

**FACTORS INFLUENCING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF HEALTH PROMOTING
SCHOOLS: A MULTIPLE CASE STUDY OF THREE SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN A
RESOURCE LIMITED COMMUNITY IN CAPE TOWN**

SURAYA MOHAMED

2110484

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Supervisors: Dr Ruth Stern and Prof. Patricia Struthers

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Enabling factors

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Complexity

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ABSTRACT

Introduction: This study was conducted because of a gap in information on the factors influencing the health promoting schools (HPS) implementation process in South Africa (SA) specifically and in secondary schools globally. The aim of this context- sensitive, practice-based study was to explore and understand the complexity of the factors that influenced the implementation process of HPS in three secondary schools in a resource-limited setting in Cape Town, SA. This research drew on a five year project that initiated the implementation of HPS in these schools.

Methodology: An exploratory qualitative study was used, adopting a multiple case study design. The sample included two principals, ten teachers and 30 students involved in HPS implementation at their schools, and the three school facilitators, who served as mentors to the schools. The data collection methods included: individual interviews, focus group discussions, documentary review, secondary data and observations. A conceptual framework was developed drawing on the settings approach and various implementation frameworks and was used to analyse the findings. Thematic analysis was employed and the data for each case were analysed separately first before undertaking cross case analysis.

Findings: A combination of several internal and external factors influenced the ability of the schools to implement and integrate HPS as a whole school approach. A key factor was the degree of understanding of the HPS concept by all key actors and where there was lucid understanding, there was better integration. Significant school factors included the schools' readiness for change; a culture of collaboration and cooperation; existing school structures, practices and workload; the leadership style and management role of the principals; the role and influence of HPS champion teachers; and the role that students played. The major external factors included the role of the education district; the role of project team as external catalysts for change; and the community context. The main achievements in all schools were discrete activities, including co-curricular activities rather than changes to routine school functions. This highlighted the difficulty in implementing HPS as a whole school approach, a challenge typical of all health promoting settings.

Conclusion: The findings illustrate the challenge of achieving full integration of HPS, although the influencing factors, and hence level of integration varied mainly according to context. This highlights the complexity of the different factors and their impact. The study demonstrates the paradox of HPS implementation. In that, despite the recognition of the value of HPS, the challenges to address the complexity of factors that would have brought about change through a whole school approach were too great. It was too difficult to change the status quo from what was routinely done to a more radical way of working due to the conservatism of traditional ways of working and extent of adjustment that it would have resulted. It was therefore only possible to put simple, discrete, strategies in place and that was not too resource intensive. The study concluded that this does not imply that HPS should not be attempted, particularly where there are adverse conditions that would benefit from HPS. Starting with marginal changes, it can be effective in increasing the schools' readiness for change, building on the achievements both in activities and structures, and the resultant commitment by those involved. Once they experience these changes it will more likely enable schools to incrementally attempt more complex changes.

The key recommendations for within the school include: building the understanding and capacity of relevant actors to actively support the implementation of HPS; building the capacity of the principal to create an environment which is conducive to change; and providing support for the HPS champions and students. Recommendations for those external to the school include: support from external catalysts who can provide expertise and mentorship; support from the education district, especially in terms of policies on integration, resources, and raising the profile of HPS; and better collaboration between the education and health sectors.

Although most of the literature on HPS implementation identifies similar issues to those found in this study, the complexity has not, to date, been sufficiently described. The contribution of this study, therefore, is to take the debate on the complexity of the factors influencing HPS implementation forward.

DECLARATION

I declare that *Factors influencing the implementation of health promoting schools: A multiple case study of three secondary schools in a resource limited community in Cape Town* is my own work, that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

Suraya Mohamed

November 2015



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This journey was never undertaken on my own.

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To my children Zaheera, Zain (and my adorable grandchildren Layyah and Amaan), Ahmed Riaz and Adil who are my inspiration for believing in the potential of our young people to bring about change for the betterment of our country and beyond. Thank you for your encouragement and your patience and believing in my ability to complete this journey.

Last but not the least, my life partner Ebrahim who was alongside me throughout this journey which made it so much easier. Thank you for your love, patience and understanding.

DEDICATION

To my mothers Miriam and Hajoe.

To Meera



LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

DoE	Department of Education
DoH	Department of Health
FGD	Focus group discussion
HIV	Human-immuno-deficiency virus
HPS	Health-promoting school/s
IQMS	Integrated quality management systems
LO	Life Orientation
ORC	Organisational readiness for change
OT	Occupational therapy
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
RCL	Representative Council of Learners
SA	South Africa
SGB	School governing body
SIP	School improvement plan
SMT	School management team
TB	Tuberculosis
UWC	University of the Western Cape
VP	Vice Principal
WHO	World Health Organization

LIST OF TERMS

Department of Basic Education	Oversees primary and secondary education. A new term since 2009 when the Department of Education created a new portfolio for higher education. The former DoE was split into DBE and Department of Higher Education. For purposes of this study, the term DoE will be used when referring to the department overseeing school level education as many of the documents reviewed were still from the former DoE
District	In this study the term refers to the education district which is oversees the schools in this study
HPS committee	A core group of students and staff at each school who were meant to take responsibility for HPS
HPS group	The full body of staff and students who were involved in HPS, which might be at different stages during the implementation process
Lead teacher	A teacher at the school who took the lead in the project for that school
Parents	For purposes of this study, the term refers to parents or other main caregivers e.g. grandparents, who serve in the role of parents
School facilitator	A member of the UWC team dedicated to one of the schools in the project to mentor the schools during the implementation of HPS
UWC team	A team of academics from the University of the Western Cape and a school doctor employed the Western Cape Department of Health who initiated the HPS project at secondary schools

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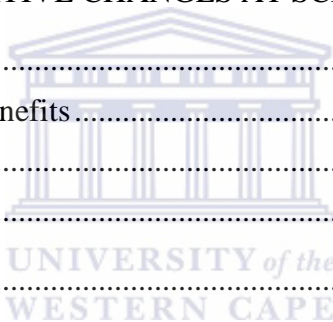
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1 INTRODUCTION

In this first chapter a background is sketched of the health-promoting school (HPS) approach, its effectiveness and the rationale for it. Youth in South Africa (SA) is described next, followed by the history of HPS in the country. Descriptions of the University of the Western Cape (UWC) HPS project, from which this study draws, and the study setting follows. The problem statement is then articulated, after which the purpose of the study is stated. An overview of the different chapters in the thesis concludes this chapter.

1.1 THE HPS APPROACH AND ITS EFFECTIVENESS

According to the World Health Organisation (World Health Organization, 1998, p. 2), an HPS is “a school that is constantly strengthening its own capacity as a healthy setting for living, learning and working”. Schools are ideally placed to make a valuable contribution to the health and well-being of children and their families, because schools have a captive audience where children spend most of their time for up to 12 years. The aim of implementing HPS is to equip future generations with the appropriate knowledge, abilities and skills necessary to care not only for their own health but also for the health of their family and community. With HPS students can reach their full potential, i.e. optimal health and social development, through active participation (World Health Organization, 1997a). The intention of HPS is to build the capacity of the school by building the capacities of the various actors, in order for them to participate in HPS development, as partners in the process. This will empower them to bring about change at a whole school level and to feel a sense of ownership over the process and the achievements, which in turn will make HPS sustainable (Deschesnes, Trudeau, & Kébé, 2010; Hoyle, Samek & Valois, 2008). HPS therefore aims to create and maintain healthy supportive environments where the students, teachers and the rest of the school community learn, work, live and play (World Health Organization, 1998).

In order to achieve the aforementioned, the HPS approach is based on the settings approach for health promotion, which is underpinned by values such as “equity, participation, empowerment,

partnerships and sustainability” and encompasses a whole-school ethos (Dooris & Barry, 2013, p. 16). The settings approach is further elaborated on in Chapter 3 (sections 3.2 and 3.3).

In keeping with the settings approach, the HPS approach takes into account the school in totality (Weare & Markham, 2005). It involves moving beyond focusing on the individual (classroom-based programmes aimed at students) or discrete health promotion interventions to a whole-school focus, and is characterised by “a complex dynamic of group behaviours and system changes within the school and in collaboration with external stakeholders” (Samdal & Rowling, 2011, p. 369). Similarly, Inchley, Currie, & Young (2000, p. 201) point out that any HPS initiative should be multi-faceted and should encompass not only interventions targeted at individuals but also the “wider organisational and socio-environmental context of the whole school community”. Parsons & Stears (2002) confirm that the HPS approach is a multi-sectoral, complex and long-term process because it subscribes to the values and principles of the Ottawa Charter. The Ottawa Charter is used globally as a framework for health promotion, including HPS, which is guided by empowerment and intersectoral collaboration and subscribes to a holistic concept of health. It was formulated at the first health promotion conference that took place in Ottawa, Canada in 1986 (World Health Organization, 1986) and is characterised by five action areas, namely:

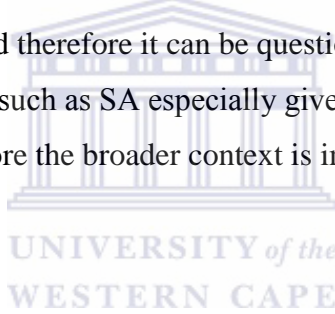
- 1) Build healthy public policy
- 2) Create supportive environments
- 3) Strengthen community action
- 4) Develop personal skills
- 5) Re-orientate health services.

To fulfil these action areas, the Ottawa Charter recommends the three strategies of *advocacy*, *enablement* and *mediation* which encourage a combination of bottom-up and top-down approaches for health promotion.

Evidence shows that the HPS approach has been effective in many regions and countries globally (Greenberg et al., 2003; Lister- Sharpe, Chapman, Steward Brown, & Snowden, 1999; Macnab, Gagnon, & Stewart, 2014; Steward-Brown, 2006; Tai, Jiang, Du, & Peng, 2009; Tang et al., 2009). These countries include Europe, the Western Pacific countries, United Kingdom, China

and, more recently, countries in Latin America (Steward-Brown, 2006) and the Eastern Mediterranean Region (World Health Organization, 2007a). However, many of the studies relating to the effectiveness of HPS deal with specific health issues such as handwashing, malaria, sexual and reproductive health, sun protection or interventions for risky behaviour such as alcohol abuse or physical inactivity (Tang et al., 2009). These interventions relate mainly to behaviour change that either does not describe a whole-school approach or does not cover all the aspects of the HPS action areas, which means that HPS is not implemented in a holistic manner (Langford et al., 2014; Mūkoma & Flisher, 2004; St Leger, 1999).

Even though the HPS approach provides a clear and flexible framework to work with (Rowling, 1996; St. Leger, 2004), how realistic is it to apply the HPS principles of equity, empowerment and democracy where the bureaucratic structures of both the health and education sectors serve as barriers for full implementation of HPS in South African schools? The HPS approach originated in the Western world and therefore it can be questioned whether this approach is truly applicable in a developing country such as SA especially given the country's history of colonisation and apartheid. Therefore the broader context is important to consider when attempting implementing HPS.



1.2 RATIONALE FOR HPS

Without a space in which our youngsters can learn and grow, we stagnate as a nation. Without getting our schools right, without creating these nurturing boundaries of support and care, we betray the generation of the future. They will sink into morass. We will all be to blame unless there is the sky for them to grasp (Bloch, 2009, p. 124).

Despite its limitations, HPS has the potential to create such a space referred to in the above statement (referring to the South African context) because it can contribute to promoting the health of not only students but also staff, families and the community, where students and staff spend a great deal of their time. There is therefore already a captive audience, and with more children currently enrolled in schools globally than any generation of children before them, it is an expanding opportunity (UNICEF, 2012). Furthermore, HPS has the potential for significant impact because school-going students are at such important developmental stages, i.e. childhood and adolescence, which can influence the rest of their lives (World Health Organization, 2000).

1.2.1 Adolescents' health

The WHO emphasises that children are the most important “natural resources” in the world and therefore they need to be “... at the very heart of development” because they will determine the future of the world (World Health Organization, 2000, p. 1). The WHO (2014) asserts that health during adolescence has an impact on an individual’s life-course, emphasising the importance of putting adolescent health on public health agendas. This study is based on a project in secondary schools – and hence my focus on adolescents in this rationale for HPS. There are variations in the literature in the term “adolescent” (10-19 years), some referring to “young people” (10-24 years) some to “youth” (15-24 years) (Sawyer et al., 2012); these terms are often used interchangeably, and this practice has been adopted in this study.

Currently there are 1.2 billion adolescents worldwide, with nearly 90% living in developing countries (UNICEF, 2012). Adolescence, the transition from childhood to adulthood (Sawyer et al., 2012), is a key stage of human development with rapid and biological changes taking place which affect all aspects of a person’s life. According to the WHO report on *Health for the World’s Adolescents: A second chance in the second decade*, this stage of development of adolescents has implications for the types of interventions and how they are implemented (World Health Organization, 2014, p. 6). For example, active youth participation in decision making and planning, and implementation of interventions affecting them, is essential because their voices need to be heard. In this way, instead of just being at the receiving end of social programmes, they will be activists for social change. However, they might need encouragement and support in order to participate meaningfully (World Health Organization, 2014). Anderson and Ronson (2005); Griebler, Rojatz, Simovska, & Forster (2014) and Simovska, (2004) emphasise the importance of the principle of democracy for HPS, which means giving a voice to and empowering those being targeted for intervention in a participatory and non-discriminatory manner that reduces inequities.

Young people face major health problems including HIV and AIDS, violence and injury, malaria, oral health, mental health, reproductive health, nutritional problems, worm infestation, unsafe and inadequate sanitation and water supply, low immunisation, alcohol, tobacco and other

drug-related problems and respiratory infections (Bundy, 2011; World Health Organization, 1996). Apart from these health issues, recent literature has also included teenage pregnancy, non-communicable diseases and the influence of social media resulting in “what were previously less common attitudes, aspirations, and behaviours” (Sawyer et al., 2012, p. 1635). Similarly, the WHO 2014 Report highlights the top five causes of adolescent deaths in descending order as road injury; HIV and AIDS; self-harm; lower respiratory infections and interpersonal violence. It is clear therefore that the aforementioned problems related to adolescents have not changed over the years but instead have expanded. Consequently, many schools experience a wide range of health and social problems, including problems related to the surrounding community such as violence, which impact on the school environment and the health of its students and staff. Often, efforts to address these problems fail because of a focus on specific health issues aimed at individuals (Tang et al., 2009). The rationale for the HPS approach is that many of the noted health problems can be addressed through HPS (World Health Organization, 1996).

The HPS approach is, by its very nature, meant to tackle the social determinants of health as it takes a socio-ecological and systemic perspective that focuses not only on changing behaviour but puts emphasis on creating a safe and supportive environment that will facilitate that change. In other words, they make healthier choices easier choices. This approach aims to ensure that the determinants of adolescent health and development are taken into account, not only at the individual but also at the level of families, peers and the community and more distally at the level of policies and political decisions (World Health Organization, 2014).

Much development progress has been in many countries over the past few years, but not all adolescents have reaped the benefits of that progress because the impact of the social determinants of health, which have a major impact on adolescent health, occur at multiple levels. These levels include the personal, family, community and national levels, and include factors such as national wealth, income inequality, and access to education (Viner et al., 2012).

Economic growth has not always been equitable, with the poorest and the most marginalised often not reaping the rewards (UNICEF, 2012). Rapidly advancing development and technology, which are macro-level determinants of adolescent health, are further concerns highlighted by this quotation from Sawyer et al. (2012, p. 1633):

Increasing industrialisation, globalisation, urbanisation, and access to digital media are reducing the influence that families and communities traditionally had on the transition to adulthood by decreasing parental control, social support for families, and social cohesion.

The determinants of adolescent health not only call for safe and supportive families and schools, in conjunction with positive and supportive peers to assist young people in developing to their full potential and attaining the best health in their transition to adulthood (Viner et al., 2012), but also for macro-level intervention.

Moreover, Michaud (2006, p. 483) posits that “shifting the paradigm from risk-taking adolescents to adolescents who are exploring the world will enable us to advocate for youth from a positive position”. This implies that we should make a shift from trying to address the risks that are so inevitable in this stage of their lives to focusing on protective factors by creating a positive environment where their life skills are built and where they feel safe to experiment and explore, a role that HPS is designed to play. One of the ways that HPS can create an enabling environment for adolescents is through the recognition and actualisation of their right to meaningful participation in matters that affect them.

1.2.2 Rights of young people to participate

An important aspect of HPS is the participation of young people in the process of developing and implementing HPS. Adolescent participation can be defined as “adolescents partaking in and influencing processes, decisions and activities” (UNICEF, 2001, p. 1). According to UNICEF, the aim of adolescent participation is: “To ensure that adolescents have the capabilities, opportunities and supportive environments necessary to participate effectively and meaningfully in as enlarged a space as possible, to the maximum extent of their evolving capacities” (UNICEF, 2001, p. 3). However, UNICEF also emphasises that participation should always be voluntary and not coerced. Furthermore, the United Nation’s Convention on the Rights of the Child, which came into effect in 1990, includes articles that specifically relate to aspects of

children's participation, such as respecting children's views, freedom of expression and the right to engage in leisure activities.¹

HPS, with its strong focus on student participation, resonates with these articles and the Convention on the Rights of the Child in general. Moreover, the following statement by UNICEF (2001, p. 12) clearly shows affinity with the HPS principle of addressing the social determinants of health to ensure an enabling environment suitable for school-going children:

Dismantling the legal, political, economic, social and cultural barriers to children's participation requires a willingness to re-examine assumptions about their potential in order to create a setting in which children can truly thrive, building their capacities in the process.

Another reason for implementing HPS is the inextricable link between health and education, which fosters health while simultaneously promoting learning.

1.2.3 Health and education

Part of the rationale for HPS is that the health sector alone cannot address adolescent health in its broad sense because of the multilevel social determinants of health, and therefore other sectors also need to include adolescent health in their policies (Viner et al., 2012). For example, HPS assumes that the health and education sectors have to work together for the holistic development of students and the school community in general.

The positive association between the health of students and education has been well established (Bundy, 2011; Correa-Burrows, Burrows, Ibaceta, Orellana, & Ivanovic, 2014; Mohammadi, Rowling, & Nutbeam, 2010; Murray, Low, Hollis, Cross, & Davis, 2007; Ross & Wu, 1996; St

¹**Article 12:** Respect for the views of the child. When adults are making decisions that affect children, children have the right to say what they think should happen and have their opinions taken into account.

Article 13: Freedom of expression: Children have the right to get and share information, as long as the information is not damaging to them or others.

Article 31: The right of the child to rest, leisure, play, recreational activities, cultural life and the arts.

Leger, 1999; Suhrcke & de Paz Nieves, 2011). The WHO argues that education is one of the prerequisites for health (World Health Organization, 1986). On the other hand, learning cannot take place effectively if the students' physical, social and emotional well-being is not addressed simultaneously. According to the Ottawa Charter, health is a resource for living, and seen this way "can be a way to enliven (relate to life outside of school) and enrich (broaden and deepen understanding) students' understanding of all areas of academic study in relation to the betterment of society" (Anderson, 2005, p. 294). In other words health can be used to build the capacity of students to become active and productive citizens. One constructive way that the health and education sector can work together to address health and well-being issues affecting the school community and therefore teaching and learning in schools is through the HPS approach.

The congruence between health and education was underscored when school health was included in the discussions at UNESCO's World Education Forum in 2000, which culminated in the Dakar Framework for Action – Education for All (UNESCO, 2000) and was endorsed by all the attending countries, including SA. The link between health and education is manifest in the mandatory schooling policy in most countries in the world, making schools (as indicated earlier) an ideal setting to address issues affecting young people's health and well-being (World Health Organization, 1998).

Although the education and health sectors have different functions, there is a need for those working in them to understand each other's sectors, context and functions in the interests of the well-being of students and the school community (Anderson, 2005). St Leger (1999, p. 65) claims that "...the health sector have largely ignored the vast literature on school organization and improvement, teaching and learning practices, professional development, and innovation and dissemination". In addition, Rowling (2003) maintains that the health sector needs to reorient its focus from individual behaviour to the broader social and structural determinants of health, which includes the education sector. Conversely, the education sector needs to consider the health sector not as outsiders coming to implement new programmes in the school, but as those who can build the capacity of the school community (Rowling, 2003). From this perspective the school itself and its members would be involved in the implementation of HPS and take

ownership of the process, thereby leading to sustainability of HPS. Youth at school can thus play an important role in implementing HPS.

1.3 YOUTH IN SA

“Every child is a national asset” (Department of Basic Education slogan)

During apartheid, the youth played a pivotal role in the struggle for democracy. An example of such action is the June 16, 1976, student uprising against a language policy stating that black secondary school students had to receive instruction in Afrikaans, which was regarded as the language of the oppressors. What started out as a peaceful protest march of some 20 000 students in Soweto (a black township) escalated into a nation-wide revolt, revitalising the struggle for liberation in SA (South African History Online, 1976). Students mobilised and became “foot soldiers of the revolution” (Fleisch & Christie, 2004). SA celebrates National Youth Day annually in commemoration of the June 16 uprising, thus illustrating the government’s recognition of the contribution made by the youth to the nation’s democracy.

The National Youth Development Agency was established in 2008 (Republic of South Africa, 2008). This is partly in recognition of the role South African youth played in the struggle for a free and democratic country, and in part with the aim of strengthening the chances of the upcoming generation. Attempts have been made at prioritising youth development, as is evident by this extract from the National Youth Policy (Presidency of South Africa, 2009, p. 6): “The fact that youth programmes have found expression in the government’s Programme of Action is a clear illustration of the manner in which the South African Government prioritises the development of young people”. The National Youth Policy identifies four pillars for specific interventions: education, health and well-being, economic participation and social cohesion. The recognition of the needs of young people is also exemplified in the slogan of the National Plan of Action for Children 2012-2017: “Put Children First” (Republic of South Africa, 2012). This document outlines the rights of children and young people and the related responsibilities, but also emphasises that children are the responsibility of all spheres of government.

Under the previous South African apartheid regime, in terms of the Group Areas Act of 1950, people were classified and segregated along racial lines, which forced them to reside in areas specifically designated for their race group. This meant that people who were not classified as “White” were uprooted and resettled in areas with poor infrastructure, thus destroying communities. Many of the resettled areas consequently became hotbeds for gangsterism, drugs and crime, which still persist and have even escalated. Therefore, despite the democratic government’s commitment to its youth, the apartheid government’s legacy of systemic poverty amongst the majority of South Africans is evident more than 20 years after the first democratic election, and continues to affect the life chances of the majority of young people.

