot control them anymore and so, thank you, there is a place where my child can be placed and I also don't want him back soon." (<i>"Ek dink baie keer hoekom ouers ook nie hulle kinders wil huis toe laat kom nie, omdat ek het mos al baie grootmense gehoor sê ons het nie meer regte nie, dit is die kinders wat regte het. So, die kinders oorheers die ouers – ons kan hulle nie meer beheer nie en so, dankie, daar is 'n plek waar ek my kind kan gaan plaas en ek wil hom ook nie gou weer terughê nie."</i>)</p>
<p><u>Category 4:</u></p> <p>Impact of children's rights on the children and youth.</p>	<p>"..but the thing is we teach children their rights here, but are they really adhered to in the community – and I think this is the worry as we release children – what is going to happen to the child, because we can prepare him just so much but are his rights really respected and are his responsibilities really explained to him at home also?" (<i>"...maar die ding is ons leer vir die kinders hulle regte hierso, maar word dit regtig in die gemeenskap toegepas en ek dink dit is 'n bekommernis van ons as ons kinders uitplaas - wat gaan van die kind word, want ons kan hom net soveel voorberei maar word sy regte regtig gerespekteer en word sy verantwoordelikeid regtig aan hom deurgegee by die huis ook?"</i>)</p>

The perspectives of a significant number of participants were that children cannot handle the rights given to them and use it to disempower the team members. The challenging behaviour that children and youth present with in the YCECs is often seen as the result of children's ways of understanding their rights. Furthermore, the concern was raised that children's rights are also threatening to parents and sometimes whole communities. There is also differing views regarding what rights children should be afforded within families and communities.

The second sub-theme is the abolishment of corporal punishment.

6.3.4.2 The abolishment of corporal punishment

When discussing the abolishment of corporal punishment participants from all the institutions gave mixed responses. It became particularly evident that there is a difference between the ideal as set by changed child and youth policies, and the perspectives on how functional and realistic these policies really are. This is probably the most contested children's right. This sub-theme is divided into three categories, namely the impact of the abolishment of corporal punishment on the authority of the team members; the alternatives to the administering of corporal punishment; and the respect of team members for this particular children's right. Twenty (46,5%) of the participants do not agree with the abolishment of corporal punishment as set out in the appropriate education- and social policy documents.

The first category is the impact of the abolishment of corporal punishment on the authority of the team members.

(a) Impact of the Abolishment of Corporal Punishment on the Authority of Team Members

When corporal punishment was abolished there were many complaints from educators that they could no longer manage the challenging behaviour of children and youth. From some corners the statement was frequently made that the serious problems children and young people currently present are due to the fact that corporal punishment may not be administered. It is also often stated that children now have the upper hand and that adults' hands are tied behind their backs.

The responses of the participants in this regard are reflected in Table 6.30.

Table 6.30 Perspectives on corporal punishment

THEME 4: CHILDREN'S RIGHTS PERSPECTIVE CONTAINED IN CHANGED POLICIES	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u></p> <p>ABOLISHMENT OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT</p> <p><u>Category 1:</u></p> <p>The impact of the abolishment of corporal punishment on the authority of the team members</p>	<p>"It is difficult because when I worked in court I felt that children's rights were abused – most especially in the courts, <u>but now that I am here I see teachers are abused by the children (swear at)</u>. Not enough is done to focus on children's responsibility to others."</p> <p>"Corporal punishment is not allowed – people still struggle with it – they still lash out at times." (<i>"Lyfstraf is uit – mense sukkel nog daarmee – hulle mik nog om te slaan."</i>)</p> <p>"We as staff also feel that way because the type of children we work with need lots of structure, need a measure of discipline via structure and it is difficult for us to discipline them." (<i>"Ons as personeel voel ook so want die tipe kinders waarmee ons werk kort baie struktuur, kort tot 'n mate dissipline deur struktuur en dit is vir ons moeilik om dissipline te handhaaf."</i>)</p>
<p>Arguments for the abolishment of corporal punishment</p>	<p>"I initially did not buy into it, but when I thought it through and I looked at my own life made the connection. <u>It is traumatic for boys to be subjected to corporal punishment</u>. I remember how the boys in the Delta detention hostel, years ago, were caned wearing their pyjama shorts. I remember how the staff took out their frustrations on the boys. <u>I now believe you can discipline a child without using corporal punishment.</u>"</p> <p>"When I look at why the government has abolished corporal punishment I believe that it is because hitting and slapping was abused and children were almost beaten to death. <u>I accept now that I have to abide by government policy and see how I can practice it within my own values and the values of my profession.</u>"</p> <p>"Corporal punishment is extrinsic motivation that only produces compliance and not self-discipline." (<i>"Lyfstraf is eksintrieke motivering wat slegs compliance bewerkstellig en nie self-discipline nie."</i>)</p> <p>"Research proves that it <u>does not work</u>. It is disempowering both to the giver and the receiver."</p> <p>"The learners already come out of abusive situations which corporal punishment will exacerbate the behaviour."</p> <p>"Corporal punishment has not succeeded in keeping jails empty."</p>

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u></p> <p>ABOLISHMENT OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT</p> <p>Arguments against the abolishment of corporal punishment</p>	<p>“Learners have the upper hand – discipline at schools is poor.” (<i>“Leerders het die hef in die hand – dissipline by skole is power.”</i>)</p> <p>“I think there is a place for corporal punishment if it is <u>administered in the correct way.</u>” (<i>“Ek dink as lyfstraf op korrekte wyse hanteer sou word, daar wel ’n plek daarvoor is.”</i>)</p> <p>“Corporal punishment helps – it does not have to be assault and abuse”. (<i>“Lyfstraf help – dit hoef nie aanranding en mishandeling te wees nie.”</i>)</p> <p>“If a learner has not been disciplined since birth, the Biblical principal should be implemented in love.” (<i>“Indien ’n leerder sedert geboorte nog nie gedissiplineer is nie, moet die Bybelse beginsel toegepas word in liefde.”</i>)</p>

It is clear from the narratives that a number of participants understand the need for the abolishment of corporal punishment but do not know what to put in its place. They often indicated that alternatives to corporal punishment might work for children in mainstream schools but are not effective for the children in the YCECs who present with serious challenging behaviour, such as assault. These behaviours, therefore, warrant more punitive measures otherwise staff feels disempowered.

(b) Alternatives to the Administering of Corporal Punishment

Since the abolishment of corporal punishment the team members received training in alternative ways of managing the children and young people’s challenging behaviour. These alternatives were discussed in Chapter 4. The participants’ perspectives on the effectiveness of these alternative approaches are reflected in Table 6.31.

Table 6.31 Alternatives to corporal punishment

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORIES	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u> ABOLISHMENT OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT</p> <p><u>Category 2:</u> Alternatives to the administering of corporal punishment</p>	<p>“After the abolishment of corporal punishment we realised we had to have a Plan B – what were we going to do? You had to approach the child from a different angle. And then our clients – it was about the use of language, foul language – it was swearing – it was verbal abuse and we wondered how we were going to handle it? <u>We are still battling with this.</u>” (<i>“Na die afskaffing van lyfstraf het ons besef ons moes ‘n plan B hê – wat gaan ons nou maak? Jy moet nou vanuit ‘n ander hoek die kind benader. En dan ook ons kliënte – dit was oor taalgebruik, ‘n swak taal, dit was vloek, dit was skel – en hoe gaan jy dit nou hanteer. Ons sukkel nog daarmee.”</i>)</p> <p>“I just think the ideas are good, but how do we marry the two. The question is <u>what do adults do if they are assaulted?</u> Obviously I do not want the child to be put in jail. How can we work the whole thing out?”</p>
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u> ABOLISHMENT OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT</p> <p><u>Category 2:</u> Alternatives to the administering of corporal punishment</p>	<p>“Policy makers should take note of the fact that experience is the best. Yes, we can go to anger management courses but these children are difficult to manage. <u>These children are hitting the staff. We are presented with anger management courses but these children.....</u>”</p> <p>“Yes, I know we say our children have children’s rights but I think we as adults have few rights. It is terrible that you are sworn at by a child. <u>One of our problems at the schools is here are very little consequences for behaviour.</u> It is an atypical school – it is behaviourally challenged children and how are we going to help the children if we don’t let them carry the consequences. The people are very scared to touch a child. Children know their rights but we don’t have.” (<i>“Ja ek weet ons sê kinders het kinderregte, maar ek dink ons as volwassenes het min regte. Dit is verskriklik dat jy deur ‘n kind gevloek word. Een van ons probleme by die skool is hier is bitter min gevolge vir gedrag. Dit is ‘n eiesoortige skool – dit is gedragsmoeilike kinders en hoe gaan ons die kinders help indien ons nie vir hul die gevolge laat dra nie. Die mense is baie bang om aan ‘n kind te vat. Kinders ken hulle regte, maar ons het nie.”</i>)</p> <p>“<u>The old system was familiar and comfortable.</u> Delta lock-up facility and old punishment methods – staff felt protected”.</p>

Dobson (2002:37) states that the lack of suitable responses to children’s misbehaviour could lead to adults “exploding” and this could be more harmful for children. Some of the participants also believe that corporal punishment is the most acceptable behaviour management practice for all children and do not believe in alternatives to this form of punishment. They also indicate their difficulty with unlearning previously successful strategies and learning alternatives (Hedberg & Wolff, 2001:535). Some of the narratives reflect the findings of Tafa (2002:17) that religious and cultural arguments for the use of corporal punishment are often raised.