One of the hallmarks of apartheid was the vast inequalities that existed between the races in terms of education, where, in 1982, the apartheid government spent an average of R1 211 on education for a white child, and only R146 for a black child, annually (Boddy-Evans, 2001). Unfortunately, such inequalities were institutionalised well before democracy and therefore the legacy of apartheid within the education system will continue for decades to come. The majority of the next generation of youth does not seem to have reaped the rewards of the struggles of their parents as a consequence of lingering inequities resulting in ongoing systemic poverty. This is reflected in the current school system as Bloch (2009, p. 59) aptly describes:

It is as if there are two school systems, and those who suffer most by being trapped in the second economy of unemployment and poverty and now also have to face up to their children being disadvantaged by the existence of two unequal school systems.

The education system did not change as was promised, since the African National Congress came into power in SA. They continued with the colonial education system despite the promise of Socialist or alternate education systems during the time of the liberation struggle (Prew, 2011). Prew (2011, p. 11) maintains that after liberation, schooling took on “... an increasingly class (rather than race) character.” This widened the inequity gap where those who could afford it, sent their children to high quality well-resourced schools, while those from poorer backgrounds had to send their children to often poor quality and low resourced schools in the areas where they lived (Bloch, 2009; Christie, 2012; Prew, 2011). This inequity is further

highlighted in a report to the South African Minister of Education's Ministerial Committee in 2007 by Christie, Butler, & Potterton (2007, p. 81):

“The same outcomes are expected from schools in very different circumstances, and this is simply not realistic. Schools are not the same, particularly in terms of social, economic and linguistic conditions. Nor do they appear to be moving towards homogeneity ... equal treatment of learners from unequal backgrounds is likely to perpetuate inequality, while at the same time giving the appearance of meritocracy. Equal treatment cannot, under such circumstances, bring equal opportunities, let alone equal outcomes.”

This means that the life chances of many young people today are also compromised because the inequalities are perpetuated with few prospects for development, leaving many young people despondent with no hope for the future (Bloch, 2009). The risky behaviour and their determinants of South African youth bear testimony to this.

In 2012, young people totalled 9 598 363 of the 51.8 million population of SA, with those between the ages of 10 and 14 (8.9%) and 15 and 19 (9.7%) making up the largest population age group (StatsSA, 2012). The second South African National Youth Risk Behaviour Survey of 2008 (Reddy et al., 2010), which surveyed secondary school students, reported that South African youth engage in a number of risky behaviours that could compromise their health. As far as sexual behaviour was concerned, the survey showed that 38% had had sex and of those 41% had had more than one sexual partner, while condom use was at only 31%. Nineteen percent had been pregnant or made someone pregnant, and 8.2% reported an abortion.

The survey also reported increased sedentary behaviour, and increased threats to mental health such as suicide and feelings of hopelessness. Also reported was that the most common illegal substances used included marijuana (13%), inhalants (12%) and other substances such as cocaine, methamphetamine and mandrax. Alcohol consumption was at 50%. Unsafe traffic behaviour such as driving while under the influence of alcohol was also included. Just over 12.5% of students reported having used alcohol on school grounds, 7.8% having used marijuana while 9.3% of students had been offered, sold or given an illegal drug while at school. High levels of violent behaviour were reported showing that 31.1% had previously been involved in a physical fight, and that just over 19% were members of gangs; 9% had carried some form of

weapon to school, while 15.7% had been threatened at school by someone with a weapon. Twenty seven per cent reported that they felt unsafe at school while 22.9% said they felt unsafe on their way to and from school. It is clear from this report and the inequities highlighted earlier that efforts such as implementing HPS need to be directed at ameliorating some of these negative behaviours and circumstances (Reddy et al., 2010). Approaches such as HPS can play an important role in addressing the issues that affect youth in SA as schools can be seen as a place of refuge, where there is structure and a culture of caring to encourage the students to reach their aspirations (Bloch, 2009).

1.4 HPS IN SA

Being a signatory to the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1990), it is evident from several government documents that SA has endeavoured to fulfil its mandate. For example, the Constitution of SA and several other documents from the Departments of Health, Education and Social Development refer to the importance of the health and well-being of young people. These include among others: the National Education Policy Act, No. 27 of 1996; South African Schools Act, 1996; National Policy on HIV and AIDS, 1999; National Policy on Drug Abuse; Whole School Development, 2001; and the Education White Paper 6 for building an inclusive education and training system, 2001. Documents that give credence to school health or HPS include: the Policy Guidelines for Youth and Adolescent Health, 2001; Integrated School Health Policy 2013; the Re-engineering of Primary Health Care, 2010 and Care and Support for Teaching and Learning, 2010. The National Child and Adolescent Mental Health Policy Guidelines (Department of Health, 2003) identify the school as an important setting to promote mental health. It also emphasises a shift away from responding to immediate problems, instead putting interventions in place that promote youth development in the longer term.

In 1994, a group of academics and professionals from the University of the Western Cape (UWC), University of Cape Town and the Medical Research Council, supported by WHO, called a meeting with leaders from the National Departments of Health, Education and Social Welfare to discuss the development of HPS in SA. Significantly it was the first year of the new democracy and all sectors were committed to transformation and “democratic principles and

practice” (Johnson & Lazarus, 2003, p. 84) and there was therefore the urge to address the historical imbalances of the past (Swart & Reddy, 1999). Two years later, the first HPS conference in SA was held in Cape Town (1996), where an interministerial commitment was made for the development of HPS in SA. At the same time a Health Promotion Directorate was established for the first time in the DoH and HPS was made a priority area. The Directorate embarked on a four year consultative process to develop guidelines for the development of HPS in the country. A wide range of key stakeholders was involved, including representation from the National and Provincial Departments of Health, Education and Social Welfare, as well as non-governmental organisations (NGOs) working in the field, and university academics. The draft document outlining national guidelines for the development of health promoting schools/sites in SA was completed in 1999 (Department of Health, 2000) but was only formalised 11 years later, in 2010. The guidelines were based on the Ottawa Charter action areas but within a whole-school development approach, which would ensure that the bio-psychosocial challenges and needs of schools in SA would be addressed in a holistic and comprehensive manner (Lazarus, 2007).

Swart and Reddy (1999) advocated for the establishment of networks for HPS in SA as a way of encouraging intersectoral collaboration. They conducted a survey of health and educational professionals on their perceptions of the feasibility of such networks. It was found that the majority of respondents (87.2%) supported the establishment of HPS networks. However, they identified some barriers which included a lack of cooperation and coordination between the health and education sectors; low priority due to other work commitments, a lack of understanding of health promotion; and a lack of resources such as time and finances. Recommendations were made on how to overcome these barriers (Swart & Reddy, 1999). However, to date only the HPS Reference Group and the UWC HPS Forum can be regarded as HPS networks in the country.

A reference group for HPS was established in the Western Cape Province in 1995 and it held regular meetings involving teachers, principals, school psychologists, school nurses and doctors, and NGOs, indicative of multisectoral collaboration (Johnson & Lazarus, 2003; Fairburn, 2006). This network was formed to support, co-ordinate and strengthen HPS initiatives. It also engages in advocacy and training – and still functions to date. A UWC HPS Forum was also formed as a

result of the 1994 meeting to develop HPS, and comprised UWC professionals from health and education faculties, other academic institutions as well as school doctors, school nurses, and organisations working in schools. Some of these members later became members of the HPS Reference Group (Johnson & Lazarus, 2003).

Despite the absence of HPS networks in other provinces, a number of HPSs have been developed in all provinces nationally since 1999, although most of these were primary schools (email communication, R. Sikue, Assistant Director: Health Promoting Schools, National DoH, July, 2010). One way for people from different provinces working with HPS to come together and share information and experiences was through the HPS short course at the annual Winter School run by the School of Public Health at UWC, since 2001. Members of the UWC Forum and the Reference Group teach parts of the course.

A series of seminars culminating in a symposium was held at UWC from May to September 2005, organised by the UWC HPS Forum, which was aimed at facilitating a discussion on the relationship between health and education. The purpose was to explore different views of health and health promotion, particularly as it pertained to the development of HPS in SA. Apart from academic institutions, these seminars brought together relevant stakeholders from the health and education sectors, the HPS Reference Group, research councils and NGOs. Although the conclusion of the programme was that HPS has the potential to make a positive difference in schools, it was also acknowledged that there were many challenges that made implementation difficult. Some of the challenges highlighted included: lack of understanding of the HPS concept; teachers faced many challenges in the normal course of their work and therefore would need extra support for HPS implementation; the majority of school nurses, who were the champions of HPS in the schools, had been withdrawn from the schools starting in 1997 (because it was felt by the DoH at the time that nurses should not be specialists); lack of leadership and commitment from school principals; and the DoE's support of HPS in theory but not in practice. The importance of the health and education sectors working together collaboratively towards a common purpose was also emphasised. It was after this series of seminars that a decision was made to hold another HPS conference (Collett, Lazarus, Mohamed, Sonn & Struthers, 2006).

The second HPS conference in SA was held in 2006, 10 years after the first, to celebrate and consolidate lessons learnt. At this conference, again an emphasis was placed on whole-school development and the need for intersectoral collaboration, especially between the health and education sectors, when implementing HPS. It was acknowledged that there was much commonality in the policies of the two sectors as far as the health and well-being of young people was concerned. Therefore the need to collaborate among the different sectors in working towards a common purpose was recognised. The DoH and DoE committed themselves to an integrated policy to address the bio-psychosocial needs of schools (Lazarus, 2006). However, despite the rhetoric of collaboration, the DoE subsequently released a policy document adopted by the Southern African Development Community Education Ministers called *Care and Support for Teaching and Learning* in 2010 (MiET, n.d.) which is not an integrated policy between the health and education sectors, although representatives of the health sector was consulted. Even though this is an education sector document, many aspects can be directly related to HPS – such as nutrition, infrastructure including water and sanitation, social welfare services, psychosocial support, safety and protection, curriculum support, co-curricular activities and material support – because they relate to the bio-psychosocial aspects of schools. This suggests that the DoE does identify student health as important but there still does not seem to be a concerted effort to actively work with the health sector to solve the health issues affecting students in SA (Mohlaba, Van Aswegen & Mokoena, 2010).

There have been a limited number of published studies on the process of the implementation of HPS in SA to date, even though there has been substantial discussion about HPS, as described above. For example, in an editorial Flisher and Reddy (1995) highlighted the potential value of HPS for SA in addressing health problems facing youth, including the social determinants of health. They proposed that HPS should be made mandatory because it would be a way of securing the future of South African society. This proposal however has not been fully adopted to date.

Although there is a dearth of scientific literature on HPS in SA, there is some evidence of its success. One of the few scientific studies on HPS in SA by Johnson & Lazarus (2003) describes the lessons learnt from a case study of a primary school in a resource-limited setting outside the

city of Cape Town. This HPS initiative was implemented in a comprehensive way, applying all the HPS elements, where all stakeholders of the school community worked collectively to address the difficulties faced by the school and the community. The authors concluded that by providing a holistic and comprehensive approach to dealing with difficulties and promoting health and well-being, HPS "... provides a useful framework for addressing the inequalities of the past in SA and meeting the needs of all South Africans" (Johnson & Lazarus, 2003, p. 95).

Most of the literature that I accessed in relation to HPS in SA was grey literature, from documents such as conference and meeting reports. From the number of public events, policies and such statements that focus on HPS, its value and potential in SA seem to have been recognised and many schools have been set up as HPSs, an example of which is introduced in the next section.

1.5 THE UWC HPS PROJECT

The current study was linked to a UWC HPS project, which was funded by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). The purpose of the five-year project was to reduce the spread of tuberculosis (TB) and HIV in the Western Cape school community by developing health-promoting secondary schools, through the building and strengthening of human and organisational capacity.

Planning for the project started in April 2008 and was initiated in three secondary schools in a resource-limited area close to UWC in June and July 2008. The duration of the project in the three schools was reduced from the intended five to three and a half years (2012) because the funder's focus changed from the schools to working more closely with national and provincial leadership in order to ensure sustainability.

The UWC HPS project team, which originated from the UWC HPS Forum, comprised members from the Education Faculty (an educational psychologist and two members from a unit in the Education Faculty called Transforming Institutional Practices), from the Faculty of Community and Health Sciences (Physiotherapy, Occupational Therapy (OT) and the School of Public Health – myself) and a school doctor employed by the Provincial DoH who was also on the HPS Reference Group executive committee. This diverse range of expertise and experience was of

benefit to the project as it drew on different paradigms relating to the background of the team members into the project discussions. A description of the project is provided next.

1.5.1 Initiation

The UWC project team decided to select three secondary schools within a five-kilometre radius of UWC, in one area that had a high incidence of TB. The criteria for the selection of schools were:

- Secondary school
- Functional school (in the opinion of the Western Cape Education District)
- Willingness to engage in health promotion
- Interest in TB and HIV in school community

Following a discussion with the circuit manager within the Western Cape Education Department regarding which schools they would like to be involved in the project, a list of schools in the area was obtained from the Education District (referred to as district from here on). A telephone call was made to principals from schools which were randomly selected from the list, to gauge their interest. Schools had to self-select their participation and, when schools showed an interest, the HPS project team set up a meeting with the principal to explain the project. Once the principals of three schools had agreed, the team stopped contacting further schools. Subsequently, the proposal to become a HPS was presented in a workshop at each school to as many of the staff as possible. After that first workshop, and once the schools had decided to become involved, each school selected a liaison person (who became the lead teacher²) who served as the link person between the school and the UWC team.

² A teacher at the school who took the lead in the project for that school.

1.5.2 Workshops³

After the initial workshop to introduce the concept and approach of a HPS to the schools, a series of workshops was held at each school in the first few months of the project, as well as combined workshops with all three schools. Teachers, students and parents were invited to these initial workshops. The aim of the first of these workshops was to identify the needs in the school community with regard to health and well-being. The next workshop focused more specifically on TB and HIV. In groups, participants brainstormed what was already in place in the school to address the challenges of TB and HIV. Using the information from the two workshops, each school subsequently drew up plans, being realistic about what was achievable for them.

Although the CDC funding was for capacity development for TB and HIV prevention, the UWC team used these issues as an entry point for HPS implementation only and concentrated mainly on the capacity building aspect which could be applied generically across HPS. Once the participants became familiarised with the HPS approach and also the social determinants of TB and HIV, they set their own agenda as to what was relevant to them and also what the schools' priorities were.

The last workshop for the year was to consolidate the planning for HPS action, and was undertaken in the separate schools, facilitated by the school facilitators⁴ of the individual schools. The value of these workshops was that the teachers, students and parents worked together towards a common purpose i.e. the implementation of HPS because they were receptive to the benefits of HPS.

In addition to the workshops, a student leadership camp was held annually. Leadership and empowerment was the focus of these camps to build the capacity of the students to not only

³ Further information on the workshops can be found in a manual developed by the UWC team (Struthers et al., 2013).

⁴ A member of the UWC team dedicated to one of the schools in the project to mentor the schools during the implementation of HPS

implement HPS but also develop themselves as individuals. The value of the camp was that the students were encouraged to explore and be reflective about their feelings and capabilities independently of their teachers or parents – an opportunity that they did not often have. Students were selected by the HPS teachers, depending on their active involvement in HPS throughout the year. The camp therefore was seen as an incentive and motivation for students to be involved in HPS. The camp was facilitated by members of the UWC HPS team in addition to some external organisations with expertise in youth development, communications, team building and HIV and TB.

1.5.3 Project process and approach

The HPS project team subscribed to certain processes and approaches to facilitate HPS implementation. For example, school facilitators held meetings with the HPS committee at their respective schools about once a month. Sometimes they had meetings with the students involved with HPS alone and sometimes with the HPS teachers alone, depending on the purpose of the meeting. At times they would visit the schools more often, for example, if the school had to organise a certain activity that needed intense planning, such as the interschool soccer tournament. Additionally, one of the team members provided support to the students of all three schools as a group, to facilitate the plans that the schools had made.

The team was more directly involved in the planning processes at the initial stages but took a more facilitative role afterwards. The team attempted to work in a participatory manner using the Appreciative Inquiry approach, which works from a positive stance and builds on the strengths of an organisation to encourage growth and development (Bryan, Klein, & Elias, 2007), whenever possible. For example, they were asked to draw a dream tree which they could aspire towards and also a mapping exercise outlining what resources were already available to them. From this perspective the team worked with those who were receptive and willing to be involved. The team was flexible in letting the schools work at their own pace and with their own plans as far as possible. The role of the UWC team was intended to be guiding, mentoring and facilitating the implementation process rather than doing *for* the school, and becoming less

involved as the project progressed. The role of the UWC team, as perceived by the participants, is further described in the Findings chapters.

1.5.4 Recruitment of students and teachers

The students involved in the HPS project were recruited in different ways. Class teachers and the lead teachers selected students whom they thought showed some leadership qualities.

Furthermore, HPS became one of the choices as a co-curricular activity in which the students could choose to participate. As the project progressed, the HPS students at all three schools also recruited other students, especially from the junior grades, as they felt that the junior students needed to sustain HPS once the senior students left the school. In addition, the lead teachers at Schools A and B saw the benefits to those already involved (as described in Chapter 6 section 6.10 and Chapter 7 section **Error! Reference source not found.**), and therefore recruited some students that they thought might benefit from being involved. These students included shy students or those whom the teachers felt had behavioural problems.

The lead teachers all volunteered to be involved and they in turn approached other teachers to become involved. At Schools A and B the selection of these additional teachers was strategic because they had the skills or expertise to contribute meaningfully to the HPS process. This was not the case at School C, where the two additional teachers agreed to become involved because they were friends of the lead teacher.

1.5.5 HPS activities at the schools

The schools were involved in a range of HPS-related activities that were initiated throughout the project, albeit different at the different schools. Certain activities were undertaken at the individual schools while others were joint activities in an effort to allow the three schools to work together. Some were organised by the UWC team and others by the schools themselves or university students (local and foreign) working in the schools. The lead teachers were mainly responsible for overseeing the activities with the assistance of other teachers when required.

At Schools A and B, there was a core group of students who were on the HPS Committee, who had responsibilities for overseeing the HPS activities. The students formed separate groups, each having different responsibilities. At School A they reported directly to the lead teacher because there was no teacher allocated to these groups. On the other hand, at School B, a teacher was assigned to each group. At School C, there was a group of students involved but there were no separate groups with specific responsibilities. Apart from the core group of students in the HPS committee, the number of students involved was fluid at all three schools throughout the project, making it difficult to keep count of the exact number of students involved.

After the planning phase, the schools started implementing their action plans. Some of the main activities are listed in Appendix 1. These activities were those that actually took place. There were also activities that were planned but not followed through for different reasons, which are included in the challenges discussed in the Findings chapters.

Although the UWC team understood HPS as being a settings approach, the activities that occurred were more in line with discrete activities. The team felt that it could not change what the schools had planned themselves, which was realistic and relevant for them at the time and therefore did not insist on whole school approach.

The UWC team conducted a survey two years into the project because the team wanted to determine how the schools saw themselves in relation to HPS. In retrospect, the team felt that this survey should have been conducted at the beginning of the project first in order to establish a baseline. This could then have been used to monitor and evaluate the implementation of HPS at the case study schools.

1.6 STUDY SETTING

The study setting was an area previously designated for “Coloured”⁵ people in Cape Town. The Western Cape is the only province in the country which has a majority of “Coloured” people as compared to “Blacks” in the other provinces. The majority of people in this resource-limited area

⁵ “Coloured” refers to one of the racial groups as classified during the apartheid era.

in Cape Town is still “Coloured” which means that they have remained on after democracy. One of the reasons could be that they could not afford to move to other better resourced areas reflecting the inequalities described earlier.

The information included in this section is mainly related to factors that could potentially influence specifically the youth in the community, and is by no means a comprehensive description of the community context as a whole. Although the schools are in close proximity to each other, according to the 2011 Census (StatsSA, 2012), they are located in different sub-places⁶ and therefore the related statistics are presented separately. Consequently, I present different sets of statistics for the three sub-places in which the schools are situated. I have named the sub-places Place A in which School A is located, Place B which School B is located, and Place C in which School C is located. The socio-demographic information was sourced from the City of Cape Town.

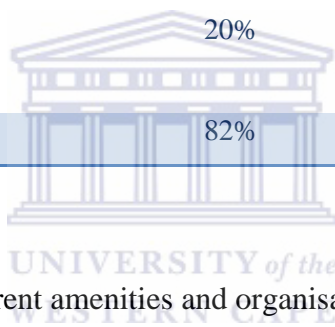
It is apparent from the statistics in Table 1 that the area within which the schools are situated is a resource-limited setting. However, Place C is poorer still in terms of employment and education levels. Many residents in the broader area live in formal but small sub-economic housing, and even in informal structures put up in the yards of these houses, leading to overcrowding on the premises. There are also a number of blocks of flats (usually three to four storeys high) which are owned by the local municipality and rented out to the residents. However, these buildings are poorly maintained and have no fenced off areas or gardens. On the other hand, there are also well maintained houses with gardens and fences reflecting the range of socio-economic status in the community, from deprived to relatively affluent. All the formal houses and flats are supplied with electricity, running water and flush toilets. The informal structures on the premises usually make use of the same services. Place C, unlike the other two places, is situated in an industrial area, which means that the risk of air pollution is higher there. Furthermore, the airport is situated very close to the broader area and the noise of planes flying overhead throughout the day is a reality for all the schools in the area.

⁶Sub-place is term that StatsSA uses to delineate geographic areas. Statistics are given for specific sub-places.

Table 1: Socio-demographics of study site

Socio-demographics % of total population of Place			
	Place A	Place B	Place C
Race: Coloured	94%	93%	90%
10-24 years age group (largest group of total place population)	26%	27%	27%
Employed	51%	54%	35%
Majority monthly income	R6401-R12 800= 24%* R3201-R6400= 22%	R6401-R12 800= 25% R3201-R6400= 20%	R3201-R6400= 28% R1601-R3200= 24%
Education level:			
Grade 12	30%	26%	22%
Higher (tertiary) education	10%	20%	1%
Formal dwelling	93%	82%	89%

*R1=\$0.8 as at 1/07/2015.