(c) *Respect of team members for this particular children's right*

The measure in which children's rights are respected by adults is closely linked to the value they place on children. The complaints of the children are viewed in terms of where the responsibility for that behaviour lies (Holland, 2004:26).

Table 6.32 Respect of team members for children's rights

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORIES	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u></p> <p>ABOLISHMENT OF CORPORAL PUNISHMENT</p> <p><u>Category 3:</u></p> <p>Respect of team members for children's rights</p>	<p>"<u>Abuse is not reported as it should.</u> Here is a tendency that the child that had been physically abused by a staff member must just be prepared to shake hands with the alleged perpetrator (staff member) and then all must be forgiven. Abuse (corporal punishment or assault) of children is still <u>swept under the carpet.</u> The staff does not understand or accept their obligation to report cases of abuse. There is also an emotional aspect to the non-reporting. The feeling is if you lay a charge against a colleague who may lose his job – it will have huge implications for his family who you normally know (some of the staff even live on the premises). The staff is much divided on this issue. One staff member said to another a while ago 'Do you really want to report the matter and become an enemy?' In the past a few staff members ganged up against anyone who was perceived to wrong a colleague."</p> <p>"Some of the staff sees our kids in the YCEC as different from other children – to them the children '<u>are scraped from the bottom of the barrel.</u>' These staff members display an air of superiority and claim that our children should have fewer rights. I believe that about 60% of our educators believe that our children are not worthy."</p>

From the narratives it would appear that it does happen that the adult's rights are seen as paramount and not the rights of the child. The importance of the impact of social influences and dialogues on the definition of problems faced by children and their families (Anning *et al.*, 2007:51) must, therefore, be taken into consideration.

The following right that deserves discussion is the child's participation right and right to make independent decisions in certain instances.

6.3.4.3 The Child's Right to Make Independent Decisions and Participate in Matters Pertaining to Him or Her

As already alluded to in Chapter 2, policies such as the Constitution of the RSA (RSA, 1993a) and the Children's Act 38 of 2005 (RSA, 2005) specifically refer to the child's right to participate

in matters concerning him/her. If, however, he/she is not able to exercise this right for some reason, representation of the child's view is important. Thirty-nine (90,6%) of the participants agreed that children should have the right to participate in matters that affect them. This is depicted in Table 6.33.

Table 6.33 Perspectives on the child's right to participate and make independent decisions

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORIES	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 3</u></p> <p>THE CHILD'S RIGHT TO MAKE INDEPENDENT DECISIONS</p> <p><u>Category 2:</u></p> <p>Children's rights to participate in matters affecting them and to make independent decisions</p>	<p>"Children must have it but with the necessary <u>guidance from adults.</u>" (<i>"Kinders moet dit hê ,maar met die nodige leiding van 'n volwassene."</i>)</p> <p>"You get <u>children that cannot make a decision</u> for themselves and then he or she makes a wrong decision and then it is more – a bigger problem for the school than it would have been if the adults took the decision." (<i>"Jy kry kinders wat nie vir homself 'n besluit kan neem nie en dan neem hy heelmaal 'n verkeerde besluit en dan is dit meer – 'n groter probleem vir die skool as wat dit sou gewees het waar die grootmense die besluit geneem het."</i>)</p> <p>"...there are <u>heavy issues that they can decide on</u> by themselves and I mean if it has been taken it can have reasonable consequences for them." (<i>"...daar is nogal heavy issues waaroor hulle self besluite kan neem en ek bedoel die besluit, as dit geneem is, kan dit nogal redelike gevolge ook vir hulle inhou."</i>)</p> <p>"The child is an <u>expert in his or her own right.</u> Children co-operate better when they are involved in decision-making."</p> <p>"The child always <u>has information</u> that we don't."</p> <p>"We are a constitutional state (which we fought for in 1976/1980). For the children to become practicing adults in a democracy they must get exercise as learners to participate." (<i>"Ons is 'n konsitusionele staat (waarvoor ons in 1976/1980 baklei het). Vir kinders om praktiserende volwassenes te word in 'n demokrasie moet hulle oefening kry as leerders om deel te neem."</i>)</p> <p>"Our role is to support and <u>empower the learners in their goals for themselves.</u>" (<i>"Ons rol is om die leerders te ondersteun en bemagtig in hul doelstellings vir hulself."</i>)</p> <p>"They must assist to develop rules then they <u>feel part of the process.</u>" (<i>"Hulle moet help om reëls op te stel dan voel hul deel van die proses."</i>)</p>

The majority of participants agree that children should be given opportunity to participate in matters affecting them instead of being passive beneficiaries of services (Hallett, 1998:238; Keil *et al.*, 2006:171). Some of the participants did, however, have reservations regarding the decisions that the young children (twelve years and older) are allowed to make. These include

the right to undergo an operation and receive medical treatment (including having an abortion) without the permission of their parents (RSA, 2005). Generally, participants felt that it is important that children participate in the development and monitoring of their IDP but concurred that this is for the most part not realised in practice.

6.3.5 Theme 5: Perspectives on Service Delivery Approaches

When discussing the perspectives of team members on the new service delivery approaches the framework for the discussion set out in Table 6.34 is followed.

Table 6.34 Framework for discussion of theme 5: Service delivery approaches

THEME 5: PERSPECTIVES ON SERVICE DELIVERY APPROACHES	
SUB-THEME	CATEGORIES
<u>SUB-THEME 1</u> PERSPECTIVES ON THE STRENGTHS-BASED APPROACH	<u>Category 1:</u> Benefit of the strengths-based approach for team members
	<u>Category 2:</u> Barriers to the implementation of the Strengths-based approach
<u>SUB-THEME 2:</u> PERSPECTIVES ON THE RESTORATIVE JUSTICE APPROACH	<u>Category 1:</u> Response of children and youth to this approach
	<u>Category 2:</u> Benefit of the restorative justice approach.

The first category, under the sub-theme relating to perspectives on the strengths-based approach, is the benefit of this approach for team members of the ILST. Thirty-two (74,4%) of the participants agree that this approach must be followed when working with children.

Table 6.35 Perspective on the strengths-based approach

THEME 5: PERSPECTIVES ON SERVICE DELIVERY APPROACHES	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORIES	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>PERSPECTIVES ON THE STRENGTHS-BASED APPROACH</p> <p><u>Category 1:</u> Benefit of this approach for team members</p>	<p>“But one now <u>understands better why that child presents with challenging behaviour</u>. He is not like that because he is plain rude – cheeky and challenging – but there are deeper causes and if you are open to this new approach you can enter into his world – inside his frame of reference and from there you can act more supportive towards the guy.” (<i>“Maar nou het ‘n ou ‘n baie beter verstaan van hoekom daardie kind gedragsmoeilik is. Hy is nie net gedragsmoeilik omdat hy nou plein onbeskof is nie, dat hy astring is nie, dat hy ‘n uitdagende gedrag openbaar nie, maar daar is dieperliggende oorsake en ‘n ou kom – ek dink ook met hierdie nuwe benadering gee dit ook ‘n ou die geleentheid as jy oop is daarvoor om binne sy leefwêreld, binne sy verwysingsraamwerk in te beweeg en ja, daarvandaan af dan meer ondersteunend vir die outjie op te tree.”</i>)</p>
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>PERSPECTIVES ON THE STRENGTHS-BASED APPROACH</p> <p><u>Category 1:</u> Benefit of this approach for team members</p>	<p>“I think the Circle of Courage model is a good model. <u>It makes sense to me.</u>”</p> <p>“<u>The little bit of praise that you give them means a lot to them</u> – if you make a remark such as ‘You are a great kid and you are doing well’ and such things.” (<i>“Die stukkie prys wat ‘n mens vir hulle gee, beteken baie vir hulle bv as jy opmerkings maak soos: ‘Jy is ‘n pragtige kind en jy doen nou baie mooi’ en sulke dinge.”</i>)</p> <p>“<u>Strengths-based approach is about empowering and helping a person to understand that this is the negative but working towards the positive.</u> Not to identify the negative all the time but let’s take – but to say OK what you are doing positive – let’s praise you for that. <u>I think working on strengths - but if noticing the strength it will contribute towards the behaviour you desire.</u>”</p> <p>“A child cannot feel secure when he is sodomised. How can girls feel secure when boys look at them through the roof? <u>So can one talk of the Circle of Courage when the basic things are not in place at school?</u> There is no belonging or safety. But it can work if the basic things are in place”. (<i>“n Kind kan nie geborge voel as hy gesodomiseer word nie. Hoe kan dogters geborge voel as seuns hul deur die dak afloer. So kan ‘n mens praat van die ‘Circle of Courage’ as die basiese goed by die skool nie in plek is nie?. Belonging is nie daar nie, veiligheid is nie daar nie. Maar dit kan werk as daardie basiese goed in plek is.”</i>)</p> <p>“Focusing on the negative both labels a child and reinforces negative behaviour. <u>Strengths-based approach is important for the self-esteem of the learner.</u>”</p>
<p><u>Category 2:</u> Barriers to the implementation of the strengths-based approach to service delivery</p>	<p>“Many discourses in this institution are still disrespectful and not strengths-based as it is supposed to be.”</p>

The majority of the participants indicated that it is not helpful to view a child from a deficit mindset and that they see the value of following a strengths-based approach as advocated by authors such as Brendtro, Brokenleg & Van Bockern (2002). Examples were given of the positive effect that this approach has had on children's attitude and behaviour. This included a decrease in suicide attempts and vandalism. Barriers to effective implementation of this approach are indicated as the disrespectful way that some team members communicates with children and youth as well as structural problems.

Thirty-five (81, 3%) of the participants agree that a restorative approach must be followed when working with children. Some of the narratives are set out in Table 6.36.

Table 6.36 Perspectives on the restorative justice approach

THEME 5: PERSPECTIVES OF SERVICE DELIVERY APPROACH	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORIES	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u> PERSPECTIVES ON THE RESTORATIVE JUSTICE APPROACH</p> <p><u>Category 1:</u> Response of children and youth to this approach</p>	<p><u>"Restorative justice does not work with these children.</u> They make fun of it and take us for a fool – they then see us as too soft." (<i>"Helende reg werk nie met hierdie kinders nie. Hulle maak 'n grap daarvan en 'vat jou vir 'n pop'. Hul sien ons dan as te sag."</i>)</p> <p>"The culture of the so-called white educators is very different from the so-called black and coloured culture when it comes to dealing with children's challenging behaviour. The teacher that swears and scolds is the most loved teacher at the YCEC. I who have dignity and who approach them in a soft and friendly way do not get the respect from the children." (<i>"Die juffrou wat op die kinders vloek en skel is die geliefste onderwyseres by die Jeugsorgsentrum. Ek wat waardigheid het en sag en vriendelik met hul werk, kry nie die respek van die kinders nie."</i>)</p>
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u> PERSPECTIVES ON THE RESTORATIVE JUSTICE APPROACH</p> <p><u>Category 2:</u> Benefit of the Restorative Justice Approach</p>	<p><u>"Pupils should know that by their actions they may have hurt someone. Restoration is always better than retribution.</u> There is value in teaching our learners to have remorse, and trying to restore."</p> <p>"Agree. Because all the parties involved get to benefit by <u>healing and amends.</u>"</p> <p><u>"Relationships (positive)</u> are the key point to the helping professions."</p> <p>"In many cases one must <u>show empathy due to the pain that children carry in them and is not responsible for.</u>" (<i>"In baie gevalle moet empaties te werk gaan a.g.v. seer wat kinders in hulle rondra en nie verantwoordelik voor is nie."</i>)</p> <p>"I had times when a child swore at me and challenged my dignity. I then thought 'OK, it's fine – I am the professional I need to be the better person' or I just say 'let's talk tomorrow' so that it gives me and the child the time to cool down and think about what happened. <u>A lot of children come back to me and say 'I am sorry Miss'.</u> I must admit it is hard but I mean you are the professional. You must look at why you chose the job and a lot of people can't handle this."</p>

On a cognitive level the majority of participants agree with the move to the restorative justice approach. From the narratives it, however, became clear that some participants perceive that children and youth do not benefit by a restorative approach because they are used to being treated in a harsh and punitive manner. When team members follow the restorative approach they are allegedly seen as weak and this leaves them feeling disempowered.

6.3.6 Theme 6: Perspectives on Mandated Individualised Services to Children and Youth

The discussion of the perspectives of team members of the IDP follows the framework set out in Table 6.37.

Table 6.37 Framework for discussion of theme 6: IDP

THEME 5: PERSPECTIVES ON INDIVIDUALISED SERVICES (IDP)	
SUB-THEME	CATEGORIES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>BENEFIT OF THE INDIVIDUALISED DEVELOPMENT PLAN (IDP)</p>	<p><u>Category 1</u>: Directs service delivery</p> <p><u>Category 2</u>: Contributes to consistency in service delivery</p> <p><u>Category 3</u>: Provides better understanding of the child or young person</p> <p><u>Category 4</u>: Ensures involvement of all role players.</p>
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u></p> <p>BARRIERS TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE IDP</p>	<p><u>Category 1</u>: Absence of the Care Plan</p> <p><u>Category 2</u>: Issues of confidentiality</p> <p><u>Category 3</u>: Issues relating to the children and youth</p> <p><u>Category 4</u>: Revision of the IDP</p> <p><u>Category 5</u>: Communication</p>

The perspectives on the process followed to develop the IDP are as follows:

“It is also a mindset change for me and I don’t think that it is something that can be implemented within a few years. I don’t think it is realistic to think about it that way and I think it really is about baby steps. Older people, as C said, come from the old school and it is difficult to change people’s mindsets – certain people – and it is about personality

characteristics and I think it also matters when it comes to a policy change and it is also something that makes implementation a little difficult”.

Thirty-eight (88,3%) of the participants were of the opinion that the development of IDPs for learners is in their best interests and 37 (86,4%) of the participants felt that the IDP makes it easier for team members to help learners. When asked whether they were aware of their roles in the implementation of the IDP 28 (65,1%) of the participants answered in the affirmative.

Table 6.38 Perspectives on the benefit of the IDP

THEME 6: PERSPECTIVES ON MANDATED INDIVIDUALISED SERVICES TO CHILDREN AND YOUTH	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORIES	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>THE BENEFIT OF THE IDP</p> <p><u>Category 1:</u></p> <p>Directs service delivery</p>	<p>“The IDP is the heartbeat of the institution. You must <u>direct your services and programmes in line with it.</u>” (<i>“Die IDP is vir my die hartklop van die inrigting. Jy moet jou programme daarvolgens rig en al jou dienste daarvolgens lewer.”</i>)</p> <p>“The learners as well as personnel know where the learner is going and then there can be worked with the learner in a focused manner.” (<i>“Leerder sowel as personeel weet waarheen die leerder op pad is en kan daar op ‘n gefokusde manier met leerders gewerk word.”</i>)</p> <p>“It is the <u>‘road map’ of the learner programme</u> in the institution.”</p>
<p><u>Category 2:</u></p> <p>Contributes to consistency in service delivery</p>	<p>“The IDP leads to staff being consistent in their actions.”</p>
<p><u>Category 3:</u></p> <p>Provides better understanding of the child or young person</p>	<p>“When developing the IDP it is good when one hears the various perspectives of people regarding how they experience the child, what they say his needs are and such things. When you know about it you can work out <u>a better plan for the child.</u>” (<i>“Dit is goed as ‘n mens die verskillende mense se persepsies hoor oor hoe hul die kind ervaar, wat hulle as behoefte sien en sulke goeters. As ‘n mens weet daarvan kan jy ‘n beter plan uitwerk vir die kind.”</i>)</p> <p>“I feel you have to know the child before understanding him. <u>This is a good tool.</u>”</p>
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>THE BENEFIT OF THE IDP</p> <p><u>Category 3:</u></p> <p>Provides better understanding of the child or young person</p>	<p>“A learner is helped by taking his <u>intellect, age, culture, insight and comprehension, background, attributes and development areas into consideration.</u>” (<i>“Leerder word gehelp met inagnome van sy intellek, ouderdom, kultuur, insig en begrip, agtergrondsgeskiedenis, attribute en ontwikkelingsareas”.</i>)</p> <p>“The IDP is useful if it can be implemented and the learner’s needs are addressed holistically and <u>not fragmented into a thousand nonsensical programme entries.</u>” (<i>“Die IDP is van waarde mits dit implementeerbaar is en die leerder se behoeftes holisties aanspreek en nie versnipper word in duisende nikseggende programinskrywings nie.”</i>)</p>

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORIES	NARRATIVES
<p><u>Category 4:</u></p> <p>Ensures involvement of all role players</p>	<p>"I am <u>positive</u> and involved with the discussion about the child and the decision about the manner in which we are going to help him." (<i>"Ek is <u>positief daaroor en is betrokke met die bespreking oor die kind en die besluit oor die manier waarop ons hom gaan help.</u>"</i>)</p> <p>"It allows for all team members to be involved, it is goal-oriented, creates uniformity in service delivery and points out the responsibilities of each team member."</p>
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u></p> <p>BARRIERS TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE IDP</p> <p><u>Category 1:</u></p> <p>Absence of the Care Plan</p>	<p>"<u>Children are often admitted to the YCEC without a Care Plan</u> and this poses a barrier to effective service delivery."</p> <p>"Because the IDP does not come to its own, the programme does not come to its own. Come let me tell you – the <u>Care Plan should already be on the file when the child is admitted – it does not always come with the child.</u>" (<i>"Omdat die IDP nie tot sy reg kom nie, kom die program nie tot sy reg nie. Kom ek vertel jou – die Sorgplan behoort al klaar op die lêer te wees wanneer die kind inkom – dit kom nie altyd saam nie."</i>)</p>
<p><u>Category 2:</u></p> <p>Issues of confidentiality</p>	<p>"I sat in a meeting where all the educators and the residential educators, the Multi- Functional team – anybody sits in - so it is a <u>big group</u>. Then that child's <u>things are discussed how she was raped, how she had an abortion – all those things</u>. I took my keys and said look I am now leaving – I can not – knowing what I know - I cannot go along with this. They cannot treat the information as confidential. Here is a child that is victimised because a residential educator spoke outside of the panel. But anyone who wants to know is provided with information. I have not yet seen the policy regarding confidentiality." (<i>"Ek het in 'n vergadering gesit waar al die onderwysers en die residensiële onderwysers, die MF span – enigee sit in - so dit is 'n groot groep mense. Dan word daardie kind se goed uitgegrawe hoe sy verkrag was, hoe sy 'n aborsie gehad het – al daai goed. Ek het my sleutels gevat en gesê kyk ek staan nou op – ek kan nie – wetende wat ek weet - kan ek nie hiermee saamgaan nie. Hulle kan nie die inligting vertroulik hanteer nie. Hier is 'n kind wat geviktimizeer is omdat 'n residensiële opvoeder uitgepraat het uit 'n paneel. Maar enigiemand wat wil kan inligting kry. Ek het nog nie die beleid oor konfidensialiteit gesien nie."</i>)</p>
<p><u>Category 3:</u></p> <p>Issues relating to the children and youth</p>	<p>"The fact that children are seen by some staff members as unworthy leads to them feeling that it is not worth wasting the two hours per session to develop an IDP for the child."</p> <p>"Some team members will suggest that learners be sent home or sometimes to more secure residential settings <u>instead of trying together to come up with certain solutions as an intervention strategy.</u>"</p>