The community has access to different amenities and organisations providing services in the area. There are a few play parks in the area but all have been vandalised. These play areas are not regarded as safe for children because homeless people gather, drink alcohol and sleep there. The recreational facilities in the area include a sports stadium, and a public swimming pool, which charges an entrance fee. There is also a public library. There are two primary healthcare clinics, one secondary hospital and a tertiary hospital in the vicinity of the schools. Christianity is the main religion practiced. The numerous churches in the area have church members who are active in the community. For example, they run feeding schemes in the community and have programmes for the youth. There are also several NGOs in the area that provide a range of social services to improve conditions in the community. For example, one such organisation's focus is on crime prevention and targets gang members and past offenders (Bonn, Gobhozi, & Krieger, 2001; Fakier, Ismail, & Malope, 2011).

The 10 to 24-year age group is the largest group of the population in the area (StatsSA, 2012) which means that a large proportion of them are attending school, which is consistent with the rest of the country. However, the students in this community face violent crime on a regular basis as reflected in the following statistics for April 2013 to March 2014 (see Table 2) from the two police stations serving the area (South African Police Service, 2014). These are actual numbers of the crimes committed. Many of the violent crimes as illustrated by the statistics in Table 2 can be related to gangsterism, which is rife in this area. According to a report for the Institute of Security Studies, (Standing, 2005), there were 130 gangs operating on the Cape Flats (the areas which were allocated to mainly coloured and black people) with a membership of approximately 100 000. The following extract from the Standing (2005) report sums up the community context in which the schools in this study are located:

... it has become common for large numbers of gang members to fight openly on the Cape Flats using a frightening array of weaponry. These gang wars have turned communities into battlegrounds and stray gunshots have claimed the lives of several innocent bystanders. (Standing, 2005, p. 2).

Most often, it is the youth and the vulnerable, especially those with unstable families, who are recruited into the gangs with the promise of material and financial support, and drugs. In fact, a large part of the gangs' income is derived from drugs (Standing, 2005). The threat of gangsterism and exposure of the school children in the area to drugs and violence is therefore very real (Standing, 2005; Waterhouse, Frank, & Kelly, 2007). For example, in a study on secondary school students in Cape Town, Plüddemann, Flisher, Mcketin, Parry and Lombard (2010) found that methamphetamine use in addition to other substances was significantly associated with non-attendance at school. The use of methamphetamine has increased dramatically since 2006, especially in Cape Town. It was found that a large proportion of the methamphetamine patients admitted for treatment were adolescents, and concern was raised because of the serious side effects that can affect the cognitive development of adolescents (Plüddemann, Myers & Parry, 2008).

Table 2: Crime statistics in the study area (actual numbers)

Crime	Police station (serving Place A)	Police station (serving Places B and C)
Murder	40	60
Sexual crimes	75	96
Attempted murder	75	180
Assault with intent to do grievous bodily harm	319	342
Common assault	411	546
Unlawful possession of firearms and ammunition	82	94
Drug-related crime	1315	1355
Driving under influence of alcohol or drugs	95	160

It is evident that the community context within which the study schools are located poses a challenge to the health and well-being of the students attending these schools, their families and the teachers. For example, the broader area within which the schools are situated has one of the highest prevalences of TB in the world (Den Boon et al., 2007). Poverty, high rates of unemployment and the violent crime noted above also contribute to the challenges facing the youth. Furthermore, problems of alcoholism, HIV and AIDS, and TB (den Boon et al., 2007; Reddy et al., 2010) can contribute to poor academic performance. As stated earlier, as a result of the inequities of the past in SA, including an inequitable school system along with insufficient investment under the current government, resources and infrastructure at historically disadvantaged schools are still inadequate (van der Berg, 2008). Despite interventions to bring about transformation in schools, inequities still exist resulting in different educational outcomes (Bloch, 2009). Youth at these schools are poorly equipped to deal with the many challenges that they face in the community. The schools in the study area reflect the socio-economic and societal conditions outlined above, as well as the particular circumstances relating to the study schools themselves.

All public schools in SA are categorised into five groups (or quintiles) according to the economic status of its population, largely for the purpose of allocating financial resources. Quintile 1 is the “poorest” group of schools, while Quintile 5 is the “least poor”. Quintile 1 to 3 schools are no-fees-paying schools. These poverty rankings are determined nationally, according to the poverty of the community around the school as well as certain infrastructural factors. However, the allocation of this system does not always work as parents of children in fee-paying schools in this study often could not afford the fees. All three schools in the study are classified as Quintile 4, or fee-paying, schools. From my interviews with the principals and teachers, it is clear that not all the students pay their fees because some genuinely cannot afford it. The perception also exists that others can afford it, but do not prioritise school fees.

The three schools were similar in certain aspects but also differed in others, which meant that the context within which HPS was implemented differed from school to school despite them being in the same geographical area. The profiles of the schools are presented at the beginning of each case, which is described individually in the Findings chapters.

1.7 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Although health promotion in schools has been in existence since the 1980s (Samdal & Rowling, 2011), there has been insufficient examination of the *process of implementing* HPS and the factors that influence this process. There is, however, a proliferation of literature on the value and effectiveness of the HPS approach, especially at the level of influencing the individual (student and teacher) and of the success of health promotion programmes that address specific health problems in schools, as indicated earlier. This is exemplified in three systematic literature reviews, which found that many studies aimed to identify whether the HPS interventions worked or not, without looking to see what was actually involved in the process of implementation: these were also mainly quantitative studies (Deschesnes, Martin, & Hill, 2003; Mūkoma & Flisher, 2004; Steward-Brown, 2006). Furthermore, while there is some discussion in the literature (Aldinger et al., 2008; Keshavarz, Nutbeam, & Rowling, 2010; Rowling & Jeffreys, 2006) about the challenges and facilitators of implementing HPS, and the recognition that they are complex systems (Keshavarz et al, 2010), there is insufficient evidence that untangles the complexities of

these influencing factors. This suggests that there is insufficient documented evidence about the positive opportunities, or enablers that could be built on, or the challenges that need to be adequately addressed. In other words, HPS initiatives continue to struggle without sufficiently learning from the lessons of previous experience.

Furthermore, there are few international studies on HPS that have focused specifically on *secondary* schools (Lowe, Balanda, Stanton, & Gillespie, 1999; Lynagh, Knight, Schofield, & Paras, 1999; Moon et al., 1999). Yet many problems faced by secondary schools are very different from those that affect primary schools, and need to be addressed in a different manner (Lynagh et al., 1999).

1.8 PURPOSE OF STUDY

Fixen, Naoom, Blase, Friedman, & Wallace (2005, p. 5) define implementation as “a specified set of activities designed to put into practice an activity or program of known dimensions”. As opposed to an event, it can therefore be seen as a process with organisational change taking place (Bertram, Blase, & Fixsen, 2013). Similarly Greenhalgh, Robert, Macfarlane, Bate, & Kyriakidou (2004, p. 582) describe implementation as “the active and planned effort to mainstream a new intervention within a practice organization” and emphasise the focus on process instead of outcomes, which fits well with the notion of HPS, conceptualised as a process and an approach rather than an event. Weiner, Lewis, & Linnan (2009), writing of implementation generally, recommend further research that will inform the implementation of complex innovations. Discussing organisational settings, Dooris & Barry (2013, p.17) suggest that “... implementation research enhances our ability to map out the critical connections between the local context, intervention activities and the intended and intermediate and long term outcomes”. These authors reinforce the importance of examining the *process* of an innovation like HPS.

According to Samdal & Rowling (2011), research on implementation may be an important initial step in helping to identify the key implementation components for HPS, in order to effect good practice. The need for research evidence on the HPS *implementation process* is especially needed from developing countries. Specifically, to date, there is a lack of evidence of the

implementation of HPS in SA, despite its operation for many years, which is one of the key motivations for this study. In the light of the likelihood that the HPS approach is likely to be advocated in SA into the future, and the dearth of evidence of what elements of implementation drive and challenge success, it was therefore resolved to study the HPS implementation process and the complexities related to it in order to make recommendations specific to secondary schools in SA but also beyond. The particular UWC HPS project that forms the basis of this study was implemented as a pilot project in three secondary schools in a resource-limited setting in Cape Town, SA. The purpose of this study was to explore and understand the factors influencing the HPS implementation process and the complexities related to these factors.

1.9 OUTLINE OF THESIS

Chapter 1 provides the introduction to the thesis. The background to this study is shared to contextualise the focus of this study in the field of HPS, and to inform and familiarise the reader with the realities that schools and the youth in SA face. The situation of HPS in SA follows. A description of the UWC HPS project on which this research is based is then given, followed by an illustration of the study setting. The statement of the problem is then articulated, with its related research purpose.

Chapter 2 gives a review of the literature on the key factors influencing HPS implementation. It has five key areas, focusing on facilitating, as well as challenging factors influencing the implementation of HPS or health promotion innovations in schools. The first key area is related to the whole approach to HPS which is followed by the contextual factors that influence HPS implementation. School leadership and management factors are presented as the third key area, and is followed by participation in HPS. The final key area is on various collaborations for HPS implementation.

Chapter 3 introduces a conceptual framework for this study. An overview is given of the concepts, approaches and frameworks that could be applied in the implementation of HPS in order to develop an analytical framework for this study. The settings approach to health promotion is discussed followed by a description of the implementation components that inform the adapted framework developed to facilitate the analysis for this research.

Chapter 4 provides an overview of the methodologies used in this research, and includes the research aim and objectives. An overview of the qualitative research design and the rationale for the choices made is given next, followed by an explanation of the study population and sample, including the sampling procedure. The data collection methods and tools are described next, followed by an explanation of how the data were analysed. A discussion of the quality of the research follows by expanding on how the rigour of the study was ensured. Finally the ethical considerations are highlighted.

Chapter 5 is a short preliminary chapter providing an introduction to the findings in chapters 6, 7 and 8. It explains the outline of the findings chapters and emphasises the uniqueness of each case. It also includes the key common factors across all three schools.

Chapters 6, 7 and 8 present the findings that emerged from multiple sources and data collection methods used for this research. Each chapter describes an individual case. A detailed description of factors influencing HPS implementation in each school in their particular context is given as a case. The description follows a similar format for each case and is based on the adapted framework.

Chapter 9 integrates the findings of the study and consists of a discussion of the findings. It highlights the five main categories that emerged in the data analysis, namely: external contextual factors influencing HPS implementation; factors influencing integration of HPS as a whole-school approach; factors influencing student participation; the UWC team as external catalyst for change; and perceptions of HPS sustainability. The main issues in the literature in relation to these categories are explored and aspects that concur, deviate from, or contradict previous research and literature, are noted and discussed.

Chapter 10, as the final chapter, consists of a summary of the research, the key findings and conclusions from them, the significance of the study and the recommendations that emerged from the findings. Finally, suggestions for further research are made.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This literature review describes the key factors influencing HPS implementation. It also sets out to highlight the debates around the topic. This chapter has five key areas focusing on facilitating as well as challenging factors influencing the implementation of HPS or health promotion innovations in schools. The first key area is related to the whole-school approach to HPS, which is followed by the contextual factors that influence HPS implementation. Leadership and management factors are presented as the third key area, and are followed by participation in HPS. The final key area is on various collaborations for HPS implementation.

2.2 THE WHOLE-SCHOOL APPROACH FOR IMPLEMENTING HPS

The HPS approach draws on the Ottawa Charter as its framework and includes: developing healthy school policies; creating healthy social and physical environments at school, building individual health skills and action competencies; making community links; and accessing services appropriately and effectively (IUHPE, 2009; World Health Organization, 1998). These action areas indicate that an integrated and coordinated approach needs to be taken to implement HPS. In order to achieve this, the whole-school approach has been promoted. Studies have shown the value of a whole-school approach for addressing the health and well-being of the school community (e.g. Nilsson, 2004; Patton, Bond, Butler & Glover, 2003; Poland, Krupa & McCall, 2009; Wyn, Cahill, Holdsworth, Rowling & Carson, 2000) including the implementation of HPS (Deschesnes et al., 2003; Samdal & Rowling, 2011; 2007; World Health Organization, 1999; World Health Organization, 2007b). According to Clarke, O'Sullivan and Barry (2010, p. 275): "The many factors which affect programme implementation are whole-school practices whose particular combinations create a unique school culture within which programme implementation occurs". Weare and Markham (2005) claim that the whole-school approach is synergistic with the HPS approach because it regards health as a holistic concept and aspires to the comprehensive HPS principles. Similarly, Nilsson (2004, p. 74) concludes that: "When focusing on participation and democracy, health promotion work and school

development becomes allied with one another ...”, even though they come from different paradigms.

It has been recognised that the school system is complex, with hierarchical multi-components including, but not limited to, the school structure, ethos and climate of the school, curriculum, dynamic relationships of teachers, students, parents, the community, district officials and other agencies (Gregory et al., 2007; Inchley et al., 2000; Keshavarz et al., 2010; Waters, Cross & Runions, 2009; Weare & Markham, 2005). From a systems thinking perspective, a whole-school approach takes a multi-level approach, which involves all the sub-systems in the school system (Donald, Lazarus, & Lolwana, 2002). HPS, as whole-school approach, places great emphasis on creating an environment that is health promoting for all participants and, at the same time, sees to the needs of individuals in the school community (Wyn et al., 2000). This approach promotes the combination of top-down strategies from leadership and management, such as policies, and bottom-up strategies, where those targeted for the intervention actively participate in the process (Larsen & Samdal, 2008; Nilsson, 2004).

However, despite the rhetoric of employing the whole-school approach for HPS, several studies have found it challenging to achieve (Adamowitsch, Gugglberger & Dür, 2014; Kremser, 2011; Wyllie, Postlethwaite and Casey, 2000). These findings are supported by Gard and Wright (2014, p. 113) who state that “There are clear signs around the world that school-based public health interventions are heading in a more instrumental, individualistic and even punitive direction”. This statement is supported by earlier findings on HPS such as the systematic review of Lister- Sharpe, Chapman, Steward-Brown, et al. (1999), the narrative synthesis of Rowling and Jeffreys (2006) and the very recent findings of Moynihan, Jourdan, & Mannix McNamara (2016) who claim that success was only shown in some discrete areas in schools in Ireland, such as healthy eating, but coherent whole school implementation of HPS was not very evident. A common trend is that “traditional topic-based approaches” (Adamowitsch et al., 2014, p. 13) are implemented but the HPS approach is not integrated into the functions and culture of the school, and therefore widespread transformation in the school does not often occur (Kremser, 2011; Steward-Brown, 2006). Woodall, Warwick-Booth, & Cross (2012) contend that concept of empowerment in health promotion has been “diluted” because of the shift of focus in health

promotion from the population level to the individual level encouraging a reductionist approach rather than endeavouring to focus on broader social and structural changes. This focus on the individual has led to personal empowerment (although also important) rather than empowerment at the community level. It has been argued that integration can be better achieved if HPS is not implemented as discrete activities but is rather perceived as being a core element of the school, in keeping with a whole-school approach and considered for its added value for learning and development (Aggleton et al., 2000; Inchley et al., 2007).

2.2.1 Integration of HPS as a whole-school approach

The importance of aligning the HPS approach to the broader mission of schools with their educational and social outcomes and ongoing school improvement has been emphasised for HPS integration to occur (Hoyle, Bartee & Allensworth, 2010). This will ensure that the innovation is not regarded as an add-on but rather as another way of doing what they are already meant to be doing (Hoyle et al., 2010). Richardson (2007) highlights the fact that, no matter how well a plan is conceived by the health sector, if it does not align with the goals of the education sector, it will be a challenge to implement it in schools. However, one of the main challenges that has been identified by many studies for integrating HPS, is the competing academic priorities for schools, with many regarding HPS as an “add-on” to their already full academic schedules, and the continuous changes demanded by the education authorities (Aggleton et al., 2000; Aldinger et al., 2008; Deschesnes, Couturier, Laberge & Campeau, 2010; Inchley et al., 2007; Rissel & Rowling, 2000).

For example, Clarke et al. (2010) found that finding the space, time and resources to support HPS implementation in an already overburdened timetable was difficult. Teachers are often in survival mode at school because of the academic demands on them, thus impacting on the time that schools can devote to HPS implementation. Gugglberger (2011) found that teachers did not have time to plan for HPS, and therefore preferred to be told what to do so that they could just implement actions, contradictory to the HPS approach of participatory and collaborative working. In addition, teachers’ deferral to external stakeholders because of their expertise can be seen as a way of relieving the teachers of some their duties (Rowling, 1996). However, according

to (Rowling & Jeffreys, 2000), this reliance on external stakeholders suggests that there might not be ownership at school level, which is important for integration and sustainability.

Several other challenging factors have been identified for integrating HPS, and include lack of co-ordination, collaboration and commitment of different partners and structures, limited leadership and management support, lack of understanding, and lack of political will (Adamowitsch et al., 2014). Some of these factors will be discussed further in subsequent sections in this chapter. One key area of focus is the contextual factors which have been found to have a significant influence on the implementation and integration of HPS.

2.3 CONTEXTUAL FACTORS INFLUENCING IMPLEMENTATION

The contextual factors that need to be considered for HPS implementation are described to be not only at the school level, but also at the external community, and societal factors in keeping with the socio-ecological model (Hoyle, Bartee & Allensworth, 2010; Lohrmann, 2010). This section describes the school context, followed by the community context.

2.3.1 School context influencing change processes in schools

It has been well documented that the school context plays an essential role in the implementation of HPS and health promotion programmes in schools, especially if a whole-school approach is being considered (Clarke et al., 2010; Deschesnes, Trudeau, & Kébé, 2010; Lochman, 2003; Ringeisen, Henderson & Hoagwood, 2003). Clarke et al. (2010, p. 288) highlight the many different aspects of the school context:

The whole school context includes the school's environment and ethos, organisation, management structures, relationships with parents and the wider community, as well as the taught curriculum, and pedagogic practice.

Some literature refers to school climate which encompasses elements including: relationships amongst the different school community members; school physical environment; organisational leadership, structures and values; informal organisation of the school and characteristics of its

members (Fan, Williams, & Corkin, 2011; Freiberg, 1998; Hoy, 1990), all of which are similar to the school context⁷ description of Clarke et al. (2010) above. Gregory et al. (2007) claim that schools with a positive school climate may be better equipped to adopt new innovations. They, however, argue that paradoxically, schools which have climates that are not well-functioning, are most in need of these interventions. Culture, which is another aspect of school context, is reflected in the norms, the core values, shared values and basic assumptions that give the school “a sense of identity and mission” (Hoy, 1990, p. 158).

Lochman (2003) posits that the social environment of a school organisation and the relationships between its members are key characteristics that have to be taken into account for effective implementation. Some of the characteristics include leadership style, autonomy of individuals, communication among individuals in the school and leaders. What is evident is that these characteristics occur at the different levels of the school systems. Lochman (2003) recommends that, at the personal level, what needs to be considered is the extent to which there is personal development, and how this is linked to the goals of the school. At the interpersonal level, what is important is the extent of involvement of the school community, the support that they give one another and the collegiality and openness experienced. At the organisational level, positive leadership and management is key for change including shared authority, policies, structures and rules (Lochman, 2003). Consistent with and adding to Lochman (2003), Lucarelli et al. (2014) identified key characteristics of a healthy school climate in their study on the barriers and facilitators to healthy eating in low-income schools in Michigan middle schools. The characteristics included: the presence of school health champions; a high degree of support from administration and staff; the presence of health-related policies and awareness and enforcement of them, and an active school health team. These factors were mainly related to the organisational and interpersonal levels, implying a whole-school approach. They found that the schools which lacked some of these characteristics were the schools where the fewest changes were made.

⁷ I have used the term *school context* in my thesis, although when referring to the literature, I used *school climate* when it was denoted as such in the literature.

In a study conducted in rural Tanzania the difficulties experienced at school level in implementation of a participatory health education programme included structural as well as socio-economic factors. These were related to limited teachers' skills; lack of adequate in-service training; lack of activities and school materials; too many pupils in the classroom; an overloaded curriculum; and poor working conditions for teachers (Mwanga, Jensen, Magnussen & Aagaard-Hansen, 2008). One interesting finding was the concern that the authority of the teachers would be undermined if students became empowered, as students acted as change agents in this programme, highlighting cultural issues at play where adults are meant to be in power and control.

Seeing that schools differ in their contexts, they will need interventions suited to their particular context in order to implement HPS successfully and, therefore, researchers have recommended that a tailored approach suited to specific schools should be adopted (Hopkins, Harris, & Jackson, 1997; Whitelaw et al., 2001; Yoshimura et al., 2009)

Apart from the school context, the external community context has also been found to be an influencing factor for HPS implementation.

2.3.2 Community context impacting on effective HPS implementation

In this section, the socio-economic and social context, and parental involvement is discussed.

2.3.2.1 Socio-economic and social context

Various community factors can influence the implementation of HPS and these factors can impact on student behaviour, which in turn can impact on their behaviour in the school. Some are related to socio-economic factors, which can impact on community involvement in schools, while others are related to cultural norms and beliefs, and still others are related to a lack of understanding of health promotion in general.

In a qualitative case study conducted in Ireland to understand the contextual factors influencing the implementation of a comprehensive emotional well-being programme in disadvantaged school settings, Clarke et al. (2010) highlight the importance of socio-economic and cultural influences of the local communities for effective implementation of the programme. They found

that the lack of parental and community involvement in the programme was influenced by lack of social cohesion due to the high percentage of single parents, ethnic minority families, unemployment and low levels of education (Clarke et al., 2010). Furthermore, O'Brien Caughy et al. (2012) found that neighbourhood social capital and the physical environment were associated with students' aggressive behaviour and social competence. They showed that it was a combination of risk factors (high-risk neighbourhood, high-risk peers and low parental monitoring) that put adolescents at high risk of negative behaviour. On the other hand, it was found that, where the school was in a close-knit community, there was active parental involvement in many aspects of the school's life, despite the challenging socio-economic conditions, which was attributed to family cohesion and nurturing, a positive factor for the social competence of the students (Clarke et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2014).

2.3.2.2 Parental and community involvement in schools

Although partnerships with the community are one of the action areas of HPS, the reality of how to make this happen has been found to be a major challenge (Deschesnes et al., 2003). Parental involvement in HPS has been found to be difficult over a period of time in literature from several countries such as Australia (Marshall et al., 2000; Senior, 2012; St Leger, 1998), Scotland (Inchley et al., 2007), China (Aldinger et al., 2008), New Zealand (Cushman, 2008), Greece (Soulatou & Duncan, 2009) and Ireland (Clarke et al., 2010), amongst others. However, although identifying the problem of non-involvement of parents, not many studies have described the reasons behind parental non-involvement.