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORIES	NARRATIVES
<p><u>Category 4:</u> Communication</p>	<p>“It is sometimes difficult to keep the personnel corps up to date with regard to the IDP of each learner.” (<i>“Dit is soms moeilik om ’n personeel korps op die hoogte te hou van elke leerder se IOP.”</i>)</p> <p>“There is still a challenge at our organisation due to <u>miscommunication.</u>”</p> <p>“Maybe only of benefit to those working with the IDPs but for the ordinary staff e.g. <u>education staff - we are not aware of anything!</u>”</p> <p>“The IDP is not easily available.” (<i>“Die IDP is nie maklik beskikbaar nie.”</i>)</p>
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u> BARRIERS TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE IDP</p> <p><u>Category 5:</u> External factors</p>	<p>“In many occasions the learners <u>would have absconded</u> before the completion of the IDP.”</p> <p>“The good work that is done at the centre is greatly undone when the <u>learner is placed back</u> into the same unfavourable circumstances that existed prior to his admission to the centre.” (<i>“Die goeie werk wat by die sentrum gelewer word, word grootliks gedaan gemaak deurdat die leerder terug geplaas word in dieselfde swak omstandighede soos voor opname by die sentrum.”</i>)</p>
<p><u>Category 4:</u> Support from management</p>	<p>“I am not sure if management is clear around what the IDP entails hence the <u>lack of visibility of support.</u>”</p> <p>“The <u>principal does not attend</u> the team meetings.”</p>

Most of the participants indicated that they believe in the development of the IDP mainly because it leads to improved service delivery to children. This is only the case provided all team members take the responsibility for the development, monitoring and revision of the IDP. A significant number of participants indicated that they succeed, to some extent, to develop individualised plans for a few of the children and youth in their care but that they do not generally do well with the monitoring of the IDP. The perspectives of a number of participants were that the principal does not seem to take the development of the IDP seriously as he does not make his presence felt at meetings. In this regard, Morris *et al.* (2000) state that the principal is not only responsible for developing and sustaining the team, he must also address issues that hamper progress. During discussions, and from the questionnaires, it became clear that where the principal is involved the barriers to IDP development, monitoring and review are addressed effectively.

The seventh theme that emerged from the information received from the participants refers to their perspectives on the disciplines of the organisational learning model.

6.3.7 Theme 7: Perspectives on Disciplines of the Organisational Learning Model

The framework for the discussion about the perspectives of team members on the disciplines of the organisational learning model is set out in Table 6.39.

Table 6.39 Framework for discussion of theme 7: Perspectives of the organisational learning model

THEME 7: PERSPECTIVES ON THE ORGANISATIONAL LERNING MODEL	
SUB-THEME	CATEGORIES
<u>SUB-THEME 1</u> PERSONAL MASTERY	<u>Category 1</u> : Opportunities given for personal mastery
<u>SUB-THEME 2</u> PERSPECTIVES ON MENTAL MODELS	<u>Category 1</u> : Mental models based on value of target group <u>Category 2</u> : Mental models re service approaches <u>Category 3</u> : Mental models based on institutional background (upbringing and religion)
<u>SUB-THEME 3</u> SHARED VISION WITHIN THE YCEC	<u>Category 1</u> : Clarity on shared vision
<u>SUB-THEME 4</u> TEAM LEARNING	<u>Category 1</u> : Opportunities for team learning

The five disciplines of the organisational learning model were discussed in Chapter 3. These are personal mastery, mental models, shared vision, team learning, and systems thinking. These form the basis for the following discussion.

6.3.7.1 Perspectives on personal mastery

Personal mastery is defined as “the discipline of continually clarifying and deepening our personal vision, of focusing our energies, of developing patience, and of seeing reality objectively” (Senge, 1999:7). Every person is responsible for his/her own development, must examine him/herself and see where he/she is hampering the team (Maxwell, 2001:71), and must make personal growth a priority. It was important to find out what plan is in place to ensure personal development of the team members of the ILST. Thirty-three (76,7%) of the participants reported that they are given the opportunity to develop their knowledge and skills so that they can contribute to the management of programmes and services in the YCEC.

Table 6.40 Perspectives on personal mastery

THEME 7: PERSPECTIVES ON ELEMENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING MODEL	
SUB-THEME AND CATEGORIES	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 1</u></p> <p>PERSONAL MASTERY</p> <p><u>Category 1:</u></p> <p>Opportunities given for personal mastery</p>	<p>“We very rarely have the <u>opportunity to learn skills for working in teams</u>. You have to teach yourself out of reality.”</p> <p>“I think we are a big staff and all have different needs at the end of the day. Some of us have the same needs also, <u>but I think not enough opportunities are created for personal needs with regard to professionalism</u>, that can be transferred to other people. I think it is also important to look at the individual person and what his or her needs are and that information can then be transferred to the team.” (<i>“Ek dink ons is ‘n groot personeel en almal het verskillende behoeftes op die ou einde. Van ons het dieselfe behoeftes ook, maar ek dink daar word nie genoeg geleentheid geskep vir persoonlike behoeftes ten opsigte van professionaliteit nie, wat oorgedra kan word aan ander mense nie. Ek dink dit is ook belangrik om te kyk na die individu en wat die individuele behoeftes is en daardie inligting kan weer oorgedra word aan die span.”</i>)</p> <p>“<u>Few courses for specific occupational therapy programmes</u> in Youth Care Centres.” (<i>“Min kursusse vir spesifiek arbeidsterapie programme in Jeugsorgsentrusms.”</i>)</p> <p>“We have been to a number of workshops – however people very quickly slide back to working in silos.”</p>

From the narratives received from the participants it would appear that too few opportunities are provided for personal mastery. There was also the acknowledgement that the training the staff receives often does not lead to improved practice. Furthermore, the need for more opportunities for personal mastery point to the participants’ understanding that they should be

committed to personal and professional development (Moloi, 2005:1) and become life long learners. One of the respondents put it the following way:

Even if you have been in this profession for long – I am now 38 years – but one can still learn every day, one still needs to learn. (Al is 'n mens hoe lank in die beroep – ek is nou al 38 jaar – maar 'n mens kan nog elke dag leer, 'n mens het nog nodig om te leer.)

There is also still a perception that the only or most important way of learning is via external training courses. From the responses received from the participants it would appear that little attention is given to provide learning opportunities within the institution during the course of the working day. The next discipline of the organisational learning model is mental models.

6.3.7.2 Perspectives on mental models

In times of change individuals are expected to unlearn previously perceived successful strategies and learn new ways to direct behaviour (Hedberg & Wolff, 2001:535). This expectation includes individuals giving up some of their beliefs, assumptions and values to make change possible. Individuals cannot be persuaded to do this before understanding their ways of thinking and their mental models. They are, therefore, required to assess their own position in terms of the proposed changes that need to occur with the necessary support from management. The kind of values that are seen to be under threat will greatly influence the perceptions of staff regarding the proposed changes (Manning, 1998:35) and some changes will cause greater resistance than others. Values or expectations that have not been examined closely include those that stem from early life lessons, personal experience or the larger culture (Ursiny & Kay, 2007:65). These could hamper effective service delivery. It is, therefore, important that team members be given opportunities to reflect on their mental models. Perspectives of the staff on this issue are contained in Table 6.41.

Table 6.41 Perspectives on mental models

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORIES	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 2</u> PERSPECTIVES ON MENTAL MODELS <u>Category 1:</u> Mental models based on value of target group</p>	<p>“The fact that <u>children are seen by some staff members as unworthy leads</u> to them feeling that it is not worth wasting the two hours per session to develop an IDP for the child.”</p> <p>“Some team members will suggest that learners be sent home or sometimes to more secure residential settings <u>instead of trying together to come up with certain solutions as an intervention strategy.</u>”</p>

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORIES	NARRATIVES
<p><u>Category 2:</u> Mental models re service approaches</p>	<p>“It is also a <u>mindset change</u> for me and I don’t think that it is something that can be implemented within a few years. I don’t think it is realistic to think about it that way and I think it really is about baby steps. Older people, as C said, come from the old school and it is difficult to change people’s mindsets – certain people – and it is about personality characteristics and I think it also matters when it comes to a policy change and it is also something that makes implementation a little difficult.”</p>
<p><u>Category 3</u> Mental models based on Institutional background (upbringing and religion)</p>	<p>“Corporal punishment is talked about so ‘glibly’ but I <u>experienced it in my own foster care situation</u>. You can’t change people by force but must facilitate behaviour.”</p> <p>“<u>I don’t keep my Christian principles a secret</u>, you understand, so I often see it from that perspective.” (<i>“Ek maak nie ’n geheim van my Christelike beginsels nie, jy verstaan, so ek sien dit beiekeer vanuit daardie perspektief .”</i>)</p> <p>“...<u>Biblical principles</u> must be applied.” (<i>“...die Bybelse beginsels moet toegepas word.”</i>)</p> <p>“Should I follow <u>Biblical or man made laws?</u>” (<i>“Moet ek die Bybese of mensgemaakte wette volg?”</i>).</p>

The narratives indicated that there are a number of participants that understand that mental models have been learnt (as indicated by Senge *et al.*, 1994:235). The role of their parents and religion were emphasised by a number of the participants. A few participants acknowledged that they have, by examining their mental models, been able to change their way of thinking about issues such as corporal punishment.