Of the studies that have described the reasons for non-involvement, parents' lack of understanding of the HPS approach has been attributed to parental non-involvement. For example, a concern was raised by parents in a qualitative study in China that health promotion activities would detract the students from their academic work, which was a reflection of their lack of understanding of HPS (Aldinger et al., 2008). This does not necessarily mean they do not care, but rather that schools needed to find better ways of communicating with parents to understand their priorities, because schools' and the communities' views might not be the same (Clarke et al., 2010; Cushman, 2008). Clarke et al. (2010) recommend that, in order to do so,

schools need to devote more energy to forming links with the community and other supporting structures that could facilitate implementation, other than teacher and parent meetings.

On the other hand, the way that schools perceive community involvement gives another perspective to this issue. It has been found that teachers regard the community only as a means of resources, rather than actively collaborating in HPS implementation (Clarke et al., 2010; Cushman, 2008; Marshall et al., 2000; St Leger, 1998). Schools in Australia successfully drew on health services in the community for medical emergencies, but there was little evidence of other productive partnerships with the community (Marshall et al., 2000), which goes against the rhetoric of what community involvement is meant to be in HPS. However, the studies in this literature review on HPS are mainly from developed countries so it is not certain whether the same level of community involvement in HPS would be found in developing countries.

In summary, the various school and community contextual factors described in this section highlight the complex web of contextual factors that can impact on the effectiveness of HPS implementation. The following sections will go into more detail of some of the factors influencing implementation of HPS, as identified in the previous sections.

2.4 LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT IN SCHOOLS

Effective school leadership and management have been recognised as essential requirements for quality education and school development (Bush, 2007). The commitment of leaders for change processes in the school is therefore found to be essential. This section firstly discusses some contextual factors that can influence leadership and management in schools. This is followed by descriptions of the roles of three potential leaders in the schools that are necessary for change processes to happen in schools: the principal, the vice principal (VP), and the champion of an innovation.

2.4.1 Contextual influences on leadership and management

Leadership style has been found to be influenced by the broader educational context (Bush, 2007). Wright (2009) claims that principals work within an ecosystem that includes the school, community and district, and therefore contextual factors at the different levels will influence

their practice. One of these factors is the demands of the Department of Education (DoE). Wright (2009, p. 261) reflected on the conflict she faced as a principal with the education district's emphasis on student academic output, to the exclusion of what she perceived as her leadership role of "instilling a sense of community and fostering engaged citizenry of the students and staff". She felt that, instead, she was accountable for making decisions that met external expectations for the school. Wright (2009) argues that a principal's practice should be guided by reflection on their experiences rather than by policy, which has often not been developed with principals and those on whom the policy will have an influence. Similarly, Samdal and Rowling (2011) argue that if a school is compelled to implement initiatives, such as HPS, by higher authorities external to the school itself, then it likely will not be that effective because there might be no sense of ownership.

The educational context is an important factor in the way leadership and management is practiced in schools in SA, because of its apartheid history. According to Christie (2010) and as noted earlier, schools in SA are still unequal in terms of resources and academic outcomes and therefore he contends that context has a strong influence on the nature of the principal's practice. Christie (2010) argues that if the reality of the experiences of principals in their local context is not considered, the regulations and policies of the DoE will create unrealistic expectations. These policies seem to widen the inequalities as they are more geared towards schools that are already well functioning (Christie, 2010). Therefore, Bush (2007) suggests that what is needed are educational leadership models that could address such challenges, taking the different school contexts into account.

Bush (2007) examined different models of educational leadership and focused on those that were felt to be the most relevant to the South African educational context. The author concluded that, because SA has such a diverse education system, a universal approach to school leadership and management will not work. While acknowledging that each model had some gaps, he identified several leadership models that could be relevant for the SA context but would depend on the local context. For example, one model that the author identified as possibly being relevant for this study was Managerial Leadership. In this model, the leader's main focus is on managing the operational aspects of the organisation. However, in keeping with Wright's (2009) reflections

referred to earlier, Bush (2007) points out that leadership vision is missing in this model and maintains that it is suited to a prescriptive hierarchical system where the leader is bound to externally imposed changes within such a “bureaucratic system” (Bush, 2007, p. 395). The author argues that, within such a model, principals and teachers will not feel ownership and therefore change might not happen or will be difficult to implement. On the other hand, Contingent Leadership “Provides an alternate approach, recognising the diverse nature of school contexts and the advantages of adapting leadership styles to the particular situation, rather than adopting a “one size fits all” stance” (Bush, 2007, p. 402). This means that the principals’ leadership styles will be influenced by their own school contexts, which suit the SA situation and its diversity of schools better – from those that are comparable to schools in any developed country, to those that are so poor that they do not even have basic amenities such water and sanitation.

2.4.2 Role of school leaders in change processes

In Fullan's (2001, p. 138) words: “The principal is the gatekeeper of change” as the principal has power, influence and control in the school (Viig, Fosse, Samdal & Wold, 2012; Wright, 2009). The principal is in a strategic position to bring about change through the structures and policies of the school (Viig et al., 2012; Wright, 2009). With the authority the principals have, they can gain teachers’ commitment and cooperation, and enable them through the provision of resources and training, and making time for teachers to engage in the process of change to ensure sustainability (Wright, 2009). For example, in their qualitative study on the perception of four school principals’ role in implementing and sustaining a social skills development programme in Norway, Larsen and Samdal (2008) found that the principal played a significant role in the process. The researchers highlighted the importance of the principal maintaining a focus on the implementation process throughout in order to keep the momentum going. This was achieved through the principal’s visionary leadership and management, which gave the teachers direction in implementing the programme and aligning it with school processes, thereby ensuring integration and sustainability.

According to Larsen and Samdal (2008), the principal has an essential leadership and management role to play in the relationship of the different factors that influence implementation and sustainability of school health programmes. Similarly, Viig et al. (2012) maintain that, where the principal or VP champions the implementation of HPS, it gives HPS status, even if they were not involved at the operational level. This role of senior management was found to be important for “anchoring” HPS when the bottom-up/top-down approach, which was a combination of the principal’s role as leader being strategic and the teachers’ role as being operational (Larsen & Samdal, 2008). Interestingly, a top-down approach only was recommended by the participants in a qualitative study of programme leaders of HPSs in Norway (Viig et al., 2012). They preferred that the principals took the leadership role in the programme because of the authority they had. Notably, the study did not indicate whether the target audience had any role in implementation. However, the researchers highlighted the paradox that existed between the top-down approach that was recommended in the study and the bottom-up approach that is advocated for in HPS promotion (Viig et al., 2012; Wright, 2009). It was found that the organisational structures in which health promotion was implemented were “... designed in a way that seemed at odds with the principles of empowerment” (Berry et al., 2014, p. 41). In schools, this would imply that the hierarchical nature of the education system in SA and elsewhere is in conflict with the empowerment principle of HPS, and most likely making HPS as a whole school approach difficult to implement.

The negative implications of a top-down approach only were demonstrated in a study by Kremser (2011) to better understand organisational influences on the implementation of school health promotion in a primary school in Vienna. The principal regarded school-wide health promotion activities as “too much work”, and therefore personally decided on the two activities to be implemented at school level, and which were organised by external stakeholders. The consequence of this decision was that these activities became the responsibility of individual teachers who worked independently of the rest of the school. This led to low levels of trust and support, and a lack of cooperation from other staff, posing a challenge for implementation and integration as a whole- school approach (Kremser, 2011).

The level of principal commitment can also influence the way HPS is implemented. In a study by Larsen and Samdal (2008), the principals' different levels of commitment resulted in implementation taking place in varied ways. Some principals made the programme compulsory, while others asked teachers to volunteer. The school that was the most successful in implementing and sustaining the programme had a combination of: communicating a vision; strong commitment; sustained focus and feedback from the principal; formal policies; and committed collaborative teachers. The programme was a top-down and bottom-up whole-school strategy, and therefore became an integral part of the functioning of the school (Larsen & Samdal, 2008). Similarly, Tjomsland, Larsen, Viig, & Wold (2009) found that if HPS was institutionalised effectively by the school, then even if there was a change in the principal, HPS would still be sustainable because the shared commitment and vision for HPS would have been built into the school processes already. On the other hand, Viig et al. (2012) found in their study that where there was lack of authority, ownership and reinforcement from the principals, it was also difficult to implement and integrate HPS. This was demonstrated when there was a change in principal at one of the schools in their study, where despite the teachers' commitment, the lack of interest and leadership of the new principal made the teachers feel powerless, which was a setback for HPS implementation.

Furthermore, according to Masitsa (2005), leadership style influences how the principal manages and leads the school. In a study on the principal's role in restoring a learning culture in township secondary schools in Free State, SA, the participants recommended that the principal's strategies should include a participatory management style making use of the school management teams for sharing and delegating responsibilities (Masitsa, 2005). Masitsa (2005, p. 212) claims that "Delegation is not passing the buck" but is rather empowering others to take responsibility, which in turn will boost their morale, giving them more confidence in their abilities.

A combination of management and leadership are important strategies for the principal to consider in any change processes in the school. Fullan (1998) claims that it is important for school leadership to not only focus on restructuring in terms of issues such as timetabling and organisation (management strategies) but also to "reculture" for change (leadership strategies). In the words of Fullan (1998, p. 4): "Reculturing involves changing the norms, values, incentives,

skills and relationships in the organization to foster a different way of working together”, thereby changing the culture of the school.

According to Hawe and Ghali's (2008) social network analysis to map the social relationships of staff and teachers at school, the principal and VP would be ideal as champions for an innovation because of their power, influence and links with other people. However, these authors maintain it is possible that an individual outside of formal leadership and management, who has connections in the school and/or in the community, can be more appropriate as a champion because of the social relations they have, as is discussed in the following section.

2.4.3 Role of champion

Several studies have indicated that voluntary or informal champions have emerged as leaders and played an important role in the implementation of innovations (Damschroder, Banaszak-Holl, Kowalski, Forman, Saint & Krein, 2009; Greenhalgh et al., 2004; Helfrich, Weiner, McKinney, & Minasian, 2007; Howell & Shea, 2001). A champion can be defined as “a charismatic individual who throws his or her weight behind an innovation, thus overcoming indifference and resistance that the new idea may provoke in an organization” (Rogers, 2003, cited in Lohrmann, 2010, p. 7). Some key characteristics of a champion have been highlighted including: believing that an innovation has potential; taking ownership, showing commitment and actively promoting the innovation; and garnering support from within and outside the organisation (Markham & Aiman-Smith, 2001).

Champions are often regarded as transformational leaders, which is about vision, creating excitement, passion and commitment and, in this way, motivating people involved with an innovation (Markham & Aiman-Smith, 2001; Mumford, Scott, Gaddis, & Strange, 2002). By believing in the innovation, the champion can advocate for the innovation and create a supportive climate for ideas to be generated. One important factor for a champion to consider is the degree of autonomy that is granted to those involved in the innovation. Mumford et al. (2002) suggest that the champion should allow autonomy and freedom to those working on the innovation, but at the same time should not detract from the main aim of the innovation itself.

Another important role of champions is that they access resources through the various relationships that they have from within and outside the organisation (Howell & Shea, 2001; Markham & Aiman-Smith, 2001; Mumford et al., 2002). In fact, Markham and Aiman-Smith (2001, p. 46) argue that champions use their relationships with others to garner support rather than use “persuasive techniques” to do so. On the other hand, Mumford et al. (2002) contend that persuasion tactics are sometimes necessary in the requisition of resources or to “sell” an innovation. Persuasion will therefore depend on its purpose – if it is targeted at people to become involved in the innovation then it might not be that effective but, if targeted at higher levels such as at leadership and management to obtain resources, then it might be more effective. One way to “sell” the idea is to frame it in such a way that it is seen as an opportunity for the organisation (Howell & Shea, 2001).

Markham and Aiman-Smith (2001) maintain that innovations are socio-political processes. The leadership and management of an organisation therefore have to understand what motivates the champion in order to manage the champion, as the champion often takes risks that go against the organisation's norms. It will be the manager's responsibility to see that the goal of the champion with regard to the innovation is in alignment with the overall goal and mission of the organisation (Markham & Aiman-Smith, 2001). In other words, champions need direction and discipline from managers, but managers need to understand what drives champions and what is expected from them. It has been found that one important role that the manager can play in relation to champions is support for their professional development, including building relationships with others in the field to enhance their work (Deschesnes, Drouin, Tessier, & Couturier, 2014; Markham & Aiman-Smith, 2001). Building relationships with others will ensure access to information and resources (Markham & Aiman-Smith, 2001; Mumford et al., 2002).

Although most of the literature on champions is from the corporate world, there has been some focus on champions in the school health literature. For example, consistent with corporate literature, champions have been acknowledged as key to the implementation and institutionalisation of school health programmes and can be external or internal agents to the school district (Lohrmann, 2010). In keeping with transformational leadership, McIsaac, Read,

Veugelers and Kirk (2013) contend that school champions' dedication seems to be driven by a commitment and passion for the health and well-being of their students.

The importance of the role of the school champion has been illustrated in a study by Deschesnes, et al. (2014). Their qualitative multiple case study was set in three schools in disadvantaged areas in Quebec, Canada, and looked at the schools' capacities to implement HPS into their operations. The study found that at one of the schools the presence of a champion teacher over a period of time partially made up for the principal's weak leadership, and made it possible for the school team to integrate HPS into their teaching. However, it was still not possible to bring about the integration of the HPS into the operations of the school as a whole (Deschesnes et al., 2014). For better HPS integration, Inchley et al. (2007) and McIsaac et al. (2013) argue that it is essential to support champions with sufficient time and resources in order to overcome challenges that they may encounter, such as indifference or resistance to HPS.

Even though most of the champion literature refers to the champion role as being informal or emergent from the innovation process, Weiner, Haynes-Maslow, Kahwati, Kinsinger, & Campbell (2012) found that champions who were formally appointed also promoted implementation due to their formal organisational roles. In fact, these authors raised a concern that, if informal champions emerge, then it means that the organisation's policies and practices are not aligned to those of the innovation – which they see as a dilemma.

In conclusion, leadership and management play an essential role in the implementation of any change processes in schools including HPS. Larsen and Samdal (2008) emphasise that the leadership and management of a school can influence teacher commitment, principal support, formalisation into policy, and the allocation of sufficient resources and training, all of which are important individual and organisational factors for successful HPS implementation. However, they argue:

... that the mere presence of these factors is insufficient for success: our findings show that many – and in some cases all – of these factors were present in the four schools we studied. It was the ways in which these factors interplayed and were mediated through principals' employment of leadership and management strategies that provided us

with an understanding of how to succeed in implementation and sustainability. (Larsen & Samdal, 2008, p. 199)

One of the key roles of leadership and management in HPS implementation is to encourage and support the participation of the various actors in the process which is described in the following section.

2.5 PARTICIPATION IN HPS

Building on the democratic principles of the HPS approach, Simovska (2004, p. 164) characterised participation as: “a transformative process focused on making a difference, as opposed to the status quo”. This section will discuss teacher and student participation in the process of HPS implementation, as these were two of the main categories of actors who participated in the implementation of HPS in this study.

2.5.1 Teacher participation

In keeping with the settings approach, as alluded to earlier, ideally all school members are meant to participate in the HPS approach at all stages in order to ensure ownership. To this end, teacher participation has been recognised as a prerequisite for HPS, which is regarded as a key aspect of a whole-school approach (Mohammadi et al., 2010; Viig, Tjomsland & Wold, 2010). This subsection will discuss teacher participation with regard to their readiness for change, professional development, and challenges faced in their roles in HPS implementation.

2.5.1.1 Teachers' readiness for change

Contextual factors have been identified as influencing teachers' readiness to participate in HPS. Clarke, O'Sullivan and Barry (2010) suggest that teachers who thought of the school as having a negative environment might think that a new intervention is burdensome. Likewise, Lochman (2003) and St Leger and Nutbeam (2000) found that teachers were overwhelmed and stressed by the many innovations and changes that they had to contend with, which posed a challenge for their readiness for change in HPS implementation. St Leger and Nutbeam (2000) highlighted their concern for teachers in school development processes, when they recommended that less emphasis should be placed on specific health outcomes and more on whole-school development

that includes teacher well-being and on-going school improvement when implementing HPS. In this way, the burden on specific teachers might be addressed, because responsibility for HPS would be shared amongst all the staff in the school, and will likely increase their readiness for change (Inchley et al., 2007). However, if teachers were cynical about change, then their readiness for change will most likely be low, even if the school climate is positive (Viig et al., 2010). This highlights the influence that teachers' attitudes can have on their readiness for change for HPS implementation.

Teachers' readiness for change for HPS was also found to be influenced by their acceptability of an innovation, them acknowledging the need for it (Clarke et al., 2010) and them seeing the benefits, such as positive students behaviour and quality relationships with parents (Jourdan, Stirling, Mannix McNamara & Pommier, 2011). In addition, it was found that teachers' perceptions of the compatibility of HPS with the schools' missions, their own roles and interests, and also the coherence with what they were already doing, facilitated their readiness for change (Aggleton et al., 2000; Jourdan et al., 2011; Viig et al., 2010).

As previously described in section 2.4.2 in this chapter, support from leadership and management, and especially the principal, was another factor found to influence teachers' readiness for change (Viig et al., 2012; Wright, 2009). This is an indication of the essential role that leadership and management can play in teachers' readiness for change. The professional development of teachers is one such support mechanism.

2.5.1.2 Professional development of teachers

The need for the professional development of teachers has been emphasised by researchers who identified the lack of qualified staff for health promotion, especially teachers, as a challenge to HPS implementation (Aldinger et al., 2008; Bruce, Klein & Keleher, 2012). Lochman (2003) argues that the level of professional training of teachers needs to be considered if an innovation is introduced into the school, as it might influence their involvement, and therefore recommends that training is essential to enable teachers to implement such innovations. Similarly, according to St. Leger (2004, p. 407), "HPS require teachers to embrace school wide actions and community and health sector partnerships. Designing and implementing these actions is not easy

for teachers whose modus operandi is working with young people in a classroom”. This statement is supported by Hoyle et al. (2010, p. 165) who highlight that skills development for those responsible for school health is key to empower them to be catalysts for change at a “school, family, institutional, community, and policy levels”.

However, contrary to many studies that emphasised the importance of teacher training (e.g. Jourdan, Samdal, Diagne & Carvalho, 2008; Pommier, Guével & Jourdan, 2011), Markham and Aveyard (2003) found that there was no need for separate health education classes or teachers having health promotion roles, because health should be a cross-curricular theme. This suggests that teachers should have the ability to integrate health into the curriculum without needing additional training. Similarly, the findings in a study by Viig et al. (2012) in schools that were part of the Norwegian network of HPS, showed that in-service training for teachers was not that essential. They claimed that, because the school was already engaged in activities that they regarded as HPS, extra resources such as training, were not needed. However, even though the teachers might have the skills to do health education as part of their curriculum, these authors only focused on including HPS into the curriculum and did not consider other skills beyond those related to the curriculum that the teachers needed for HPS implementation, such as working at the broader level of the school as indicated by Hoyle et al. (2010).

Other researchers have recommended that teachers’ skills be developed with regard to participatory and collaborative working, especially with their colleagues and students, as empowerment and participation of all role players is embedded in the democratic principles of HPS (Cargo et al., 2003; Nilsson, 2004). However, the role of the teacher in student participation and empowerment can be demanding, and therefore their capacity needs to be built to work in such a participatory manner (Jensen & Simovska, 2005). To this end, Jourdan et al. (2011, p. 308) suggest that “... development of training that integrates issues linked to the development of partnerships, the development of networking skills and sharing of experiences could help teachers in developing more integrated implementation”, which means that teacher professional development goes beyond curriculum teaching to a more collaborative and participatory way of working. On the other hand, even though Viig et al. (2012) found that in-service training was not essential, professional learning through networking, a culture of collaboration and sharing

experiences with other teachers implementing HPS was valuable for implementation, which was made possible through the support of the principal. The principal therefore is seen to have a key role in the professional development of teachers, such as allowing time for the professional development of teachers (Samdal & Rowling, 2011).

2.5.1.3 Challenges to teachers' roles in implementation of HPS

Apart from the challenges indicated earlier with regard to teachers' readiness for change, teachers also faced other challenges with their roles in implementing HPS. Jourdan et al. (2008) caution that, even though schools may participate in a health promotion programme, not all teachers will engage fully with it, or even at all, because of reasons such as lack of commitment, or the programme not fitting with their values or practices, as indicated earlier. Although teachers have been found to engage in a variety of roles in the implementation of HPS, it was found that they did so to varying degrees depending on how comfortable they felt with these roles which influenced their level of participation and creating tension in their roles. For instance, Cargo, Salsberg, Delormier, Desrosiers and Macaulay's (2006) qualitative study looked at teachers' roles in creating an enabling environment for the implementation of a diabetes prevention programme and policy in schools. They found that the teachers were involved in a range of roles that included: health education; being a role model; enforcing the school nutrition policy; and encouraging and motivating for a healthy lifestyle. However, some teachers experienced "the dilemma of moderation versus stringency" (Cargo et al., 2006, p. 88) in enforcing the policy. For example, when enforcing zero tolerance for unhealthy foods, they felt like "police officers" having to take away unhealthy food from students. The authors therefore highlighted the importance of teachers' involvement in school policy development, especially if they were to enforce it, to see that the policy would be realistic and acceptable for them to enforce (Cargo et al., 2006).

Another dilemma found to face teachers was ensuring the genuine participation of students (Simovska, 2004, 2007). In Simovska's 2007 study, teachers found it difficult to balance giving the students leeway for genuine participation and acting as experienced partners to students. There was a tension between "leading and guiding" (Simovska, 2007, p. 874), i.e. the didactic

(passive) way that they are used to teaching and the participatory (flexible) way student learning can take place through genuine participation (Cargo, 2003). (Teacher/student relationships are further described in section 2.5.2.4 in this chapter). Student participation is discussed in the next section.

2.5.2 Student participation in HPS

According to the democratic principles of HPS, student participation is a necessary attribute (Barnekow et al., 2006; IUHPE, 2009) for HPS implementation. Studies have shown that genuine student participation was not necessarily only rhetoric but demonstrated active involvement in their own development and that of the school as an organisation. It was found that in many HPSs, students were given the opportunity and support to not only have a voice, but their capacity was built to act upon it (Harrist, 2012; Kostenius, 2013; Simovska, 2012; Simovska, 2007). Harrist (2012, p. 2) defines youth voice as “a young person’s ability to conceive ideas and effectively express views through meaningful dialogue ... entails the degree to which youths feel their views are heard and respected by others, particularly adults.”