The next discipline of the organisational learning model is shared vision.

6.3.7.3 Perspectives on shared vision

When asked whether the staff at the YCEC has a shared vision, eleven (25,5%) of the participants answered in the negative. Those who indicated that they do have a shared vision did not simply parrot the vision but indicated that they, to varying extents, have been able to align their roles with the vision of the YCEC and showed a mutual purpose in many of the responses.

When the responses were clustered within the four quadrants of the Circle of Courage it became clear that most of the staff referred to elements of the vision that correlate with three of the quadrants of the Circle of Courage model (discussed in Chapter 5).

Sense of belonging

- “Empowering environment” and “Safe learning environment”

Sense of mastery

- “To overcome behavioural difficulties”(3); “effective programme and curriculum” (5); “to equip learners” (4); and “removal of barriers to learning” (3)

Sense of independence

- “To equip children, as good as possible for life” (3)

A few of the responses are reflected in Table 6.42.

Table 6.42 Perspectives on shared vision

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORIES	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 3</u></p> <p>SHARED VISION WITHIN THE YCEC</p> <p><u>Category 1:</u></p> <p>Clarity on shared vision</p>	<p>“We need ‘clarity and mission’. Clarity of purpose – why are we here. <u>The ‘why’ is not clear enough for some of our members.</u>”</p> <p>“Here it is <u>divide and rule</u>. Different factions that <u>do not have a common view.</u>” (<i>“Hier is dit ‘divide and rule’. Verskillende faksies wat nie ‘n common view het nie.”</i>)</p> <p>“<u>Our vision is to prepare the learner to lead a meaningful life outside the institution to help others, to be of service to others in the community.</u>”</p> <p>“...the vision and mission as formally set out is to <u>provide opportunities for each learner to discover him- or herself and his or her life purpose here on earth and to live it with his or her strengths but with the awareness that weaknesses can become stepping stones.</u>” (<i>“...die visie en die missie soos formeel uitgespel is om vir elke leerder geleentheid te bied om homself/haarself en sy/haar lewensdoel hier op aarde te ontdek en dit uit te leef met sy/haar sterktes maar ook met die bewustheid dat swakhede ‘stepping stones’ kan word.”</i>)</p> <p>“<u>To empower the learner in all aspects of his life, to fill his place in society – ‘We train for life’. Our vision then is to specifically empower the learner to overcome his learning-, emotional-, social- and behavioural problems.</u>” (<i>“Om leerder te bemagtig in al die terreine van sy lewe, om sy plek in die samelewing te kan volstaan – ‘We train for life’. Ons visie is dan om spesifiek die leerder te bemagtig om sy leer-, emosionele-, sosiale- en gedragsprobleme te oorkom.”</i>)</p>

The participants indicated that their personal visions are to empower children and learners and provide opportunities for them to ensure that they will be prepared for the reintegration into their families and communities. These seemed to be in line with the institutional vision. The impression was gained that the participants generally knew what the bigger picture of the YCEC is (Al-Smadi, Quadais & Al-Omari, 2008:1).

The next discipline of the organisational learning model is team learning.

6.3.7.4 Perspectives on team learning

Teams should concentrate on both personal development and joint training (Payne, 2002:10). Senge (1999:236) defines team learning as “the process of aligning and developing the capacity of a team to create the results its members truly desire”. Miller (2008:37, 40) indicates that the team “must learn to provide solutions for existing problems, learn from past experiences, avoid the repetition of mistakes, and plan for the future”. They must thus embark on action learning. Team learning is particularly important in the YCECs as the team members are mandated to digress considerably from the practices and activities they followed prior to the changed child and youth policies (the silo approach).

Thirty-six (83,7%) of the participants reported that they have the opportunity to learn skills for working in teams. Responses in this regard are reflected in Table 6.43.

Table 6.43 Perspectives on team learning

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 4</u></p> <p>TEAM LEARNING</p> <p><u>Category 1:</u></p> <p>Opportunities for team learning</p>	<p>“I want there to be an open relationship between the different people and that we then tackle one assignment as one group. I saw it very clearly with our IDP – there was confusion until people started attending courses and people were convinced but listen, this is important blah blah blah – now it only starts to come into its own. It could have happened earlier and it is easy. Initially it was your responsibility – no-one wanted to take responsibility for it but now everyone is involved.” (<i>“Ek wil dat daar ’n oop verhouding tussen die verskillende mense moet wees en dat ons dan as een groep een taak aanpak. Ek het dit nou baie duidelik gesien met ons IDP – daar was verwarring tot daar mense begin kursusse bywoon het en mense oortuig is, maar luister dit is belangrik blah blah blah – nou eers kom dit tot sy reg. Dit kon al voorheen gewees het en dit is baie maklik en eers was dit is jou verantwoordelikheid, – niemand wou verantwoordelikheid vat daarvoor nie, maar almal is nou betrokke daarby.”</i>)</p> <p>“<u>Lack of preparation</u> of staff members for teamwork.”</p>

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 3</u></p> <p>SHARED VISION WITHIN THE YCEC</p> <p><u>Category 1:</u></p> <p>Clarity on shared vision</p>	<p>“So, we have attended many workshops that were good workshops where I also felt that as team we could benefit more from it. It was wonderful, <u>it was necessary that we share with the bigger team, but it has also not happened yet.</u>” (“So, ons het nou heelwat werkswinkels bygewoon wat goeie werkswinkels was waar ek ook gereken het as span kon ons baie groter baat daarby. Dit was wonderlik gewees, maar dit was miskien nodig dat ons dit met die groter span deel, maar dit het ook nog nie – was nie ten uitvoer gebring nie.”)</p> <p>“...regarding teamwork and learning – I think the fact that we are still not working as a team – that we identify the gaps ourselves, <u>say to us that we need more support.</u>” (“...oor spanwerk en leer – ek dink die feit dat ons nog nie as ‘n span werk nie – dat ons self hierdie leemtes identifiseer, sê vir ons dat ons nog ondersteuning nodig het.”)</p> <p>“<u>Some people are allowed to sidestep attending workshops</u> and if you succeeded once, you are going to do it every time, nothing happens to you. Nobody addresses this.” (“Sommige mense word toegelaat om die werkswinkels en goed te ontduik en as jy dit een keer reggekry het, gaan jy dit elke keer doen, jy kom niks oor nie. Niemand spreek die persoon aan nie”).</p> <p>“Very rarely, <u>you have to teach yourself</u> out of reality.”</p> <p>“<u>Few training opportunities</u> are presented by the Department.” (“Min opleidingsgeleenthede word deur die Departement gestel.”)</p> <p>“<u>Assistance needed</u> in this regard from outside the centre.” (“Het hulp nodig in die verband van buite die sentrum.”)</p>

Team members are given opportunity to attend courses and, in most cases, this information they receive stays with them. Time constraints have been indicated as a barrier to converting personal learning into team learning. From the above narratives it is clear that in many instances learning is not a “collective experience of people” (Senge *et al.*, 2007:8) but rather individuals taking responsibility for their own personal mastery.

The next discipline of the organizational learning model is systems thinking.

6.3.7.5 Perspectives on systems thinking

A system is a “pattern of interaction or negotiation between the organisation and the people working in the organisation” (Hayes, 2002:155). Team members must understand that the team fits into the rest of the institution and also the external environment (Miller, 2008:ix). The latter refers to the outside networks that team members establish with the district office that provides

the line function, the provincial office that provides the policy, and the national and international child and youth policy framework. The participants, however, often referred to the provincial and national offices as the Department of Education thereby indicating that they do not see themselves as part of the department. For the most part, strong ‘we and them’ messages were received even when they indicated that there was a good working relationship with the provincial office in terms of training provided.

Close links are also formed with the Department of Social Development, Department of Health, Department of Justice (Presiding Officer of the Children’s Court), and various Non-Government-, Faith Based- and Community-Based Organisations in addressing the range of needs of the children and young people within the YCE. One of the problematic working relationships with external service providers that were frequently referred to during the interviews and focus groups is with social workers who are responsible to render family reunification services. Responses in this regard are reflected in Table 6.44.