2.5.2.1 Effects of student participation

Although early HPS literature was scant on student participation, more recent studies including systematic reviews have looked at the effectiveness of student participation in school health promotion or HPS where it has been practiced (e.g. de Róiste, Kelly, Molcho, Gavin, & Gabhainn, 2012; Griebler, Rojatz, Simovska & Forster, 2014). In a review of 26 studies, Griebler et al. (2014) found that there were many positive effects of student participation in school health promotion. Their main findings were classified as personal effects (showing the most evidence) such as motivation and ownership, increase in skills, competencies and knowledge and personal development; effects on the school as an organisation such as better school climate where students’ views were taken seriously; and effects on interactions and relationships such as peer and student /adult relationships. Their work complements the work of others, who, in addition to individual-level benefits, describe interpersonal benefits, because youth also developed group competencies in cooperating and working with others (Chinman & Linney, 1998; Jennings, Parra-medina, Messias, Mcloughlin & Williams, 2006). Similarly, Simovska (2004) found that

genuine student participation resulted in increased motivation, teamwork, commitment and responsibility for improving the school as the students' sense of ownership increased. In fact, ownership was found to be one of the main reasons that students actively participated in the process of HPS (Jensen & Simovska, 2005). These authors claim that if there was no feeling of ownership then there was little likelihood that any real or sustainable change in their actions would happen.

One interesting finding from Simovska's (2012) study was that students found it enjoyable to be involved in something that was not part of the formal curriculum but which also involved real-life experiences. They could relate to these experiences, which is likely to influence their commitment and motivation to participate actively and in collaboration with others (Simovska, 2007).

2.5.2.2 Contextual factors influencing student participation

Contextual factors that have been found to influence student participation include: the nature of the initiative; teacher characteristics; students' and other stakeholders' readiness for change (Jensen & Simovska, 2005); school culture such as appropriate and inclusive structures, supportive relationships, positive norms and values; and opportunities for development of skills and competence (Simovska, 2007, 2012). Simovska (2012) suggests that in HPS contextual factors need to be considered not only for student participation for development and empowerment, but also as a way of challenging the power imbalances that are inherent in schools.

It has been shown that students can act as change agents if they are supported by adults. For instance, if students are involved in decision-making and given opportunities to participate meaningfully in change processes, then they will develop skills and competencies to bring about change. This, in turn, will give them self-confidence and a sense of ownership and empowerment, because they can actualise their ideas (Cargo et al., 2003; Hagquist & Starrin, 1997; Kostenius, 2013; Simovska 2012). In Simovska's (2012) case study the author described how students participating in an intervention brought about health-promoting changes in a school in The Netherlands. A top-down/bottom-up approach was adopted, in which the principal and the

facilitator made the decision that the student council would carry out the activities, because of its existing function of organising social and other activities and participating in decision-making at the school. The students were involved in the decision-making processes and were familiar with the content of the activities and implementation. However, they had guidance and support from adults (mainly the facilitator and the principal), which they did not perceive as controlling but rather as giving them a framework to work within.

Similarly, Kostenius (2013) studied a programme in Sweden where students were empowered to implement a month-long health promotion – activities that they decided on and took full control over in cooperation with their teacher. The study found that the group of students involved in the project were competent to make decisions and carry out the planned activities, and were able to involve their peers in these activities. However, it is questionable whether a month-long programme will have any lasting effect on the students, as empowerment is a long-term process (Wallerstein, 2002).

2.5.2.3 Student behaviour and school context

Several researchers have highlighted the influence that the school environment has on student health behaviour. Jamal et al. (2013) in their systematic review of qualitative studies on the school environment and student health, suggest that the school environment has two systems: the student system (which is student-led with their own structures, at times in opposition to the school structures and processes) and the school institutional system (school structures and processes involving school management, teachers and other staff). If the two systems are separated then it means that there is lack of cooperation, shared norms and understanding between students and the institutional system (Jamal et al., 2013).

A case has been made that the HPS approach, with its values of democracy, participation, and empowerment, has the potential to build school connectedness by creating supportive environments (Jamal et al., 2013; Rowe, Stewart & Patterson, 2007). On the other hand, Haapasalo, Välimaa and Kannas (2012) found that students' negative perceptions of their school led to compromising behaviour, based on their study on Finnish ninth grade students' perceptions of the psychosocial school environment. The authors suggest that improving

students' perceptions of the school might decrease health-compromising behaviours, and highlighted the importance of a positive psycho-social environment of the school in doing so. Similarly, Demanet and Van Houtte (2012) showed that students' perceived teacher support and sense of school belonging was associated with less misbehaviour. However, because it was a quantitative study, they could not determine the causal direction of the relationships and suggested that it could be in both directions.

Markham and Aveyard (2003) describe a way of understanding the school environment and how it influences student behaviour in HPS. One theory that these authors tested was Bernstein's theory of cultural transmission, which views the schools as having two interrelated "orders": instructional, which is about relaying knowledge and skills to influence students; and regulatory, which is about the students' character and behaviour and focuses on "the relaying of values". The aim is for the students to internalise the values and, in this way, feel connected to the school. However, the authors argue that the values of the school and those of the communities from which the students came might not be the same and this might result in students adhering to the community values instead of the school values. If these values are conflicting, then these students might not feel connected to the school and would behave accordingly (Markham & Aveyard, 2003). To increase students' capacity for school connectedness, the focus should be on collective action, especially the active involvement of students in decision-making processes (Markham & Aveyard, 2003).

Students' feeling of school connectedness can help them overcome the challenges that they face, especially during adolescence, and help them to meet their development needs and improve their health outcomes (Markham & Aveyard, 2003; Waters, Cross & Runions, 2009). Waters et al. (2009, p. 522) conclude that school connectedness is not only about having a sense of belonging, but is also a "function of a responsive and developmentally appropriate school ecology", demonstrating the reciprocity of school connectedness. Furthermore, school connectedness can be demonstrated through what Dooris (2004) refers to in the settings approach as "integrated development" (through strategic partnerships), which encourages linkages between people, environments and behaviour. Consistent with Markham and Aveyard (2003), Waters et al. (2009, p. 521) explain that: "connectedness to school is therefore the extent to which students

feel autonomous yet supported, competent in all they attempt and related to adults and peers". They argue that adolescents are at a stage in their development where they are starting to become independent and are making their own decisions. Therefore, a school environment that fosters and encourages the development of self-competence and self-worth is important, and will facilitate school connectedness (Waters et al., 2009). One way that students can feel connected to the school is through peer influence and support.

Peer influence has often been regarded as having a negative impact in adolescents, but more recent research has found that peer support and trust could also have positive influences at school, as peers can serve as resources, thereby creating a sense of belonging and school connectedness (Korkiamäki, 2011). In the school environment, peer influence can have a positive effect by providing emotional support during school transition, making change a good experience (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998; Weller, 2006). On the other hand, peers can have a negative influence, resulting in antisocial behaviour. Antisocial children usually become friendly with other antisocial children, thus perpetuating the problem (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). It has been found that adolescents are vulnerable to peer pressure, particularly at this stage of their development (Allen, Porter, McFarland, Marsh & McElhaney, 2005). Allen et al. (2005) therefore posit that when an individual is popular, which means that he or she is well socialised, then that individual is more likely to conform to the norms of their peer group, which can be delinquent behaviour during adolescence. Similarly, higher peer attachment was found to be associated with higher school misbehavior, but only if there was also lack of teacher support and no sense of belonging to the school (Demant & Van Houtte, 2012). In contrast, in a study by Haapasalo et al. (2012) it was found that students who did not have a good relationship with their peers showed less compromising behaviour. These findings indicate that peer influence can have a positive as well as negative influence on student behaviour and that the psychosocial environment of the school can influence student behaviour in schools.

Teacher/student relationships is another factor in the school context that can influence student participation, as it has been argued that teachers have the most social interactions with students (Haapasalo et al., 2012).

2.5.2.4 Teacher/student relationships

According to Rowe et al. (2007, p. 524), one of the mechanisms to improve students' school connectedness is to have “inclusive processes that involve the diversity of members that make up a community; the active participation of community members and equal power relationships ...”. Teacher/student relationships reflect this school connectedness. Jensen and Simovska (2005) contend that, even though focus might be on genuine participation of students in HPS implementation, it is essential that a teacher be involved as a respectful “critical friend” for guidance and support, and as someone who can stimulate but also challenge their thinking. This was echoed by Kostenius (2013), who emphasises that, even though health promotion activities can be student driven, they still need to work with the teachers for support and guidance, and build relationships with them, for their work to be effective. However, this supportive role can also be challenging, as demonstrated by the findings of Cargo et al. (2003), which showed that tension was found between the type and amount of support required and the autonomy that adults were trying to encourage. In that study, decisions had to be made on the balance between “allowing youth to make mistakes relative to achieving success”, which requires the professional development of adults to make such decisions (Cargo et al., 2003, p. 72).

Pridmore (2000, p.104) found that, if children interact with adults in relationships of trust and mutual respect, it can help children develop into more “psychologically healthy and socially responsible people”, which is what HPS aims to do. The author recommends that teachers first need to develop the relationship by building trust through the way that they interact with students on a personal level. This would then influence the level of student responsiveness to the teacher (Phillippo, 2012). Teachers' caring, positive interactions and willingness to go beyond their call of duty were some factors identified as facilitating teacher/student relationships for health promotion in schools (Aggleton et al., 2000; Phillippo, 2012).

In a case study on the complexity of student participation in Healthy Schools⁸ in the United Kingdom (UK), it was found that teacher/student relationships had developed or improved

⁸ The equivalent to HPS in the UK.

during its implementation (Wilson, 2009), thus demonstrating the positive role that HPS can play with regard to building relationships. However, Wilson (2009) posits that some reluctance to change on the part of teachers could be expected as the HPS approach, which characterises democracy (Simovska, 2004), challenges the traditional teacher/student relationships in which teachers have the upper-hand in the school system. The author argues that this raises issues of power and teachers may find it difficult to share this power with students. Another dilemma in teacher/student relationships, as identified by Jamal et al. (2013), is the focus on academic achievements, which does not leave time for teachers to develop such relationships. This demonstrates the impact of academic priorities over health and whole-school development.

From a different perspective, even if the context is challenging, teachers can play a positive role in student empowerment. In an evaluation of a project undertaken in the Macedonian HPS network, students highlighted the valuable role of their teacher in empowering them, especially in light of the fact that schools in Macedonia were not conducive to a democratic way of functioning (Simovska, 2004). Therefore the HPS project, with its democratic principles, was a totally new experience for them. The political crisis at the time was a barrier to any democratic reform in the education system. In fact, the students were not used to having any kind of influence over the school. However, the author questioned the viability of a participatory process such as HPS in such a context, but concluded: "... the significance of the examples of good practice in participatory school projects, which provide 'islands of difference' to the overall atmosphere of disempowerment and resignation in Macedonian society, also reflected in schools, should not be underestimated" (Simovska, 2004, p. 172). In other words, even if such initiatives are not sustainable, lessons can be learnt from such positive experiences even if, and especially when, the context is negative.

2.5.2.5 Models of student participation

There is a premise that youth are not necessarily disempowered but need a climate created by adults (where power is incrementally transferred to the youth) that can actualise their potential to participate meaningfully in bringing about change (Cargo et al., 2003). In order to understand student participation, there are models of youth or child participation that can be drawn on, which describe the different levels of youth participation (e.g. Hart, 1992; Jensen & Simovska,

2005; Shier, 2001; Simovska, 2012). Hart's ladder of participation has been widely used and adapted in work that is related to children's participation (Shier, 2001). Hart's ladder of participation has manipulation as the bottom rung of the ladder and, together with the next two rungs of decoration and tokenism, is regarded as non-participation. The rungs above these are degrees of participation and include in rising sequence: assigned but informed; consulted and informed; adult-initiated, but shared decisions with children; child initiated and directed; and finally at the top is child-initiated, but shared decisions with adults. This means that, towards the bottom of the ladder, children do what adults suggest without any understanding of the issues but, as they progress up the ladder, their participation becomes stronger and, at the top, the children have the ideas, set up the project and invite adults to join them with decision-making (Hart, 1992).

The main types of student participation referred to in the literature are tokenism and genuine participation. Tokenism, as described in the works of Jensen and Simovska (2005) and Simovska (2012, p. 2), focuses on students in a situation where they have little or no choice and influence, and just follow or accept prescribed and knowledge instruction having little regard for the surrounding context, which fits with Hart's notion of non-participation. On the other hand, genuine participation has been described as when students are actively involved in constructing their own knowledge and development, where the surrounding context, including relationships within which the learning takes place, is considered. The students are much more in control and have influence over the change process (Jensen & Simovska, 2005). Genuine participation is linked to empowerment and ownership (Simovska, 2012) and to democracy and development of action competence (Jensen, 1997; Jensen & Simovska, 2005). These descriptions of genuine participation fits with Hart's (1992) top two levels of adult-initiated, shared decisions with children, and child-initiated, shared decisions with adults.

An aspect of genuine participation is empowerment as alluded to above. According to Simovska (2007, pp. 865-866), participation "addresses issues of personal development and empowerment, which inevitably implies the controversial process of challenging traditional power imbalances in schools". The hierarchical nature of schools (MacDonald & Green, 2001) where students are seen as recipients of knowledge without having any part in constructing that

knowledge (Scriven & Stiddard, 2003; St Leger, 2001; World Health Organization, 2007b), which can be seen as the bottom of Hart's ladder of participation, is thus challenged.

Several youth empowerment models have been developed (e.g. Cargo et al., 2003; Chinman & Linney, 1998; Hagquist & Starrin, 1997; Jennings et al., 2006) which can be aligned to the student participation models described above. Cargo et al. (2003) developed a framework of youth empowerment from the findings of their study on youth empowerment in the context of participatory community (including schools) health promotion interventions. The authors envisioned youth empowerment as a “transactional partnering process” between adults and youth (Cargo et al., 2003, p. S69). The framework describes two sub-processes – one related to adults and one to youth.

In adult sub-processes, adults create a social context that leads to an empowering environment for youth to take responsibility. Adults create a welcoming social climate by believing in the youths' abilities to bring about change (Jennings et al., 2006). Adults also encourage and care for the youth by showing their commitment. Another aspect of this sub-process is enabling youth, whereby adults facilitate interactions amongst youth. Adults also develop youth's skills and knowledge through participatory methods. Mentoring, positive reinforcement through regular feedback, and ongoing support from adults, are essential to this process (Cargo et al., 2003).

The youth sub-process focuses on the youth becoming empowered. This sub-process is explained by the inter-related concepts of: engaging youth; controlling the process; actualising youth potential; and cultivating constructive change (Cargo et al., 2003). Engaging youth is characterised by youth's motivations (Jennings et al., 2006) to become involved, such as the idea of participating in something different to what they normally did; wanting to make a difference (social responsibility); having a sense of belonging; and personal gains and incentives.

In controlling the process, the youth take responsibility for the initiative, they voice their opinions and make decisions. Youth are seen as assets in empowerment processes when they can contribute positively to the process of empowerment and participation with their own voices and decision-making powers (Jennings et al., 2006; Wallerstein, 2002). They also reflect on and learn from the challenges that they face. Jennings et al. (2006) and Wallerstein (2002) emphasise that,

in youth empowerment, “critical reflection, reflective action, and social change at individual and collective levels” (Jennings et al., 2006, p. 50) are important. However, Jennings et al. (2006) lamented that youth programmes focused on activities specifically without leaving room for critical reflections and actions, which are important for understanding empowerment structures and processes so that they become a learning process. Actualising youth potential, like in genuine participation is achieved through the development of self-esteem, building self-confidence, developing skills such as leadership skills, participatory working, and voicing their opinion. The empowering environment created by the adults facilitates the actualisation of this potential (Cargo et al., 2003).

When cultivating constructive change, successes re-enforce participation. According to Cargo et al. (2003, p. S76): “The presence of opportunities for meaningful participation allowed youth to experiment with an array of roles and responsibilities”. This means that as they become more experienced and develop competencies and skills, they are able to be more independent and also develop value judgments (Cargo et al., 2003).

2.5.2.6 Challenges for student participation

As much as student participation is advocated for in HPS, genuine student participation is not always a reality, especially if the context poses challenges. Chinman and Linney (1998) concur with other empowerment models and conclude that empowering adolescents has benefits for their development as they will have built their self-esteem, self-confidence and self-efficacy, which will lead to them taking on more positive roles. However, one point of departure that these authors highlighted, which others had not touched on, is the issue of negative empowerment. They maintain that if youth are not encouraged, mentored and given positive opportunities, it could result in negative empowerment. For instance, if youth are exposed to a negative environment only, then they might adopt compromising roles and behaviour, and develop negative self- efficacy and self-esteem related to these roles. This highlights how the social context and norms that the youth are exposed to will likely impact on the type of empowerment that they might experience. The authors concluded:

Thus, the nature of participatory opportunities and the specific roles in which the adolescent participates may define the valence of

empowerment (positive v. negative), and the nature of the experiences will depend, in large part, on the community context in which the adolescent lives. (Chinman & Linney, 1998, p. 410)

Therefore, participation in positive meaningful tasks, developing appropriate skills, and being acknowledged and reinforced by adults, are essential elements of the positive empowerment process.

Gordon and Turner (2004) critiqued Jensen's (1997) democratic-moralistic paradigm of health education in schools, which suggests that the moralistic approach (top-down approach) is contrary to the HPS principles of participation and empowerment. Consistent with Simovska's (2007) findings, Gordon and Turner (2004) in their case study of smoking in two secondary schools, highlight the tension between teachers leading and, on the other hand, guiding genuine student participation, and argued that it is not always an either/or situation. These authors posit that both approaches can function concurrently. In their study, where one had an authoritarian principal and the other had a principal with a nonchalant attitude, both schools had challenges with their opposing approaches to students. The authors claim that, in HPS, student empowerment and participation need a bottom-up approach where there is student autonomy, but that this should be complemented with a top-down approach (Simovska, 2012), where certain rules are laid down to create a well-ordered environment that supports Dooris's (2004) whole-system approach of balancing the top-down with the bottom-up approach. Some structure and control are needed to facilitate change in schools, but the right balance needs to be achieved (Gordon & Turner, 2004).

Simovska and Carlsson (2012) caution that the school context can determine the level of student participation, especially where there is no culture of involving students in change processes. In their systematic review on the impact of school environment on student health, Jamal et al. (2013) found that in many cases students were not given a voice in decision-making and therefore had no say over decisions that affected their health. Similarly, in a study in Norway it was found that students perceived that their participation was a form of tokenism whereby they were not given an opportunity to voice their opinions or, even if they did, they were not taken into account, which was perceived as undemocratic (Bjerke, 2011). Apart from the feeling of

disempowerment, it was also found that challenges experienced at the student personal level included the unmet expectations of the students, and the students feeling overwhelmed with their responsibilities relating to participation (Griebler, Rojatz, Simovska & Forster, 2014).

In summary, youth participation and empowerment models show the importance of adults and youth working together for transformation. The difference between token and genuine participation is also highlighted. However, there are often contextual challenges to student participation, which influence their level of participation. Simovska (2004) and Hagquist and Starrin (1997) assert that a student cannot be separated from the school context and, therefore, if a student is to participate genuinely in health promotion, the process will take into account the reality of the students and their school environments including their relationships within the schools.

Although leadership and management, and the participation of teachers and students have been discussed separately in the sections above, in reality, if a whole-school approach is taken as advocated for in HPS, then these actors ideally should work in collaboration to realise the goals of HPS. In other words, there should be a reciprocal relationship between them and joint decision-making with fewer power disparities.

2.6 COLLABORATIVE WORKING INCLUDING PARTNERSHIPS

Addressing the complexities of HPS, with its multiple levels of influence, multiple strategies, and the inevitable range of social determinants, implies a collaborative approach that includes an array of actors (Frey, Lohmeier, Lee, Tollefson, & Lea, 2004; Gajda, 2004; Hawe & Ghali, 2008; Inchley et al., 2007; Leurs, Mur-Veeman, van der Sar, Schaalma, & de Vries, 2008; Viig et al., 2012; World Health Organization, 2000) This provides the opportunity to draw on a variety of expertise, experiences, resources and skills, and enables the creation of a common goal or shared long-term vision (El Ansari & Phillips, 2001; Gajda, 2004).

2.6.1 Different terminology for ways of working together

In the health promotion literature there are a range of terms for working together that tend to be used interchangeably, often with a lack of clarity about what is actually meant by them. These

include “alliances”, “working together for health”, “partnership” and “intersectoral collaboration”, amongst others. In an endeavour to clarify this, and to highlight the different levels of collaboration that take place, several authors have provided definitions and interpretations for working together. Nutbeam (1998, p. 17), for example, provides a definition of partnerships for health promotion as: “a voluntary agreement between two or more partners to work cooperatively towards a set of shared health outcomes ... Such partnerships may form a part of intersectoral collaboration for health, or be based on alliances for health promotion”. The Health Promotion Agency of Ireland (2001, p. 8) strengthens the relationship by expanding the definition to include “...enabling people to increase control over and to improve their health and in which all parties have equal power, control and input”. This description concurs with Gillies’ (1998) definition, which is derived from a review of published literature and case studies of best practices in health promotion. Gillies (1998, p. 102) stresses the importance of power sharing and control between lay people and key “protagonists”, noting that lay people should not be involved as a means of “tokenism”. In other words, there should be greater sensitivity to the power relations in partnerships (Saan & Wise, 2011).

A helpful interpretation that highlights the different levels of collaboration is the continuum provided by O’Neill et al. (1997), cited in Nutbeam (2004) (see Figure 1). This demonstrates the extent and type of involvement, ranging from networking, a loose relationship with no great demands, to full collaboration, which suggests a written agreement, shared vision and full consensus. The term partnership falls in the middle of this continuum, describing it as a formal contract and sharing of the consequences of working together. It does not, however, extend to include the power sharing relationships described by Gillies (1998) and Saan and Wise (2011).

Given the varied use of the terminology in the literature, I will refer to working together in general as collaboration or a collaborative approach, while using the term partnership specifically for situations where a power-sharing relationship is implied or desired.

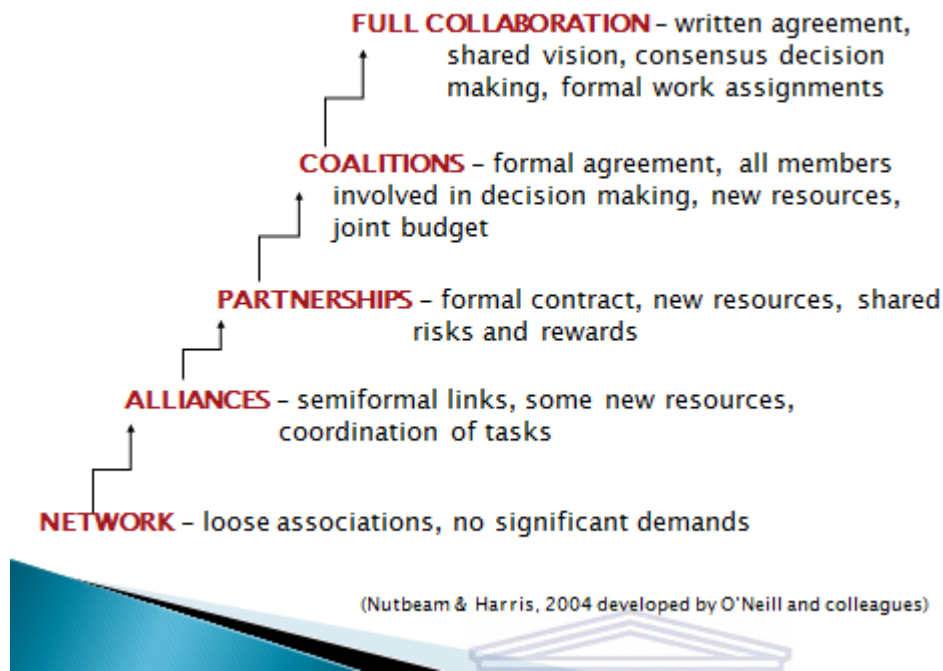


Figure 1: Continuum of working together (Source: O'Neill et al. (1997), cited in Nutbeam & Harris, 2004).

2.6.2 Requirements for a collaborative approach

Collaboration is a key component of the settings approach in health promotion (Jackson et al., 2006) and needs to be built at the highest as well as the grass-roots levels (Anderson & Ronson, 2005). Health promotion is increasingly looking at collaboration between the public sector, civil society and the private sector (Nutbeam, 1998), but the level or type of collaboration that will likely be achieved will be influenced by the situation at the time. Partnerships, with the power sharing that they imply, are an important mechanism for the multi-faceted HPS approach to engaging all in the school community, including: the education and health sectors; teachers; health workers; the community; students and persons responsible for school health programmes (Deschesnes et al., 2003; Inchley et al., 2007; World Health Organization, 1999). It also includes other external stakeholders to concurrently address the individual and social determinants of health of children (Deschesnes, Martin and Hill, 2003; Inchley, Muldoon and Currie, 2007; World Health Organization, 1999). This is an indication of the importance of building a

collaborative approach at all levels. When all stakeholders are involved in, and have control over, implementation as partners, they will have a sense of ownership of the intervention (Aggleton et al., 2000) – which is an indication of true partnerships and is more likely to ensure sustainability (Inchley et al., 2007).

El Ansari and Phillips (2001, p. 130), describing what they regard as a partnership approach, argue for “... clear unambiguous rules and procedures that promote a sense of ownership, as well as transparent interactions that endorse a sense of honesty ...”. In other words, transparency, through good communication, is key to successful partnerships. According to the authors, by being open and transparent about the goal of the partnership, making all processes and practices explicit, and involving all partners in decision-making, power disparities can be reduced. Furthermore, this openness will be beneficial for the sustainability of the partnership (El Ansari & Phillips, 2001). This, they argue, is especially applicable to hierarchical systems. In any partnership, each subsystem represented will have its own hierarchical system, with its own way of decision-making (Naaldenberg, Vaandrager, Wagemakers, Saan & de Hoog, 2009). However, in the new partnership things most likely will be done differently, meaning that those who had power in their own system might not be in the same position in the new partnership, which can be a challenge if there is no clear role clarification (Naaldenberg et al., 2009).

Collaboration of the actors within schools in HPS has already been discussed in previous sections in this thesis, and therefore collaborations with different external partners will be focused on in the following sections. The challenges that are faced when striving for a collaborative approach within, and with external partners, including those relating to the development of true partnerships with the complexity of their power dynamics, will be described later in this chapter in section 2.6.6.

2.6.3 Health and education sectors collaboration

Various studies have emphasised that, ideally, a partnership between the health and education sectors of government is pivotal for HPS implementation and has worked in countries such as Lao People’s Democratic Republic (Yoshimura et al., 2009), England (Wicklender, 2006), Canada (Deschesnes et al., 2010); and Scotland (Gugglberger & Inchley, 2014). On the other

hand, in some countries there has been little collaboration at any level between the two sectors. New Zealand is one example, where the limitations are attributed to weak national leadership (Cushman, 2008). Richardson (2007) argues for those working in the health sector to become familiar with the people who need to be influenced in the education sector including the need to get to know who has formal and informal authority. The author calls for “strategic relationships” to be formed and for decisions to be made together around the type of approach to take, i.e. whether it should be a top-down (involvement of policy makers) or a bottom-up approach, or a combination of the two. This implies a genuine partnership where there is power sharing including shared decision-making.

What is needed in a partnership between the health and education sectors for successful implementation of HPS, is a better and shared understanding of what health and health promotion is (Deschesnes et al., 2010; Hoyle et al., 2010; Mohammadi et al., 2010; Rissel & Rowling, 2000; Rowling, 1996). Open communication, dialogue and negotiation between the two sectors has been emphasised to enable a common understanding of the HPS approach (Aggleton et al., 2000; Hoyle et al., 2010; Mohammadi et al., 2010; St Leger, 1998; Rissel & Rowling, 2000), even if some compromises have to be made (Deschesnes et al., 2010).

Therefore, the development of messages and information by the health sector, which will appeal to the education sector, is vital (Richardson, 2007).

Based on the work of Greenhalgh et al. (2004), Deschesnes et al. (2010) developed a continuum of the position of different actors in HPS, derived from the findings of the health and education sectors’ viewpoints in Quebec, Canada on Healthy Schools dissemination. The education sector was placed to the extreme left “Let it happen” (which is more decentralised), with the health sector on the right being “Make it happen” (more centralised), showing the huge difference in their viewpoints, which posed a challenge for HPS implementation. Interestingly, the more divergent viewpoints between the education and health sectors in Deschesnes et al.’s (2010) study were at the administrative (national) level, but the regional and local authorities fell in the middle of the continuum – “Help it happen” – which is more negotiated and collaborative. One challenge was that working in silos made it difficult to work collaboratively on the ground, even if there was a willingness to do so, as indicated by the continuum (Deschesnes et al. (2010).

Consistent with these findings, Stokes and Mukerjee (2000) showed that the health sector often saw their work in schools as additional to their core business of health, which made working in partnership difficult. Schools were often seen as “passive recipients” in the link between health services and the school, without any consultation with the schools as to what their needs were (Rowling & Jeffreys, 2006), showing unequal collaboration.

Apart from the health and education sector partnership, there are also other external partners that support the implementation of HPS, which are described next.

2.6.4 External collaborators for HPS

HPS literature shows that external collaborations in HPS are important for successful implementation. Deschesnes et al. (2003, p. 392), who conducted a study in Canada on comprehensive school health promotion, recommend that the “cooperative and power relations” be recognised in intersectoral collaboration and that, even though the partners might have different interests, they should have “shared vision, positive working climate, effective leadership, participatory decision-making process, formalized procedures, negotiation and shared agreements”. Similarly, Aggleton et al. (2000), in their evaluation of Healthy Schools in England, found that a wide range of stakeholders with a shared vision worked best for an effective collaboration, while respecting each other’s different priorities. The schoolBeat programme in The Netherlands provides an example of a collaboration that involves multiple external organisations that support schools in addressing school health by encouraging a whole-school approach. However, despite the terminology often used, given the level of involvement of external organisations in HPS, they are unlikely to be true partnerships.

2.6.4.1 External person supporting or leading implementation

A recommendation in the literature is the assistance of an external person (not a school member) to support and assist the school in the implementation of HPS or school-based health promotion (Leurs et al., 2005). According to Boot, Assema, Hesdahl, & de Vries (2010) and Bruce et al. (2012), schools do not have the competence to implement health promotion as this is not their core business and, therefore, there is a need for assistance from external collaborators who have

such knowledge and skills. One example of such a person is the school health promotion advisor (who is a health promotion professional) to secondary schools in the SchoolBeat programme in The Netherlands (Boot et al., 2010). This individual is the main link between the schools and organisations that support school health promotion. The school health promotion advisor is allocated to one school only and his or her main responsibility is to guide and support the school during HPS implementation. The schools themselves implement the programme according to their own needs but can call on the advisor at any time for assistance.

A similar example is from Australia and shows how a development organisation initiated HPS in a disadvantaged school (Senior, 2012). The organisation's approach was that the school drives the process while it provided a health promotion officer to facilitate the steering committee (made up of teachers, the VP, parents, and the health promotion officer). However, Senior (2012) cautions that such a democratic process, which involves participation and ownership, takes a long time and is resource-intensive.

A third example is the district-level school health co-ordinator, who is meant to oversee the coordinated school health programme in schools in a particular district in the United States of America (USA) (Winnail, Bartee & Kaste, 2005). This individual is responsible for a number of schools and, unlike the advisor in the SchoolBeat programme, has full teaching responsibilities with the coordination being only part of his or her duties. It was found that they did not necessarily have the skills to implement a coordinated school health programme, or have the time to do so. The roles and responsibilities of the school health coordinator varied greatly across the school districts, because they were not clearly defined (Winnail et al., 2005).

The above examples, although different, demonstrate the value of external persons or organisations collaborating with schools by facilitating the implementation of HPS.

2.6.4.2 Collaboration with external professionals

The literature also discusses collaboration with various professionals for school health promotion, such as school mental health professionals (Weist et al., 2012), nurses (Reuterswärd & Lagerström, 2010), social workers (Testa, 2012) and universities (Butler et al., 2011; Preiser,

Struthers, Mohamed, Cameron, & Lawrence, 2014), including researchers (Dumka, Mauricio, & Gonzales, 2007). A study by Butler et al. (2011) describes how a university used a district liaison person to be the link between the university, the school district and the school. This collaboration led to all stakeholders, from school district administration to students, participating meaningfully in the planning and implementation of the programme. This in turn resulted in collective control over the process and integration into the school. Very often the university can be regarded as the expert (by wielding power) but in a collaborative relationship, the school members are regarded as experts of their own organisations so that there is shared learning and power (Dumka, Mauricio & Gonzales, 2007; Preiser et al., 2014).

In their study on the collaboration between universities and the school district, Butler et al. (2011) categorised collaboration into four principles based on the settings approach to health promotion: 1) Building on partners' strengths and resources, 2) Reciprocal learning, 3) Cultural humility, and 4) Long-term commitment. However, different professionals working together in schools can pose challenges. It was found that each professional (such as social workers and educational psychologists) had a different approach to working with schools because of their professional backgrounds, even though they were addressing the same issues (Milbourne, Macrae & Maguire, 2003). This led to tensions in teamwork because of the conflict of their individual professional demands and the context of working in partnership when their goals were not shared and roles not clarified (Milbourne et al., 2003).

2.6.5 Diverse range of stakeholders in collaboration for implementation of HPS

There is evidence that, even if there is a diverse range of stakeholders working as a team, this approach can be successful for HPS. The strengths and values of such collaborations have been demonstrated. Rowling (1996, p. 519) describes the Australian Health Promoting Schools Association as a non-governmental organisation whose “contribution is as a neutral body representing diverse interests that can advocate in different settings and at all levels of influence. Additionally it provides a mechanism for networking, awareness raising and information exchange.” Teachers, parents, schools and NGOs make up its membership. Its strength was

found to be not only in its diversity and volunteerism, but also in that it was a stable body even when there were political changes, which was conducive for HPS implementation and sustainability (Rowling, 1996).

Similarly, a successful partnership between a wide range of stakeholders was illustrated in a five-year school-based programme in Northern New South Wales, Australia, to minimise harm in 11–16-year-old school children (Elkington, Van Beurden, Zask, Dight, & Johnson, 2006). The diverse range of stakeholders included the health and education sectors, local councils, Catholic Education (an NGO), the roads and traffic authority, the local police, ambulance, emergency services, and the university. Elkington et al. (2006) assessed this partnership in terms of satisfaction with its aims and processes, and also its strength. The value of the partnership was indicated in more operational terms: shared goals and respect for each other's viewpoints; approach to and level of communication; scope for critical questioning and debate; mix of organisations and skills represented; strategic planning, regular meetings and agendas that include the different organisations' issues (Elkington et al., 2006).

Apart from the challenges in partnerships already referred to in the above sections, other challenges have also been highlighted and are described in the next section.

2.6.6 Challenges in collaborative approaches, in particular partnerships

Although the concept of partnerships has been given attention in the literature, Saan and Wise (2011, p. 92) concede that: “The processes required to establish and maintain well-connected partnerships between sectors have not proven to be easy...”. Similarly, Deschesnes et al. (2003) claim that, in HPS, although partnership is regarded as essential, it is not clear how to make partnerships a reality because they are influenced by how the different stakeholders perceive the collaboration. This can be challenging for HPS implementation as there might be different understandings of the purpose of the collaboration, as noted earlier. Likewise, St Leger (1998) found that teachers did not understand what community participation meant and mainly considered them for the resources that they had to offer and not as joint partners in improving the health of school children. Furthermore, Stokes and Mukerjee (2000) found that external stakeholders' work with schools will depend on their view of their work as either just providing a

service, or working with the HPS concept in its broad sense. External stakeholders' involvement can be reactive, as in a request from the school to address some emergency, or it can be proactive, as part of a national strategy (Stokes & Mukerjee, 2000). Although the former can be beneficial for HPS in the short-term, the latter will be more long-term and therefore more sustainable (Stokes & Mukerjee, 2000).

Elkington et al. (2006) identified some barriers to a partnership with a diverse range of partners including: time limitations; infrequency of meetings; uncertain funding; and individuals' commitment not being supported by their organisations. One interesting point they raised was the concern for sustainability if the key champions were to leave. This meant that the different organisations not only had to support the individual representing them in the partnership, but also had to "embrace" the partnership so that, even if that individual left, there would still be continuity (Elkington et al., 2006). Precisely to avoid this situation of discontinuity, the inclusion of a range of leaders in a partnership was advanced. According to a review on collaborative partnerships by Roussos and Fawcett (2000), leaders should emerge from the range of stakeholders in the partnership and should be able to facilitate changes by engaging their peers, own sectors or organisations. These authors maintain that: "partnerships with dispersed leadership may be less vulnerable to manipulation, reduced efficacy, or dissolution, than those that rely on only one leader" (Roussos & Fawcett, 2000, p. 386).

The lack of government leadership support for HPS has been found to be a further challenge for HPS implementation. It has been noted that, even if there are government guidelines and policies in keeping with the principles of HPS, there is often not support from government for implementation (Deschesnes et al., 2010). Where there has been lack of support from government (Aldinger et al., 2008) and where there has been weak national leadership, the HPS approach has been implemented in a sporadic manner, such as in New Zealand (Cushman, 2008). The health sector has been the main initiator of HPS in New Zealand and it is usually a school advisor who, supported by the local health authorities, leads the initiative in the schools and who, assisted by a teacher, has volunteered to do so without much support from higher levels of government (Cushman, 2008). Likewise, according to Deschesnes et al. (2010), relying on the

goodwill of teachers in schools makes implementation difficult, as there are no formal mechanisms from the higher education authorities to support HPS at school level.

Poor communication in partnerships for HPS was identified in the literature as another challenge, which meant that collaboration was difficult (Aldinger et al., 2008). For instance, it was found that there was poor interaction with, and sharing of, information and experiences between schools, between the health sector and schools, and between the health and education sectors (Aggleton et al., 2000; Keshavarz et al., 2010; Richardson, 2007; Deschesnes, 2010). This posed a problem because the two sectors had different priorities and, if there was no common understanding or proper communication, then implementation of HPS would be difficult.

In addition, researchers have warned that partners had to be made aware of the length of time it took for effective partnerships to take place (Aggleton et al., 2000; Stokes & Mukerjee, 2000; Inchley et al., 2007). On the other hand, Rissel and Rowling (2000) argue that the short time frame they invested in their initiative created momentum, which they claim might be lost with a lengthy period. Rowling (1996, p. 524) claims that: “It is faster to be directive than to work collaboratively”, which suits funders’ demands for quick, measurable outcomes. However, this goes against the principles of HPS, which call for working in collaborative or participatory partnerships, and illustrates the pressure that funders can place on implementers to deliver short-term goals.

Another challenge is that top-down imposed partnerships are not likely to happen. For example, Soulatou and Duncan (2009) found that the main challenge experienced in a Greek health education school programme was that the national policy advocating for partnerships in the programme did not take the context at implementation level into account. The authors advised that policy initiatives for partnerships should take into account the broader school context for its implementation as, in their study they found that partnership was regarded as an “alien body” and was therefore rejected.

The contextual barriers for working in partnerships as experienced in Soulatou and Duncan's (2009) study included the task demands of the health education officer (external person who was responsible for implementation); a lack of support from her superiors, which did not leave any

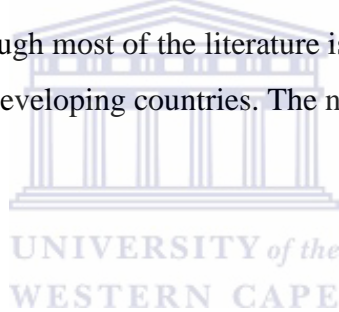
time for partnership building; the authoritative channels that had to be gone through in the school, especially with the priority for the formal curriculum; and the bio-medical partners being more valued by the schools than health promotion (Soultatou & Duncan, 2009). Clarke et al. (2010) recommend that, for external stakeholders to work in partnerships with schools, links with the schools will have to be established in order to start building a relationship before embarking on full-scale implementation.

Although power plays a pivotal role in partnerships, the overriding difficulty has been identified in the literature as being the result of power imbalance, which is an obstacle for partnership sustainability (El Ansari & Phillips, 2001; Jones & Barry, 2011; Milbourne et al., 2003; Naaldenberg et al., 2009; Poland, Lehoux, Holmes & Andrews, 2005). Poland et al. (2005, p.173) caution that those working towards partnership in a setting for health promotion should be: "... acutely aware of the extent to which settings are rife with power relations (who controls access, who sets the agenda, whose interests are served, how those lower in the social hierarchy are treated in ways that continually "remind" them of – and keep them in – their place, and so on)". Power has been closely linked to control in terms of material and human resources and the control of ideas (Poland et al., 2005). As discussed earlier in this chapter, in the hierarchical school system, the leadership and management of the school have this power and control, which highlights the unequal power relations and dependency on the leadership and management that can exist in a school (Naaldenberg et al., 2009). On the other hand, the importance of power sharing has been emphasised by Jones and Barry (2011), who found that, where there is sufficient trust and leadership in a partnership for health promotion, then power may not be an obstacle as power is being shared.

In conclusion, the complexity of HPS and the social determinants that it attempts to address drive the need for multiple partners to be involved. Collaboration in HPS is advocated as an important component for effective implementation. However, in reality, partnership in HPS has not been easy to achieve, as is evident from the many challenges that have been identified. The ideal of having the education and health sectors working in full partnership has been achieved to varying degrees, and has not been realised in many countries. Because of the differences in the priorities of the education and health sectors, it is even more important to enter into full partnerships to

ensure a shared understanding and common vision for the health and development of young people. Even though full partnerships between these two sectors might be difficult to achieve, especially because of power dynamics and the implied tensions around priorities, they are the main actors that have the power and influence to facilitate or block the implementation of HPS. Therefore, full partnerships between these two sectors should be pursued, even if they are found to be challenging. The involvement of external organisations as collaborators has been successful in many instances, although when these are unequal partnerships with differential power relations. The support that external organisations and professionals provide can facilitate the implementation of HPS, although schools might be able to do so without this support if they are committed and experienced enough. This collaboration, therefore, is not as crucial for HPS implementation as that of the education and health sector partnership.

This chapter described the various factors that have been found in the literature to facilitate or hinder HPS implementation. Although most of the literature is from developed countries, the lessons learnt could be applied to developing countries. The next chapter outlines the conceptual framework for this study.



3 A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In order to understand the implementation process of HPS and the factors that influence it, this chapter draws on the theoretical frameworks of a settings approach for HPS. It also draws on related frameworks that can usefully be explored to examine and interpret the complexities of the HPS as an organisation and a health promoting setting, and its implementation. This chapter further looks at concepts, approaches and frameworks that could be applied to the implementation process of HPS which were used to develop an analytical framework for this study.

This chapter firstly describes the settings approach for health promotion, which was the approach introduced in the UWC HPS project and, logically, the lens through which I viewed the data derived during the study. This is followed by a description of additional frameworks that the settings approach draws on. Next, in order to understand the complexity of HPS implementation including the facilitators and challenges to HPS implementation, a set of components derived from various implementation frameworks and organisational models are described. A discussion of the application of these components to HPS follows. The final section describes the analytical framework that I have developed, which is informed by the concepts and theoretical perspectives and selected implementation components.

3.2 AN OVERVIEW OF THE SETTINGS APPROACH FOR HEALTH PROMOTION

My starting point for the conceptual framework is two WHO definitions of health:

Health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity.(World Health Organization, 1948)

Health is the extent to which an individual or group is able to realise aspirations and satisfy needs, and to change or cope with the environment. Health is a resource for everyday life, not the objective of living; it is a positive concept, emphasising social and personal

resources, as well as physical capacities. (World Health Organization, 1986)

These definitions show that health is a holistic, multi-faceted concept. To respond to health needs, health promotion utilises a multi-pronged approach, which is characterised in the Ottawa Charter's five action areas: building a healthy public policy; creating supportive environments; strengthening community actions; developing personal skills; and re-orienting health services (World Health Organization, 1986). Based on these definitions, it is clear that contextual factors that might impact on health also need to be considered because, in the case of a school, the school and the individuals in it do not exist in a vacuum but are influenced by the surrounding context. One key approach that has been developed in the field of health promotion, which focuses on the context, is the *settings approach* (Poland, Green & Rootman, 2001; St Leger, 1997; Whitelaw, Baxendale, Bryce, MacHardy, Young & Witney, 2001).

The settings approach has received attention at international health promotion conferences since the first health promotion conference in 1986, where the Ottawa Charter was formulated. For example, building on the Ottawa Charter statement that "health is created and lived by people within the settings of their everyday life; where they learn, work, play and love" (World Health Organization, 1986), the Sundsvall Statement (World Health Organization, 1991) called for the creation of supportive environments with a focus on settings for health. Subsequently, the Jakarta Declaration (World Health Organization, 1997a) further emphasised the value of using settings for implementing comprehensive strategies and providing an infrastructure for health promotion (Dooris, 2006).