Table 6.44 Perspectives on systems thinking

SUB-THEME AND CATEGORY	NARRATIVES
<p><u>SUB-THEME 5</u></p> <p>SYSTEMS THINKING</p> <p><u>Category 1:</u></p> <p>Inter-sectoral collaboration</p>	<p>“Yes, but there <u>intersectoral cooperation is still lacking.</u>” (<i>“Ja, maar daar is steeds ‘n gebrek aan inter-sektorale samewerking.”</i>)</p> <p>“<u>The support of social workers has disappeared.</u> There is...lately it is the exception if we get hold of any social worker. It is about exchanging of social workers between organisations and Social Services ... The State’s social workers have disappeared. You can’t ask them anything anymore; they do not respond to letters, they do not respond to telephone messages – even if you follow up the call. They have just disappeared, I don’t know whereto. They also do not help the families. The clients must fend for themselves.” (<i>“Die ondersteuning van maatskaplike werkers het verdwyn. Daar is dit is deesdae die uitsondering as ons enige maatskaplike werker kry. Dit is oor wisseling van maatskaplike werkers tussen organisasies en Maatskaplike Dienste self ... die staat se maatskaplike dienste het verdwyn. Jy kan niks meer vir hulle vra nie, hulle reageer nie op briewe nie, hulle reageer nie op telefoon boodskappe nie – al bel ons weer terug nie. Hulle het net weggeraak, ek weet nie waarnatoe nie. Hulle help ook nie die gesinne nie. Die kliënte moet na hulleself omsien.”</i>)</p>

The majority of the participants expressed concern that changes brought about in the child within the YCEC is of little value if changes do not also occur on family and community level. The lack of input received from the social workers, who are supposed to render family reunification services for the families, has a profound impact on the morale of the team

members. The lack of input from the social workers means that the additional aspects that he/she should bring to the team (Wenger, 1998:119) regarding the circumstances of the families are seriously lacking and hampers a holistic approach to service delivery. This again alludes to the fact that the team is greatly affected by the wider system (Watkins & Marsick, 1993:116)

6.4 CONCLUSION

The discussion in this chapter is based on the findings from interviews, focus groups and completed questionnaires involving 43 team members of the ILSTs at the four YCECs. From the data gathered from the participants on their perspectives, seven themes emerged. The participants were open and honest about their feelings as they were assured that there were no right and wrong answers to the questions and that *their* perspectives would be valued and respected.

It was established that participants perceived their introduction to changed child and youth policies as positive when they were given the opportunity to discuss their feelings concerning the content and intent of the policies. This included discussing their mental models regarding the changes. The participants who were included in groups during the introduction of the changed policies were also provided with the opportunity to get a taste of team learning via the sharing of information and the developing of insights.

Implementation of the changes in the policies was experienced as positive by the team members when they received support, encouragement and direction from the principal. Team development was, for the most part, viewed as the responsibility of the team leader, who was generally the psychologist, and who is viewed as part of the support team. Where the principal was not involved progress was hampered despite the fact that most of the participants viewed the team leader as strong and acceptable to them. Where a clear shared vision was conveyed to the participants they were motivated to improve their services and make suggestions especially when their role in the pursuit of the vision was clearly explained supported and non-compliance was addressed.

The majority of the participants agreed with the wisdom of children's rights in general, the service delivery approaches, the development of the IDP, and the movement towards working in teams on a cognitive level. The implementation of these changes, however, proved to be challenging for various reasons. Only one children's right is heavily contested by a number of participants and that is the right of children not to be subjected to corporal punishment. This

form of punishment calls up strong mental models relating to, amongst others, childhood experiences, institutional culture, and religious beliefs.

In the next chapter conclusions and recommendations are made regarding how these issues can be addressed to ensure that the staff is supported in implementing changed child and youth policies as well as to ensure that the vulnerable children receive the care and protection they deserve.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This study originated from an identified need to determine the perspectives of members of the ILST, at YCECs, on the implementation of the changed child and youth policies. The aim of this chapter is to present the conclusions drawn from the study based on the findings and to make the necessary recommendations.

The goal of the study was reached because the following objectives, set in Chapter 1, were achieved.

- In Chapter 2 the content and intent of the changed child and youth policies regarding the care, support and development pertaining to children and youth in YCECs were considered. This provided insight into the obligations assigned to staff members at these institutions regarding the nature of services to children and youth in their care. These obligations include, but are not limited to, the obligation to acquire a children's rights mindset, render joint services (teamwork) and provide individualised services and programmes for each child and young person in the YCECs.
- In Chapter 3 one of these obligations of staff who work in YCECs, namely the shift from working in silos to following a teamwork approach, was unpacked. This included a discussion of the value of teamwork and the phases of team development. The importance of strong leadership for team members from the external and internal team leader was identified.
- Another obligation contained in the changed child and youth policies, namely the provision of individualised, sustainable services to children and youth, was discussed in Chapter 4. This necessitates that the team members refrain from rendering generic services to children and youth to developing, implementing, monitoring and reviewing an individualised plan, referred to as the IDP, for each child and young person in their care.

- In chapter 5 the shift from a dearth of programmes and services to a range of programmes and services for children and youth in YCECs was addressed with reference to the variety of programmes available that could address the needs of the target group served in the YCECs. These programmes are in line with the service delivery approaches contained in changed child and youth policies.

7.2 DATA ANALYSIS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Data analysis

A transcript based analysis was done of the interviews, the focus groups and the completed questionnaires. These transcripts were enhanced by field notes. An abridged transcript of the dialogue was developed based on the information on the tape recordings of the interviews. The transcriptions of the focus group were done by an independent firm. The researcher then set out on familiarising herself with the material through repeated reading and rereading of the transcripts. Themes were identified that were common across the interviews and focus groups. All extracts of data related to a specific theme was coded in order to make sense of the collected data. These were accurately categorised onto a pro forma to assist with the analysis and subsequently organised into sub-themes and categories that emerged from the interviews and focus groups. These themes were regularly tested against the organisational learning theoretical framework. It was then established what topics were common to the interviews, focus groups and the questionnaires. The data in the self-administered questionnaires were analysed by hand. Themes that emerged from the questionnaires were clustered into sub-themes and categories and these were incorporated into the data received from the interviews and focus groups.

Conclusions

The conclusions that were reached and recommendations are presented in line with the seven themes that emerged from the interviews, the focus groups and the self-administered questionnaires. These themes are perspectives reflected in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1 Themes that emerged from information received

Perspectives on:

- The introduction of changed child and youth policies
- The implementation of changed child and youth policies
- Teamwork
- Children's rights
- Service delivery models
- Mandated individualised services to children
- Disciplines of organisational learning

7.2.1 Profile of the Participants

The first theme that emerged from the information received from the participants, relates to the introduction of changed child and youth policies to members of the ILST at the YCECs. Most of the participants who took part in the study were in their middle age (41 to 50 years). Both male and female participants took part and they were trained as educators, social workers, nurses, occupational therapists and psychologists. Most of the participants had more than eleven years experience in their field but the majority of them had less than five years experience at the YCECs.

7.2.2 Theme 1: Introduction of Changed Child and Youth Policies

The conclusion that was arrived at was that, for the most part, the introduction of policies to members of the ILST was via provision of documents or one-way communication to the team members. Space was often not provided for dialogue and addressing of the feelings of the implementers of policies (in this case the members of the ILST) regarding the changes in child and youth policies. This led to a number of team members holding onto their mindsets that hamper effective teamwork.

To ensure more effective practices to introduce change, it is recommended that the following must be in place in YCECs. Training should be provided for principals and senior management to equip them to facilitate interactions with the team in order to build their trust; create a safe space for them to discuss their feelings and respect and accommodate the diversity of their

abilities, expertise, knowledge, contributions and technique. The impact thereof on the team members' thinking must be recognized and managed by the principal.

Based on the findings it is also concluded that introduction of changed policies to a number of newly appointed staff members were neglected and led to these professionals not being on the same page as their co-team members. It is recommended that provision be made for an orientation programme for new staff to avoid 'trial and error' learning. The learning programme must include training in the various policies and legislation that impact the service delivery in the YCEC as well as the essentials of collaborative work. Leadership must provide clear messages about vision, encourage collaboration and contribute to the minimisation of territorial issues.

7.2.3 Theme 2: Implementation of Changed Child and Youth Policies

The second theme that emerged from the information received from the participants relates to the implementation of changed child and youth policies. A need for more direction, support and encouragement from the principal was expressed by a significant number of participants. They felt that they were given the changed child and youth policies and were expected to implement the mandates with limited and insufficient guidance. It is perceived that not enough thought had been given, by the principal and management, to the existing practices and needs of those who are expected to implement the change. This led to some of the participants battling on their own and others not buying into the changes contained in the policies.

The conclusion that is reached is that team members are, for the most part, not provided with the necessary guidance regarding the processes, practices and procedures that go with the changes in policies. It is recommended that provision be made for a comprehensive framework for policy implementation which will give effect to the changes in child and youth policies. The framework must include practical, yet theoretically sound, models to guide actions during times of change (including introduction and implementation of changed policy). Furthermore, provision must be made for a sound understanding of the multiple factors that must be addressed to make implementation of changed policy work. The organizational learning disciplines (shared vision, systems thinking, mental models, personal mastery and team learning) must be incorporated into this document as, during this study, it was found that when these principles were followed, participants were able and willing to implement the mandated changes in child and youth policies. The goals of the individuals and team should be integrated with the goals of the YCEC. Attention must be given to both task and social factors of implementation of policies.