As noted earlier, schools are regarded as complex hierarchical dynamic systems with multiple subsystems (e.g. students) and suprasystems (e.g. the DoE) and other factors that could influence implementation within and across the systems (Dooris & Barry, 2013; Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2002; Gregory, Henry & Schoeny, 2007; Inchley et al., 2000; Keshavarz et al., 2010; Waters et al., 2009; Weare & Markham, 2005). Therefore, implementing a health promotion intervention in a school setting requires an approach that is able to engage with this complexity and dynamism. The settings approach is regarded as such.

The settings approach is described as: “the place or social context in which people engage in daily activities in which environmental, organisational and personal factors interact to affect health and wellbeing” (Nutbeam, 1998, p. 19). Similarly, Poland, Krupa and McCall (2009) emphasise that the settings approach in health promotion does not only consider the people found within a particular setting but also takes the physical, organisational, and social contexts within that setting, into account. Both these definitions emphasise interaction between individuals and their environments. In other words, the emphasis is on bringing about change at a broader level, in addition to factors that will influence change at an individual level (Paton, Sengupta & Hassan, 2005). With its broad-based and integrated approach to tackling issues at an organisational level and not at the level of individual diseases, the settings approach is aimed at tackling the social determinants of health.

The settings approach therefore includes focusing on building partnerships, not only within the setting, but also external to it, and also bringing about sustainable change through participation, in combination with the empowerment of the people in the setting and the ownership of the change (Dooris, 2004; 2009; Whitelaw et al., 2001). It also implies a focus on equity, which means that marginalised people in a setting are empowered and their needs addressed through their active participation (Shareck, Frohlich, & Poland, 2013). The key role of change agents is underscored in the settings approach by implying that their skills and commitment to a range of activities should be directed at the organisational level, such as “organisational development, building intersectoral cooperation, negotiating and creating infrastructures requiring social skills, group leadership, organisational competencies and project management” (Grossman & Scala, 1993, p. 34 cited in Whitelaw et al., 2001, p. 341). These descriptions highlight the complexity, but also value, of the settings approach for bringing about organisational change.

In keeping with the settings approach, HPS highlights the interaction between the school as an organisation, as well as the individuals who form part of the school community. Therefore, a key issue for implementation research to explore is the “... socio-ecological interplay between systems and individuals in terms of building supportive culture and structures for implementation practices” (Samdal & Rowling, 2011). This would mean not only focusing on changing the individuals in the school community, but also taking into account the internal school context;

(Bond, Glover, Godfrey, Butler, & Patton, 2001; Parcel et al., 2003) and external school context (Flay & Allred, 2003; Poland et al., 2009).

Furthermore, there has been sufficient evidence to show that, because of their multidimensional approach (Busch, De Leeuw, & Schrijvers, 2013; Nilsson, 2004; Patton et al., 2003; Poland et al., 2009; Weare & Markham, 2005; Wyn et al., 2000) whole-school approaches, which can be equated to Dooris's (2009) whole-system approach within the settings approach, are effective for addressing an array of issues related to health. Nilsson (2004) argues that HPS is synonymous with whole-school development, especially in the areas of participation and democracy. Conversely, according to Weare and Markham (2005), the whole-school approach is synergistic with the HPS approach as it regards health as a holistic concept and aspires to many of the HPS principles.

3.3 ADDITIONAL FRAMEWORKS USED TO DESCRIBE THE SETTINGS APPROACH

In order to respond to the complexities within the setting and to clarify and study them in more depth, Dooris (2009) characterises the settings approach as being three interconnected dimensions: *an ecological model of health promotion*; *a systems perspective*; and *whole system development and change* (Dooris, 2009). These dimensions will be expanded on below, and led me to conclude their suitability as part of the conceptual framework for analysis.

3.3.1 Ecological model of health promoting settings

As noted earlier, the conceptualisation of health implies a relationship between individuals and their environment. It is this relationship that necessitates the holistic understanding of health, which is pivotal for health promotion (Nutbeam, 1998). Yet conventional methods of planning health interventions ignore the fact that the challenges of health are complex and dynamic, and require innovative responses to address them (Leischow & Milstein, 2006). Within an ecological model of health promotion, not only are the multiple levels of personal, organisational and environmental factors for health considered, but also their complex interactions and influences on one another. It allows for immediate as well as distal influences to be examined. In this way a

more comprehensive approach to health promotion is embraced, wherein the focus is not only on the individual, or a single health issue, or on “linear causality” (which is a reductionist view) but rather on a more holistic and complex view of health within context (Dooris, 2009; Nutbeam, 1998; Poland et al., 2001).

3.3.2 Systems thinking in health promoting settings

Systems thinking is “a paradigm or perspective that considers connections among different components, plans for the implications of their interaction, and requires trans-disciplinary thinking as well as active engagement by those who have a stake in the outcome to govern the course of change” (Leischow & Milstein, 2006, p. 403). Systems thinking is a useful way of understanding the multi-faceted ecological factors, their interactions, and any dynamic or reciprocal relationships within a setting (Poland et al., 2009).

The systems perspective draws on the ecological model and on organisational theory, as well as viewing settings as complex dynamic systems with their components being in synergy and interacting with one another (Dooris, 2009; Shareck et al., 2013). A complex system is one that is adaptive to changes in its local environment, considers the broader implications of intervening, is composed of other complex systems, and acts in a non-linear fashion (Plsek & Greenhalgh, 2001; Shiell, Hawe, & Gold, 2008). Complex systems make us aware of the “interaction that occurs between components of the intervention as well as between the intervention and the context in which it is implemented. This includes the operations, structures, and relations that exist in each setting and the implications that contextual effects have for designing and evaluating interventions” (Shiell, Hawe, & Gold, 2008, p.1281). The way in which the different actors (people who are part of a system) in the complex system act is often unpredictable and, as everything is interconnected in a complex system, changes in one part of the system result in changes in other parts of the system and in the system as a whole (Plsek & Greenhalgh, 2001). It is difficult to attribute causality in a complex system, because a small input might result in a large or multiple outcomes or vice versa (Shiell et al., 2008).

According to Donald et al. (2002), when looking at a school as a system, the different subsystems would comprise the staff, the learners, the curriculum, and the school’s

administration, which all interact with one another. The system also interacts with wider or “parallel” systems, which in a school’s case, could be family or a religious organisation, for example. The school as a system also has to interact with suprasystems such as the DoE. In trying to understand a school as a system, the different relationships between these parts need to be acknowledged and examined. A school system will have its own characteristic “patterns” which determine the way the school functions as a system. Donald et al. (2002, p. 48) state that the interrelationship between the parts should be seen as cyclical and not linear “because an action in one part of the system cannot be seen as the cause of an action in another part in a simple, one-directional way”.

3.3.3 Whole-system development and change

Building on the systems perspective, whole-system development and change uses organisation or community development approaches that take into account the norms, values and interrelationships that are related to a setting (Dooris, 2009). Within the settings approach, health is considered within the culture and core business of a particular setting but, in keeping with the eco-systemic perspective, the impact of the broader context, such as the community, is also considered (Dooris, 2009).

The model by Dooris (2009) (Figure 2) sums up the comprehensive and integrated nature of the settings approach. This model uses a whole-system approach, which illustrates the integration of top-down managerial and/or political commitment, and bottom-up engagement and empowerment in a setting or organisation. It also highlights the balance between long-term organisational development and short-term, high-visibility projects. Another important aspect of the model is that it responds to public health concerns and also considers the agenda and core business of an organisation, reflecting the eco-systemic perspective of the settings approach. In addition, the methods that are used for any health promotion interventions within a setting are underpinned by the values of health promotion, but in a way that is suitable and compatible with that particular setting.

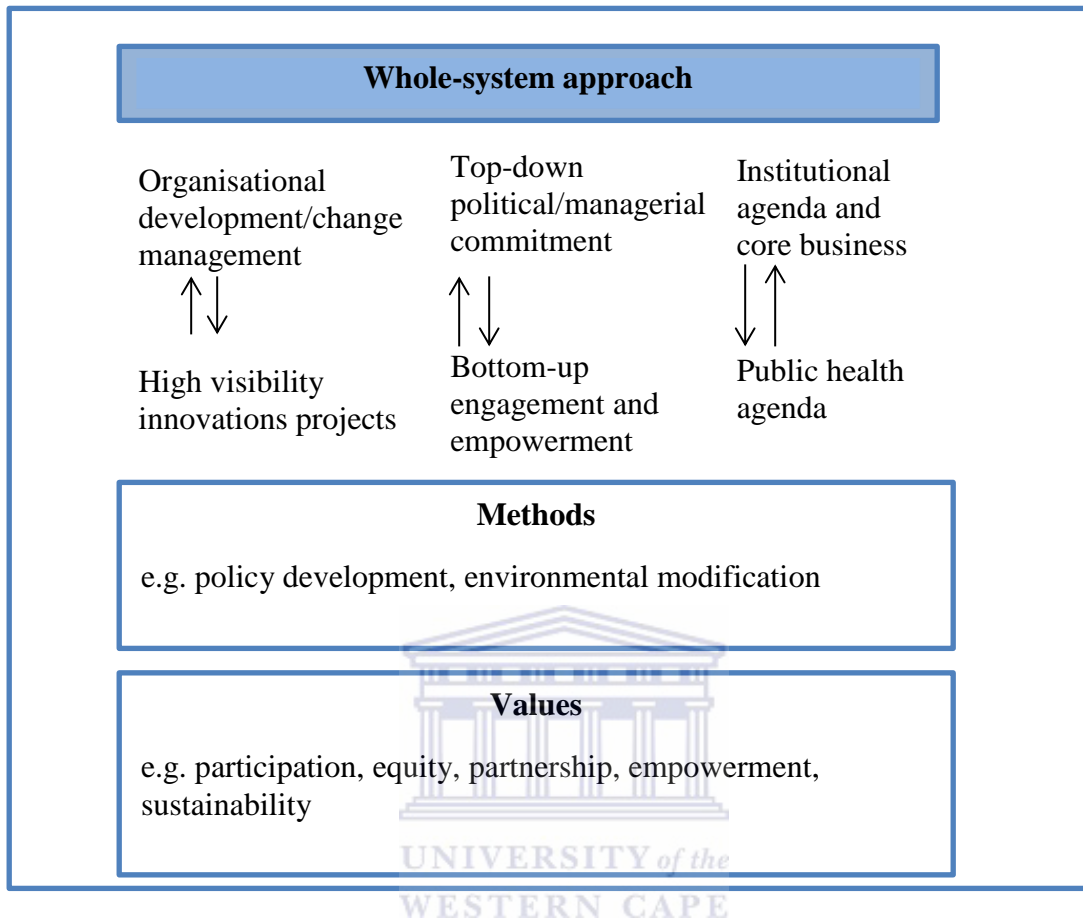


Figure 2: Model of the settings approach for health promotion (Dooris, 2009, p. 31).

Although there have been many advocates of the settings approach, there have also been some criticisms of its implementation, which informed my search for a conceptual framework. St. Leger (1997) claims that, in the settings approach it is expected that, even though an innovation is usually the mission of a few people, the commitment and participation of many is expected. This, however, is not always the case. For example, not everybody in that setting might subscribe to the mission for various reasons, such as a lack of consultation and strategic direction. This raises the issue of who has power and control in a particular setting, and this can impact on whether there will be genuine participation by all (Baum, 2008).

Furthermore, an intersectoral collaboration, which is one of the most important components in the settings approach, has also been found difficult to implement as stakeholders from different

sectors have their own assumptions of how other sectors work. St Leger (1997, p. 100) posits that this is the result of “guarding of professional territory” and of professionals’ adherence to only their own professions’ policies and practices and therefore not being familiar with the functioning of other sectors. In addition, the different stakeholders that are connected to a setting might have different values, beliefs and characteristics, and there will be different strategies in place. Integrating the different elements, stakeholders and approaches within a settings approach can therefore be a challenge. Consequently, integrating such diverse elements to work together is often unrealistic as there are, not only difficulties at practical level, but also the issue of territorialism (Dooris, 2013). Furthermore, Bittlingmayer, Bauer, Richter, & Sahrai (2006, p. 7) posit that the settings approach places too little emphasis on macro-level factors and overemphasises the meso-level factors. These authors maintain that “the settings approach often underestimates the impossibility of separating health and social inequalities, placing too little value on analysing the production of macro-societal inequality”. In other words, the social determinants of health are not fully taken into consideration despite the rhetoric of doing so. In summary, while having some limitations, the setting approach is one that takes an eco-systemic and whole-system perspective with its connectedness “outwards, upwards and beyond health” (Dooris, 2013, p. 48). This approach shows the importance of considering the different sub- and supra-systems that affect a particular setting, as well as the interconnectedness, dynamics and relationships between them and also between the different actors in the system or systems.

Despite some of the difficulties in implementing the settings approach, it is logical that this approach is a useful framework for understanding the complexity of the HPS implementation process in context and also demonstrates whether or not it was indeed difficult to implement.

3.4 CONCEPTUAL COMPONENTS OF IMPLEMENTATION OF INNOVATIONS RELEVANT TO HPS

In addition to the settings approach, some of the implementation components that have been developed by other researchers, although not related to the settings approach or HPS, are useful for further understanding the implementation of the HPS innovation, by adding more depth. Taking into account the holistic nature of HPS as a complex system as well as the settings approach with its ecosystemic and whole-system perspective, there is a need to keep sight of the

complexity and the use of a framework that could assist in doing that. By drawing on the selected components of several innovation implementation frameworks, I was able to examine and gain a better understanding of the HPS implementation process from different perspectives. The two main frameworks that I drew on were those of Helfrich et al. (2007) and Weiner et al. (2009). These authors applied their implementation framework to the health sector setting, which they adapted from a framework that was developed by Klein and others (Klein & Sorra, 1996; Klein, Conn & Sorra, 2001) for the manufacturing setting from organisational and management theories. I used the Helfrich et al framework as my analytical framework but added the organisational readiness for change (ORC) construct that features in the Weiner et al. framework but is absent from the Helfrich et al. framework. The components that were relevant for this study are depicted in Figure 3 and are elaborated on next.

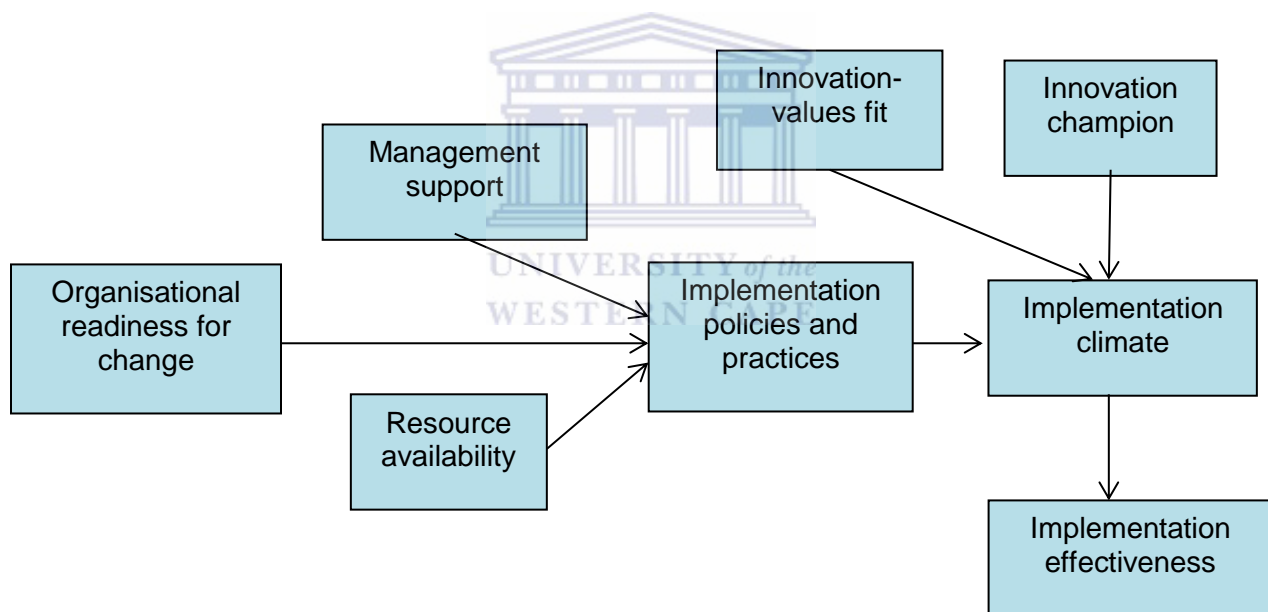


Figure 3: **Adapted implementation framework** (from Helfrich et al., 2007; Weiner et al., 2009)

3.4.1 Organisational readiness for change

Since the focus of this study is at the organisational level, an important construct to consider is ORC, which is a pre-implementation construct (Teal, Bergmire, Johnston, & Weiner, 2012).

Weiner (2009), who developed a theory of ORC (which is multi-levelled and multi-faceted), defines it as the commitment of an organisation’s members to the change. According to the ORC theory, a collective action by a number of people, and the extent to which they are prepared to bring about change, as well as their perception of their efficacy in implementing the change, are critical for implementation. Figure 4 depicts the determinants of ORC.

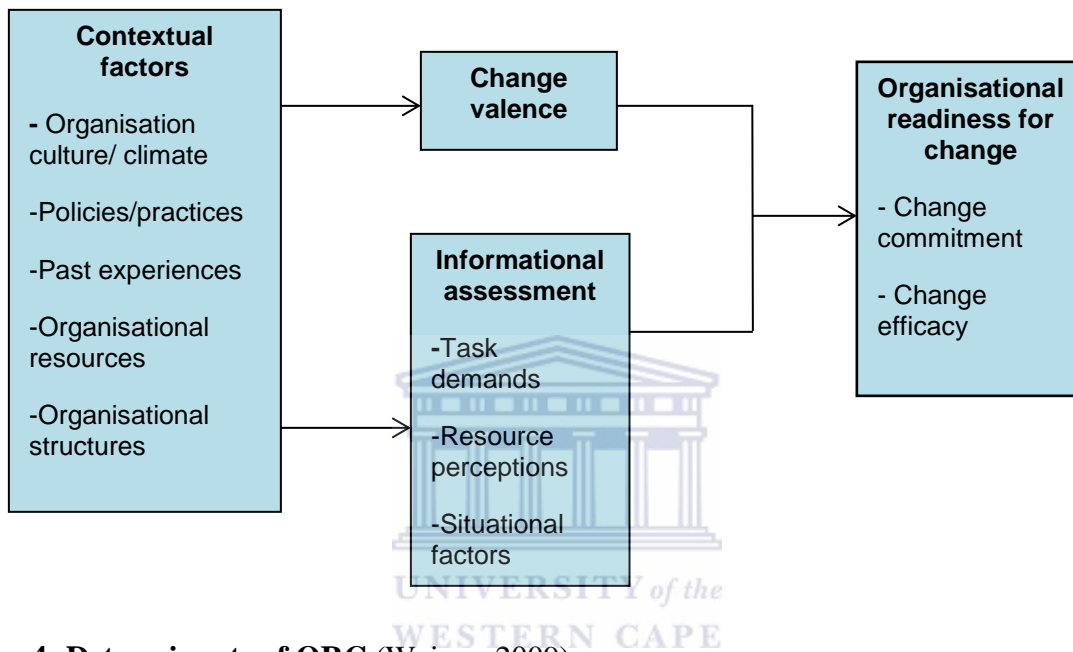


Figure 4: Determinants of ORC (Weiner, 2009)

A major influence on ORC is contextual factors. These factors can include organisational culture and climate, organisational policies and procedures, past experience with innovations, and available resources. Lehman, Greener, & Simpson (2002) found that clarity of mission and goals, staff cohesion and autonomy, openness of communication, openness to change and stress (e.g. role overload), as key contextual factors for ORC. These factors can influence members’ collective commitment and change efficacy (Lehman et al., 2002; Weiner, 2009). For example, a positive work climate, including members’ perceptions about “morale, trust, collegiality and methods of resolving disagreements” (Durlak & DuPre, 2008, p. 337) and an organisation’s willingness to change and integrate new programmes will increase its members’ commitment to change, which will impact positively on ORC.

Other reasons that members of an organisation may feel committed to the change process could depend on their perceptions of the value of the change (change valence) or the fact that they feel obliged to participate. They might have different reasons for valuing the change (from seeing the potential benefits of an innovation to knowing that the leader supports it). If members value the change, then commitment to organisational change will be high (Durlak & DuPre, 2008; Weiner, 2009). Commitment may also be related to their personal characteristics. Lehman et al. (2002) argue that the personality attributes of members, including their ability to influence others and to be opinion leaders, will also influence ORC.

Moreover, an organisation's existing structures and resources will influence its members' perceptions of their capabilities to bring about change (change efficacy) (Durlak & DuPre, 2008; Weiner, 2009). In considering prospective change, the members will make judgments (informational assessment) about what types of action need to be taken and whether or not there are enough resources (human, financial, material and informational) and time available. They will consider the demands of taking action in the current situation, and ascertain whether there is leadership support. Change efficacy will be high if there is a collective sense that they have the capability to perform the change process. However, members can misjudge their ORC by overestimating their collective capabilities (Weiner, 2009). In other words, there will be a problem if some are committed and others not, as implementation usually involves a number of and a variety of actors (Weiner, 2009), and, from the settings approach perspective, different levels of the system.

Another factor that might influence ORC is an organisation's past experience with change processes. If these experiences have been positive then the members will have more confidence that the organisation will be able to execute the new change processes.

3.4.2 Management support

Another element that has value in this study is the management support of an organisation, which not only has the capacity to influence ORC, but also can affect the implementation climate. In their framework for implementation of complex innovations in health sector organisations Helfrich et al. (2007) define management support as a manager's commitment to bringing about

organisational change and employing policies and procedures that will facilitate this change. Support will be in terms of resources, moral support and making implementation a priority.

3.4.3 Resource availability

Appropriate resource availability and allocation are important considerations for the implementation of change, as well as being key constructs – they make it possible for an organisation to adapt to or integrate changes (Durlak & DuPre, 2008; Greenhalgh et al., 2004; Helfrich et al., 2007). In relation to another key construct, the implementation climate, even if different organisations have similar resources available during implementation, they might not have the same level of effectiveness as this is often determined by the members' capacity to mobilise, use and combine the resources (Weiner, 2009).