7.2.4 Theme 3: Teamwork

The third theme that emerged from the information received from the participants relates to teamwork. Professionals who work in YCECs are expected to change their concentration from working individually to working collaboratively; from just focusing on a part of the institution (their specific section and mandate) to focusing on the institution as a system; and moving away from categorisation to focusing on incorporation / integration. It was found that the principal generally did not always provide external guidance to the team during the various phases of team development. At present the psychologist is, for the most part, expected to guide the team through these phases. Although this arrangement is viewed as successful by a group of participants, there are also a number of participants who feel that, because the psychologist is seen as part of the support team, he/she is not seen as objective. The result is that it can be concluded that some teams become stuck in the forming phase of team development due to the lack of external assistance from the principal.

From the narratives of the participants it could be concluded that the principals, for the most part, do not become involved during the early phases of team development and that this negatively impacts on the task fulfilment of the team. It is recommended that guidelines for team processes be provided for principals to assist them in guiding the team members through the phases of team development.

Guidelines for team processes should clearly set out the role of the principal (external leader and the internal team leader) during the various phases of team development (forming, storming, norming and performing) as discussed in Chapter 4. The guidelines must also make provision for aspects such as team dynamics, effective team deliberations, team negotiation and team decision making. It is recommended that a fast track pilot project be launched to further enhance team functioning.

A pilot group, consisting of a core group of staff members from all the sections that are genuinely committed to teamwork and the development of an IDP, should be assisted by the internal and external team leader to move through the various phases of team development to ensure that they reach the performing phase. They must embark on reflection, planning and collaboration and be allowed to be flexible regarding time allocation. Currently, commitment is reportedly limited to a group of staff members. If the pilot group leads to better results it could lead to increased credibility with those staff members who are not on board. There must, therefore, be a dual approach. On the one hand, staff must understand that implementing the

policy is not negotiable and, on the other hand, they must be assisted in experiencing the new way of working as of value to them and the service users.

The efforts must be monitored and it must be identified what works and what does not work. All the disciplines (school social workers, occupational therapists, nurses, psychologists, educators and residential educators) must participate in the team process. Most importantly, the benefit of the teamwork for children and youth should be ascertained. This would provide valuable insight into how to achieve meaningful change. This information should then be made available to all parties concerned.

It is concluded that another barrier to effective team development is the fact that many team members do not understand their own role and the role of other team members in the ILST. It is recommended that job descriptions must also make provision for the role of the staff member as member of the ILST. A need has been identified for the development of job descriptions that formalise the role of each team member in team context so as to avoid the role ambiguity that currently exists. Clarification of roles and redefinition regarding integration and collaboration must receive attention. It is important that the team members must have an understanding of the roles and responsibilities of each professional and recognise and manage the overlap of roles in the YCEC. Opportunities for discussions of roles and responsibilities should be given to ensure that all team members are on the same page when it comes to service delivery.

7.2.5 Theme 4: Children's Rights Contained in Changed Child and Youth Policies

The fourth theme that emerged from the information received from the participants is perspectives on children's rights. The participants generally accepted the children's rights contained in the changed child and youth policies. However, one of the rights that has not really been embraced by all is the right of children not to be subjected to corporal punishment. Due to this the perspectives of the respondents were that the lawmakers do not understand the reality at ground level. The deep-seated and self-defeating beliefs are not addressed and some staff members, therefore, do not buy into the changed policy and fail to make the mind shifts in line with the policies.

The conclusion drawn from the discussion is that the team members were not given ample opportunity to talk about their mental models regarding the abolishment of corporal punishment in order to gain understanding for the rationale behind the abolishment. Their mental models are also influenced by the perceived behaviour and needs of the target group they serve and the feeling that adults have no authority and that the children have the upper hand.

Because the participants in this study made compelling arguments for and against the abolishment of corporal punishment, it is recommended that opportunity be provided for team members to discuss their mental models of corporal punishment. Linked to the right of children to not be subjected to corporal punishment, is the obligation to report any form of abuse disclosed by a child. The findings of the study show that many of them were not introduced to the Abuse No More Protocol, the document that provides guidelines for the management of disclosures of all kinds of abuse by children and youth.

It is recommended that all team members be trained in the content of the Abuse No More policy document and be made aware that they have an obligation to report any form of abuse against a child as well as ensure that it is taken seriously and dealt with at a higher level. In terms of the Children's Act 38 of 2005 all the members of the ILST as well as the principal are mandated to report any form of abuse against a child (RSA, 2005).

7.2.6 Theme 5: Service Delivery Models

The fifth theme that emerged from the information received from the participants is their perspectives on service delivery models. Findings show that participants have bought into the service delivery models as set out in the changed child and youth policies. These are the strengths-based approach, the restorative approach and the developmental approach. Although a few of the participants indicated that they feel that the allocation of resources and funding are adequate, there were a number of participants who disagreed. They felt that, in theory, the service delivery models appeared positive but that it was not always implementable. They explained that the models require that a relationship should be built up with the child. This is too time consuming and unrealistic given the staff to children ratio. Other participants felt that team members who indicate a shortage of staff and time are simply not motivated to render the services in accordance with the changed child and youth policies.

It can be concluded that human resources allocation has not been reviewed in terms of the requirements of the changed child and youth policies. It is recommended that a work study be undertaken to consider the allocation of human resources in YCECs. It may well be that the time it takes to develop, monitor and implement the IDPs have been previously miscalculated and that expectations of team members, in this regard, are unrealistic. However, if this is not the case, team members can be kept accountable for rendering the services in line with set norms and standards. Currently, the impression is gained, from the information received from a number of participants, that some team members get away with not rendering the services they

have been employed to render due to the belief that the human resources in the YCEC are inadequate.

7.2.7 Theme 6: Mandated Individualised Services

The sixth theme that emerged from the information received from the participants is mandated individualised services. It was reported by some of the participants that staff members who do not attend team meetings and do not make a contribution to the development of the IDPs do not bear the consequences for their non-compliance.

It can be concluded that this hampers the development, monitoring and revision of the IDPs and that this frustrates committed team members. It is recommended that a monitoring system should be put in place to ensure that all staff members comply with the mandated changes in child and youth policies. The recommended monitoring system should contain norms and standards for the delivery of services in team context. The focus should be on the achievement of collective results and not on individual performance only. Furthermore, provision must be made for feedback from teams regarding team goals, planning, successes and challenges to ensure attendance of meetings and presentation of programmes. These are, reportedly, the main barriers to effective teamwork. The monitoring system should be linked to the staff appraisal systems such as the IQMS (Integrated Quality Management System). The monitoring system must make provision for the principal to intervene when the team shows evidence of unproductive team dynamics.

7.2.8 Theme 7: Disciplines of Organisational Learning

The seventh theme that emerged from the information received from the participants is perspectives on disciplines of organisational learning. When discussing the mental models of participants, it was found that it is also important for the principal and management of the YCEC to consider their own mental models and how it impacts on service delivery. One of the mental models that can hamper effective teamwork is the thinking around incentive systems. This mental model includes the focus of incentive on individual performance whilst expecting individuals to work in teams.

From this it is concluded that there really is little or no personal gain for a staff member of the YCEC to work in a team. This could be one of the reasons for the non-compliance with the mandate that the team approach be followed. It is recommended that the incentive system

should encourage teamwork. One cannot promote teamwork if one only exclusively gives incentives for individual performance. This system must, therefore, be revised to ensure that all staff members become involved in teamwork and are committed to its success.

Another mental model that should be addressed is the one on training of staff. Thus far there has been a tendency to provide external training for staff members. The training focuses on the service delivery models and the development of the IDP but there is no or limited sustainability in the training. From the responses received from the participants it became clear that there is a group of staff members who receive training but do not apply any of the principles conveyed in their work setting. However, the mental model on the part of trainers must also be taken into consideration. This mental model assumes that once staff members received the information they should be able to implement the new way of working. What is also problematic is that individual learning, for the most part, does not convert into team learning and institutional learning. It is recommended that a staff development policy be developed (or revised where necessary) to accommodate the changes in child and youth policies and the disciplines of organisational learning (namely personal mastery, team learning and institutional learning).

To foster sustainability of the implementation of changed child and youth policies, capacity building of team members is important. Capacity building should be combined with service delivery and must not rely solely on formal training by experts. The personal attitude of team members to training must also be considered. There are team members who, allegedly, attend training courses for their own development and then do not use this information to improve their service delivery to children and youth in the YCEC. This should not be allowed. A staff development policy should state clearly that staff members who receive training must be able to prove that they use and share the information they obtained with the other members of the team. It is also important to add that trainers have a responsibility to do on-site visits to ensure that the training they provided is used in practice and, where necessary, to assist with ensuring the implementation takes place. Otherwise there is no proof that training is cost-effective and sustainable.

Ongoing staff training within the work setting must focus on development of skills and competencies needed for collaborative work such as flexibility, negotiation and inter-disciplinary team work, creative compromise, mutual respect and support. The staff development must thus make provision for all levels of learning namely personal mastery, team learning and institutional learning.

Regarding systems thinking the lack of services rendered to families by designated social workers must be followed up with the Department of Social Development and a service level agreement signed setting out the roles of the staff of the YCEC in general (and the School social worker in particular) and the designated social workers.

In summary, the following recommendations are made:

1. Training

- 1.1 Training of principals in team development in general and their roles as external team leaders in particular.
- 1.2 Training of principals in the implementation of the disciplines of organizational learning in general and the management of mental models regarding changed child and youth policy in particular.
- 1.3 Development of a training policy to make provision for all levels of learning namely on a personal, team and institutional level.
- 1.4 Development of an orientation programme for newly appointed staff that includes training on child and youth policies that impact on their work within the team.
- 1.5 Training of all staff members in the implementation of the Abuse No More protocol (this will include discussions on positive behaviour strategies as opposed to the administering of corporal punishment).

2. Policy development and implementation

- 2.1 Development of a comprehensive framework for implementation of child and youth policies.
- 2.2 Guidelines for principals regarding team development and their role as external leaders.
- 2.3 Monitoring system to ensure the implementation of child and youth policies (especially the involvement of all staff members in teams).

3. Human resource management

- 3.1 A work study to be conducted to ascertain whether the staff component is ample to render services in line with the child and youth policies. This includes time allocation for the development of the IDP.
- 3.2 Consideration must be given to an incentive system that will encourage teamwork.
- 3.3 A pilot project needs to be fast tracked to establish teamwork within the YCECs.

7.3 FURTHER RESEARCH

This study obtained results regarding the perspectives of members of the ILST at YCECs about the implementation of changed child and youth policies. It is suggested that the focus of further research be on the implementation of the organisational learning disciplines within the YCECs. One particular reason is that it especially relates to the introduction of new policies and the management of the various phases of team development.

Furthermore the recommendations made regarding training, policy development and implementation and human resource management warrant further research to ensure improved service delivery by the members of the ILST to the high risk learners in the YCECs and similar child care settings.

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ADDENDUM 1: RESEARCH QUESTIONS USED TO GUIDE INTERVIEWS AND FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

The focus of this research was to explore the views and experiences of team members by posing the following questions in line with the five areas (“disciplines”) proposed by Senge (1990); Senge (2000); and Senge (2007).

- How were the new policies introduced to the team?
- What are the major values, which underlie these institutional changes and guide your actions?
- What are the major organizational changes in the YCEC that are emerging from welfare reform and how would you describe the implementation process?
- How, in your opinion, does the structure of the YCEC facilitate or hamper the implementation of the policy guidelines?
- What policies, events or aspects of team behaviour in the institution help it thrive and succeed?
- What policies, events or aspects of team behaviour in the institution pose barriers to effective service delivery to youth and/or implementation of amended policy?
- Which teamwork model do you think, is appropriate for the management of programmes within the social development framework for adolescents in YCECs?
- How did your prior work experiences and education influence your efforts as a member of the institutional level team to implement welfare reform?
- How do you feel about working in the multi-disciplinary team of the YCEC (your experiences of and barriers to performing the tasks and social aspects in the past and present)?
- What role do you play in the team?
- How do you feel about the changes in child and youth policy (e.g. children’s rights perspective, the rights and responsibilities of parents, etc)?
- How do you feel about the shift from a punitive to a developmental and strength based approach to service delivery to youths?
- What is your understanding of the developmental/strengths-based approach?
- What is the team’s competence to follow this service delivery approach?
- How do you implement this approach?
- What are your own views regarding the development of Individual Development Plans (IDPs) for the learners?

- In your opinion, what social factors (e.g. inter-personal relationships influence the performance of the team?

These findings can contribute to the development of appropriate strategies for the implementation of changed child and youth policies in youth care and education centres in particular and all child and youth care settings in general.

ADDENDUM 2: SELF-ADMINISTERED QUESTIONNAIRE**TEAM MEMBERS AT YOUTH CARE AND EDUCATION CENTRES****A SURVEY ON THE PERSPECTIVES OF TEAM MEMBERS OF YOUTH CARE AND EDUCATION CENTRES OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF CHANGED CHILD AND YOUTH POLICIES****ALL INFORMATION WILL BE TREATED CONFIDENTIALLY****AIM OF THE STUDY**

The aim of the research is to gain an understanding of how members of institutional level teams are experiencing the implementation of changed child and youth policies in YCECs. The guidelines will be based on the points of departure of team development (Tuckman as cited by West, 2004: 29, 30; Kohn and O'Connell, 2007: 59-61; and Conradie (2008) and Organizational Learning (Senge, 1999).

IDENTIFYING DETAILS**1. AGE AND WORK EXPERIENCE**

1.1 Age -----

1.2 Number of years experience in your field of expertise -----

1.3 Period connected with the youth care centre -----

2. QUALIFICATIONS

2.1 Indicate your highest qualifications

QUALIFICATIONS	
Diploma	
B.A (3 years)	
B.A. (4 years)	
M.A	

2.2 Please indicate other qualifications:

2.3 Indicate which profession you represent

PROFESSION	
2.3.1 Educator	
2.3.2 Residential Educator	
2.3.3 School social worker	
2.3.4 Psychologist	
2.3.5 School Nurse	
2.3.6 Occupational Therapist	

3.1 Indicate how changed policies were introduced to you

WAYS POLICIES WERE INTRODUCED TO STAFF	Yes	No
3.1.1 Staff was given the opportunity to express their feelings regarding the changed policies during workshops		
3.1.1 Policy documents were read to staff at a meeting		
3.1.2 Policy documents were given to the staff and they were expected to read it and provide feedback		
3.1.3 Policy documents were pinned to the notice board and staff had to sign that they are aware of the policies		

3.2 Who introduced the policies to the staff?

3.3 Please indicate your views on the shift from working in silos to working in teams

THE VALUE OF TEAMWORK	Agree	Disagree
<p>3.3.1 It is in the best interest of the learner that staff work in teams and not in their separate groups or on their own</p> <p>Please explain:</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>		
<p>3.3.2 It benefits the staff to work in teams</p> <p>Please explain:</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>		
<p>3.3.3 Teamwork takes up too much of the staff's time</p>		
<p>3.3.4 It is better to work on your own than in teams</p> <p>Please explain:</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>		

3.4 MY CONTRIBUTION IN THE TEAM IS AS FOLLOWS:

3.5 Please indicate your views on the following elements that indicate the phase of team development

PHASES OF TEAM DEVELOPMENT (“Forming phase”)	Yes	No
<p>3.5.1 I am clear about the purpose and goals of the team</p>		
<p>3.5.2 I know what the roles of the other team members are in the team</p> <p>Please explain: _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>		
<p>3.5.3 I think that the other team members understand my role in the team</p> <p>Please explain _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>		
“Forming phase”/2	Yes	No
<p>3.5.4 We have a strong leader in the team</p>		
<p>3.5.5 We get support from the management</p> <p>Please explain: _____</p> <p>_____</p>		

“Storming phase”	Yes	No
<p>3.5.6 <i>There is conflict (disagreement) among team members</i></p> <p>Please explain:</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>		
<p>3.5.7 <i>There are sub groups (cliques) in the team</i></p> <p>Please explain:</p> <hr/> <hr/>		
<p>3.5.8 <i>The work in the team restricts me and limits my independence?</i></p> <p>Please explain:</p> <hr/> <hr/>		
<p>3.5.9 <i>There is conflict regarding who should be in charge of the team</i></p>		
<p>3.5.10 <i>There are staff members who are not attending team meetings</i></p>		
<p>3.5.11 <i>As team we accept the choice, authority and competency of the leader</i></p>		
“ Norming phase”	Yes	No
<p>3.5.12 We have developed close relationships within the group</p>		
<p>3.5.13 We have laid down group rules that are easy to understand and acceptable to all</p>		

3.5.14 We have developed a shared set of expectations of what consists of appropriate member behaviour		
“ Performing phase”	Yes	No
3.5.15 <i>We work well as a team</i>		
3.5.16 <i>We are able to perform our task (development of the IDP)</i>		
3.5.17 <i>I think all members accept the team</i>		
3.5.18 <i>We have a strong leader in the team</i>		
3.5.19 <i>We get support from the management</i>		
3.5.20 <i>We need the following assistance to be able to work well as a team</i> _____ _____		

4. Please indicate your perspectives on the development of the IDP

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE IDP	Yes	No
4.1 <i>The development of the IDP is in the best interests of the child</i> Please explain: _____ _____		
4.2 <i>The development of the IDP makes it easier for the staff to help children</i> Please explain: : _____ _____ _____		

<p>4.3 <i>All the team members know what their roles are in the implementation of the goals of the IDP</i></p> <p>Please explain: : _____</p> <p>_____</p>		
5. CHILDREN'S RIGHTS PERSPECTIVE	Yes	No
<p>5.1 <i>I agree with the abolishment of corporal punishment</i></p> <p>Please explain: _____</p> <p>_____</p>		
<p>5.2 <i>I agree that children should have the right to participate in matters that affect them:</i></p> <p>Please explain: _____</p> <p>_____</p>		
<p>5.3 <i>I agree that a strengths based approach must be followed when working with children:</i></p> <p>Please explain: _____</p> <p>_____</p>		
<p>5.4 <i>I agree that a restorative approach must be followed when working with children:</i></p> <p>Please explain: _____</p> <p>_____</p>		

6. ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING PRINCIPLES	Yes	No
<p>6.1 <i>We have a shared vision in the youth care and education centre</i></p> <p>The vision is:</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>		
<p>6.2 <i>We have the opportunity to learn skills for working in groups</i></p> <p>Please explain:</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>		
<p>6.3 <i>I am given opportunity to develop my knowledge and skills</i></p>		
<p>6.4 <i>The team members understand where we fit into the broader child and youth care system</i></p>		
<p>6.5 <i>We are given opportunity to talk about policy issues that we find difficult to understand or that we do not agree with</i></p> <p>Please explain:</p> <hr/>		

7. Please indicate what challenges you experience with the implementation of the changed child and youth policies

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