3.4.4 Implementation policies and practices

This construct includes the “formal strategies the organisation uses to put an innovation into use and the actions that follow from these strategies (i.e. the practices)” (Helfrich et al., 2007, p. 284). Therefore, strategic planning is essential in ensuring direction and the clarity of roles and responsibilities (Durlak & DuPre, 2008). During innovation implementation, strategies that enhance planning might include shared decision-making and participation, as well as collaboration among those involved in the implementation process, in order to ensure ownership; networking and partnering with external organisations; effective open communication; and the formulation of tasks and procedures that will enhance strategic planning (Durlak & DuPre, 2008).

Furthermore, a strategy that is necessary for building organisational capacity for change is professional development and learning for those who are implementing the change (Hoyle et al., 2008), which will facilitate the policies and practices for implementation. This will increase their readiness for change by increasing their self-efficacy. Another strategy that will influence practices and processes is technical assistance, which is provided mainly after implementation has started and includes the provision of resources for implementation, support in terms of

retraining old staff or training of new staff, teaching problem solving; and mentoring (Durlak & DuPre, 2008).

3.4.5 Innovation-values fit

The concept of innovation-values fit is valuable to this study in that it highlights a potential factor that may otherwise not be considered if one concentrates on implementation practices and processes only. This concept defines the extent to which members of an organisation perceive that the innovation will fit the organisation's values i.e. whether the innovation will suit its vision and mission (Greenhalgh et al., 2004; Helfrich et al., 2007). If the innovation is adaptable to the organisation's functioning and needs, and if it is compatible with its vision, mission, priorities and values, implementation will be strengthened. If the characteristics of the innovation fit with the values of the organisation, then there will be shared vision regarding the purpose and value of the innovation (Durlak & DuPre, 2008). However, if the innovation-values fit is not strong, even if the implementation practices and processes are in place and implementation climate is strong, then the implementation might not be effective (Teal et al., 2012; Weiner et al., 2009).

3.4.6 Innovation champion

Another theoretical component that has value for the implementation framework being used is the innovation champion. This is described as a charismatic person who is usually internal, but can be external to an organisation, who will take up the innovation with enthusiasm “thus overcoming the indifference or resistance that a new idea often provokes in an organisation” (Rogers, 2003, p. 414, cited in Helfrich et al., 2007). In order to facilitate implementation, active champions will influence organisational change by providing a buffer to the organisation's policies and procedures, which could otherwise act as barriers. A champion will gain support from and form collaborations with other members of the organisation in order to enhance implementation (Greenhalgh et al., 2004). The champion is “an individual who is trusted and respected by staff and administrators, and who can rally and maintain support for the innovation, and can negotiate solutions to problems that develop” (Durlak & DuPre, 2008, p. 337).

3.4.7 Implementation climate

A final element of the conceptual framework is the implementation climate, which is a composite concept of some of the concepts that have already been discussed. It is related to organisational climate but refers to the climate during implementation of a specific innovation, which might be different for another innovation in the same organisation (Helfrich et al., 2007; Weiner et al., 2009). An implementation climate is created when policies and practices, management support and resources are in place for implementing that specific innovation. The implementation climate will also be influenced by the innovation champion and innovations-values fit. If the implementers perceive that there are means (such as supportive policies and strategies), motives and opportunities for the innovation to be prioritised by the organisation, then the implementation climate will be conducive. In this way the innovation will be more accessible to its users because a supportive climate will have been created (Helfrich et al., 2007; Weiner et al., 2009).

In summary, in combination, the implementation concepts posited above theorise that effective implementation is the result of a positive implementation climate that manifests itself through implementation policies and practices, the innovations-values fit, and the innovation champion. Policies and practices are, in turn, influenced by leadership and management support, resource availability and organisational readiness for change. Although seemingly a linear process, the interrelatedness of these components for implementation is obvious. The next section outlines the relevance of these components for HPS implementation.

3.5 ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK FOR HPS

Following the frameworks described in this chapter, I have developed a framework that includes an elaborated external level of influence because, according to the settings approach, even though HPS implementation takes place in the school, there will be factors that are external to the school itself that will influence HPS implementation. In line with the settings approach, all the different components are interrelated, as the arrows in the diagram illustrate, and will have an impact on one another. My analytical framework is presented as Figure 5 and is a combination and adaptation of the selected implementation components described earlier. The settings

approach and the literature provided insight into HPS implementation. The framework allowed me to explore the complexity of the context, structures, dynamics and relationships within the school setting in an effort to deepen my understanding of the different facilitating and challenging factors that influence implementation and sustainability.

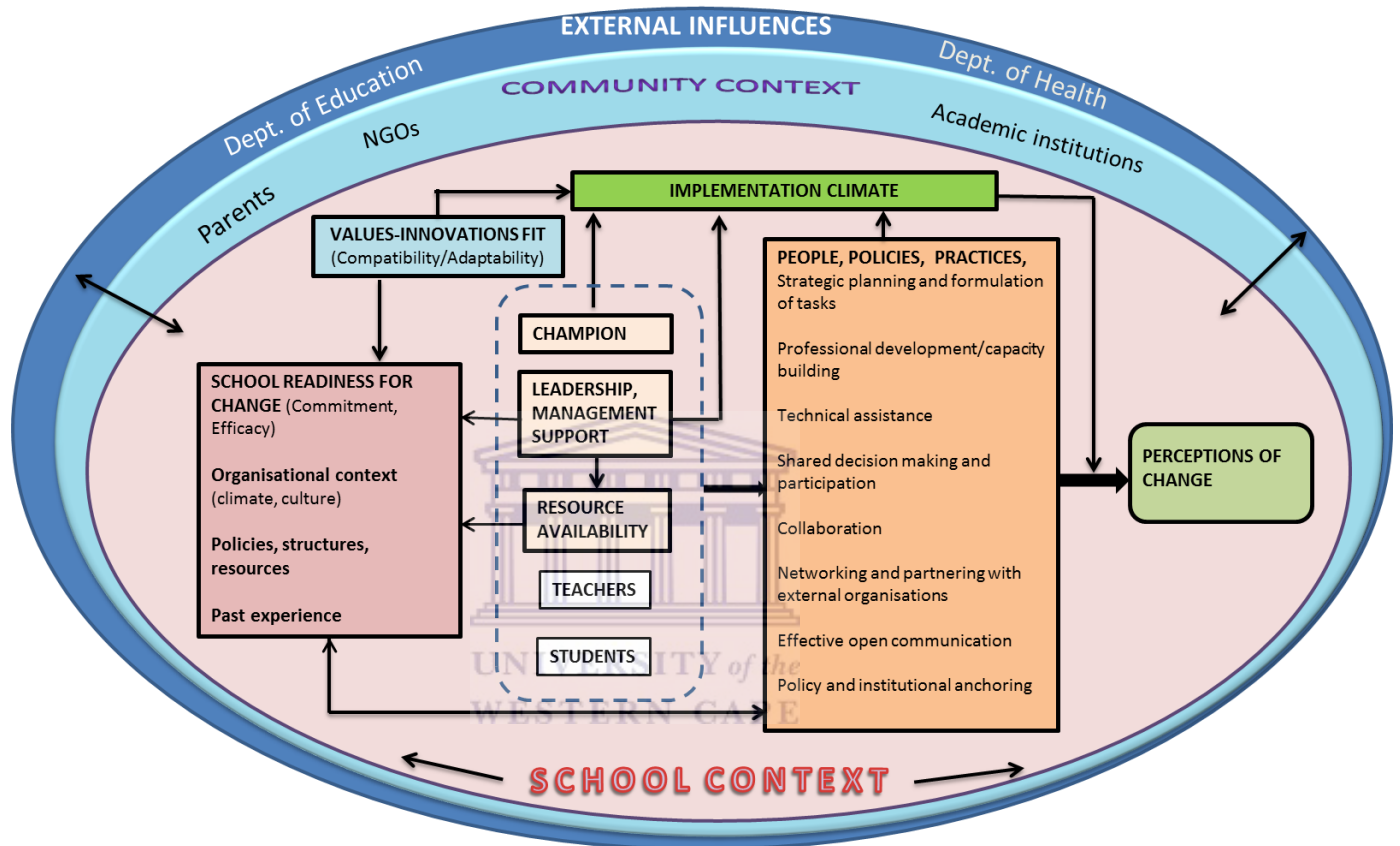


Figure 5: Analytical framework for HPS implementation for this study

As is illustrated in the framework (Figure 5), the implementation of HPS is understood to be a non-linear process (Rowling & Samdal, 2011) and is conceptualised as an organisation and a setting. The multiple levels of influence on a school, both external and internal, as well as the interrelatedness of the different factors influencing implementation, need to be taken into account when implementing HPS.

3.5.1 External context

What has not been made explicit in the implementation frameworks thus far is the range of external contextual factors that can influence implementation in an organisation. The one key external factor is the macro level influences of the education system with the durability of colonialism still apparent despite the rhetoric of a more Socialist education system after apartheid in SA (Prew, 2011). In addition, Dooris and Barry (2013) have identified four main components of the school setting for HPS implementation. The components are: organisational context in the form of the school climate; implementer characteristics like teacher self-efficacy; intervention delivery, which includes support; and community context, which might include parental involvement. These components all interact and influence one another in HPS (Dooris & Barry, 2013). The first three components can be compared to the implementation components as described in section 3.5.2 in this chapter. However, the community context, although beyond the school itself, is an important element of the school system from the settings approach perspective. The community context within which a school is located includes parental involvement, which must be considered as the home context and the wider community will have an impact on the school community and school itself (Dooris & Barry, 2013). Other actors at the community level might include NGOs and academic institutions that work with schools or young people.

In addition, the health and education sectors are key external actors in the implementation of HPS even though they are external to the school organisation itself. The DoE sets the policy framework to which a school has to comply and on which a school is dependent (e.g. for resources) and to which it is accountable. The DoH in SA is the main initiator of HPS. In keeping with the settings approach, the external context has been added to the conceptual framework used for this study.

3.5.2 Internal context and implementation components for HPS

Within the internal context of the school as an organisation and setting, and where the implementation components are located, there are multiple nested systems at play, including

leadership and management, teachers, students, champion and school structures, all of which will have to be considered as they will influence the implementation of HPS.

The framework that has been adopted for this study makes a number of assumptions regarding the school organisation in the context of HPS, which are outlined here.

3.5.2.1 School readiness for change

In relation to HPS, a school's readiness for change will largely be influenced by the internal school context. The school climate and culture, such as the relationships between the teachers, between the principal and the staff, between students, and between students and teachers, and their perception of the support that will be provided, will influence their level of commitment to implementation. A school will likely only implement HPS with respect to its perceptions of members' capabilities and their capacity at the time. In addition, if there is a supportive environment in a school, especially by peers and the leadership and management, then it will feel more confident about implementation. Furthermore, a school has various structures such as the school governing body (SGB) and representative council of learners (RCL) in place and, if there is a perception that these could provide additional support, then it will increase the school's readiness for change.

Historically, the HPS approach has often been initiated by someone external to a school and, if a school has had positive past experiences in working with external partners, then it might be easier for it to accept HPS being initiated by an external person, which will also increase its readiness for change.

3.5.2.2 Innovation-values fit

The characteristics of HPS need to fit the overall values and aims of a school, which is often related to the positive development of its students (Samdal & Rowling, 2011). If there is congruency, then a school's readiness for change will be high and will also create a conducive implementation climate.

3.5.2.3 Leadership and management support

I have added leadership to this construct – even though is not included in the general implementation construct that was described earlier – as it has been found to be equally important in terms of a supportive context for effective HPS implementation (Aldinger et al., 2008; Inchley et al., 2007; Larsen & Samdal, 2008). Apart from management and administrative roles, the leader of a school should also provide vision and direction for the school, build relationships, and encourage capacity building for the school members (Rowling & Samdal, 2011). For leadership and management support for HPS, the assumption is that the key person would be the principal because of the power and influence that he or she has in the school. A principal, as manager of a school, is responsible for resource allocation which includes allowing time for teacher collaboration and exchange, and facilitating the professional development of teachers. If a principal supports HPS and incorporates it into the policies and practices of the school, then resources for HPS implementation will also be prioritised (Samdal & Rowling, 2011). The principal is also in a position to build internal and external networks. It is evident that a principal's role is key for many of the implementation components.

3.5.2.4 Availability of resources

The availability of resources – financial, human (members of a school's community) and material – is needed to support the policies and practices of HPS implementation and to ensure integration and sustainability (Deschesnes et al., 2010; Gugglberger, 2011; Samdal & Rowling, 2011; Weiler, Pigg & McDermott, 2003).

3.5.2.5 Innovation champion

An innovation champion is key to effective HPS implementation and this person is usually a committed teacher (Deschesnes et al., 2014; Ingemarson, Rubenson, Bodin & Guldbrandsson, 2014; Lohrmann, 2010; Lucarelli et al. 2014). Although this champion might not be in a leadership or management position at a school's organisational level, he or she should have the ability to take the lead in the implementation process. A champion has to be influential enough to create a climate that is conducive HPS implementation because he or she will need to influence others in the school community to become involved (Gleddie, 2012). Although the champion

will most likely be a teacher, it can also be an external individual (Lohrmann, 2010). He or she needs to drive the implementation process, especially if it lightens the workload of the teachers (McIsaac et al., 2013).

3.5.2.6 People, policies and practices in HPS implementation

Various people, policies and practices are required for HPS implementation. I have added people to this construct as it is the people that make the practices and policies possible. Planning is an important aspect of HPS implementation, especially because of its complex nature (Rowling & Samdal, 2011) and the various actors that need to be involved (Deschesnes et al., 2003). If there is proper and negotiated planning with all the relevant actors and students who are involved in decision-making, then it is more likely that a conducive climate will be created. In this process, key policies, practices and structures will be identified and can be integrated with HPS, and will help to “anchor” HPS in the school. For example, if HPS is written into a school’s policy, then there is more likelihood of it being implemented because of shared accountability (Samdal & Rowling, 2011). Proper planning will also ensure that resources will be available for HPS implementation (Deschesnes et al., 2003).

Mutually supportive and functional partnerships and networking is also essential for implementing HPS. This also has to happen between the education and health sectors. In this way there will be a mutual learning process through sharing of experiences and activities, a better understanding of the core purpose of each sector and how they could contribute to the implementation process without duplication and wasting of resources (Samdal & Rowling, 2011).

Management and the innovation champion will be key actors for networking internally and externally, and for developing partnerships. Open and effective communication is essential for successful networking and partnership, for transparency, and so that the whole school community is aware of what is happening. In this way there can be more support, especially in terms of resources.

Furthermore, professional development and capacity building for those implementing HPS, is important for building the understanding, motivation and skills, and competence that are needed

to implement HPS (Samdal & Rowling, 2011). This ensures that participants develop the skills necessary to carry out their tasks because only when they know “what to do and feel competent in how to do it can they actually contribute to achieving change” (Aldinger et al., 2008, p. 9). On-going technical support is also important to ensure there is consistency, continuity and sustainability.

3.5.2.7 Implementation climate

In HPS, the organisational support context creates a school climate and culture that are conducive to change processes (Samdal & Rowling, 2011). The school climate and culture will facilitate the development of support structures, including timetabling, the physical environment, and financial resources. Support can also be in the form of sharing of HPS experiences, role modelling and support from peers and other actors in the school (Samdal & Rowling, 2011). This support will ensure a conducive implementation climate.

The assumption is that, in combination, the different components described will ensure a supportive context for implementing HPS, where all the levels of influence and their interrelatedness will be taken into account (Samdal & Rowling, 2011) and will likely lead to the effective implementation and integration of HPS, and its sustainability.

This chapter outlined the conceptual framework for the study, including the analytical framework. The next chapter describes the methodology that was used to conduct the study.

4 METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter begins by stating the aim and objectives of the study. An overview of the research design and the rationale for the choices made is given next, followed by a description of the study population and sample, including the sampling procedure. The data collection methods and tools are outlined next, followed by an explanation of how the data were analysed. A discussion of the quality of the research follows and expands on how the rigour of the study was ensured. Finally the ethics considerations are highlighted.

Aim

To explore and understand the implementation of HPS in three secondary schools in a resource-limited setting in Cape Town.

Objectives

1. To review the processes involved in implementing HPS with regard to activities, plans and policies.
2. To explore the enablers and challenges influencing the implementation of HPS.
3. To explore the experience and perceptions of various actors regarding their involvement with the implementation of HPS at their respective schools.
4. To explore the different actors' perceptions about the most appropriate strategies for the sustainability of the HPS approach in these schools.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Certain problems or research questions call for specific approaches. The aim of this study was to understand the factors influencing the HPS implementation process as experienced by those involved. The focus of HPS on the contexts and the multiple levels of the school system, and their interconnections, make an exploratory qualitative research design most suitable for the type of information needed to understand the HPS implementation process, and this was therefore used for this study. In essence, research design is about “turning research questions into projects”

(Robson, 2011, p. 70). This entails the consideration and coherence of the research questions, purpose of the study, methods employed to gather the information needed, the sampling strategy and the validity and reliability of the study (Lewis, 2003; Robson, 2011; Creswell, 2009). However, in qualitative research, designs need to be flexible because, by its very nature, unexpected issues may arise, and these may necessitate a change in design at any point during the study (Lewis, 2003). The different aspects mentioned above will be discussed in more detail in the rest of this chapter.

Creswell (2009, p. 5) asserts that there are three components involved in research design:

... researchers need to think through their philosophical worldview assumptions that they bring to the study, the strategy of inquiry that is related to this worldview, and the specific methods or procedures of research that translate the approach into practice.

Figure 6 illustrates the relationship between these components. My worldview, the research design, and the methods of inquiry that I used for this study, are marked in italics in the respective circles.

The philosophical worldview that I identify with most is the social constructivist-interpretivist worldview. In social constructivism, the assumption is that people seek to understand their world and attach meaning to their experience of the world they live in. These subjective meanings are multiple and complex because they are shaped “socially and historically” as well as through their interaction with others and through cultural norms (Creswell, 2009, p. 8). It is with this view that I studied the contexts in which the participants lived, worked and attended school, in order to gain an understanding of the social and cultural processes that are part of their real world. My role was to make sense of the meaning that they have of their world.

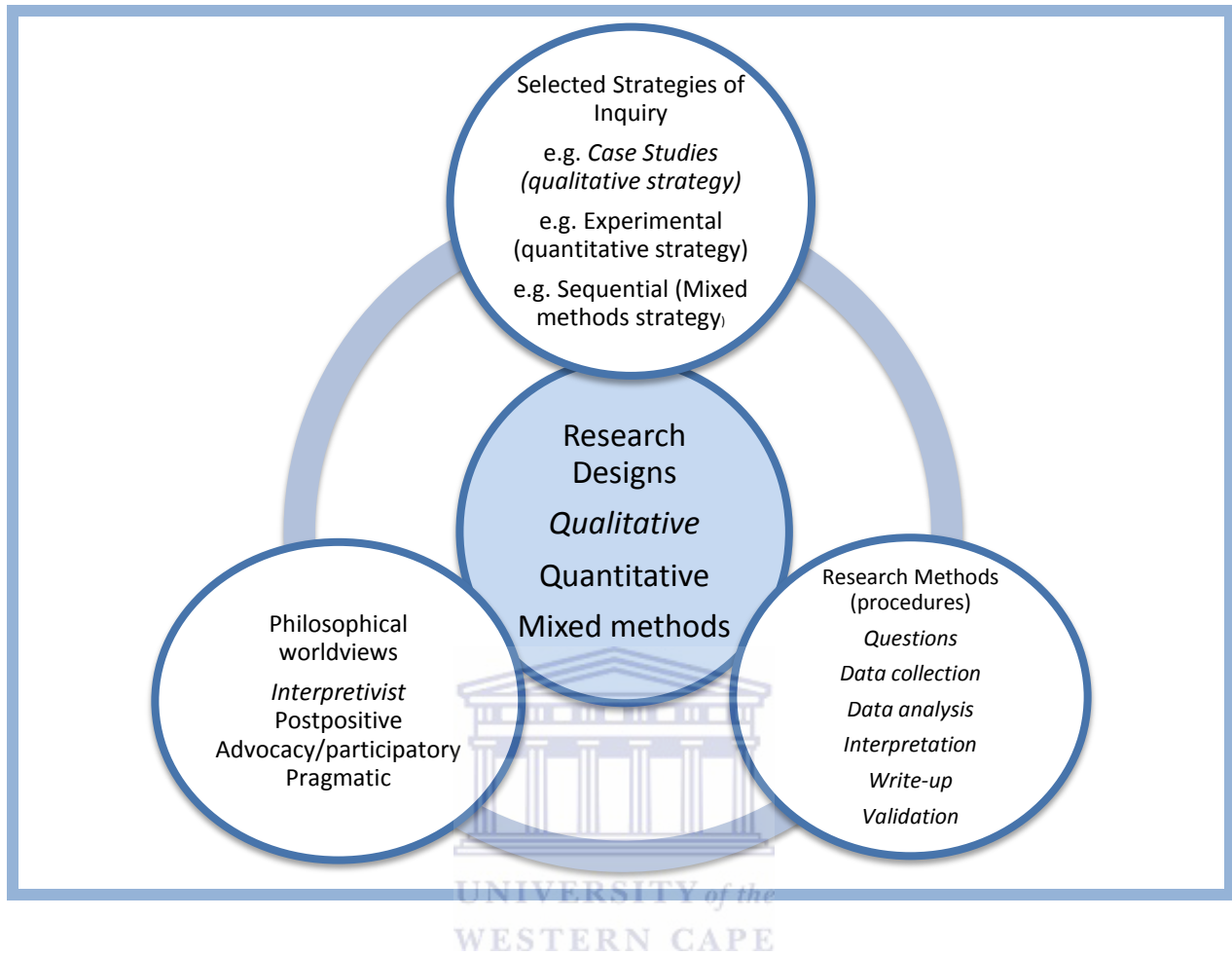


Figure 6: Components of research design (adapted from Creswell, 2009)

The aim of the research in the constructivist-interpretivist worldview is to rely mainly on the participant’s view of the phenomenon being studied, which the researcher then interprets. A qualitative research design uses mostly open-ended questions, and is more suited to this worldview – in which meaning is inductively generated (Creswell, 2009). However, I also had to acknowledge how my own background and experiences would shape my interpretation of other people’s meanings, meaning that I could not be an objective observer. I had to factor this aspect in during the research process and make my role and assumptions transparent so as to minimise bias. Figure 7 shows the inductive process of qualitative research that I followed for my research in order to develop my understanding. Although the diagram shows a linear process, mine was more of an iterative process in which I moved back and forth between the different phases throughout the research process.

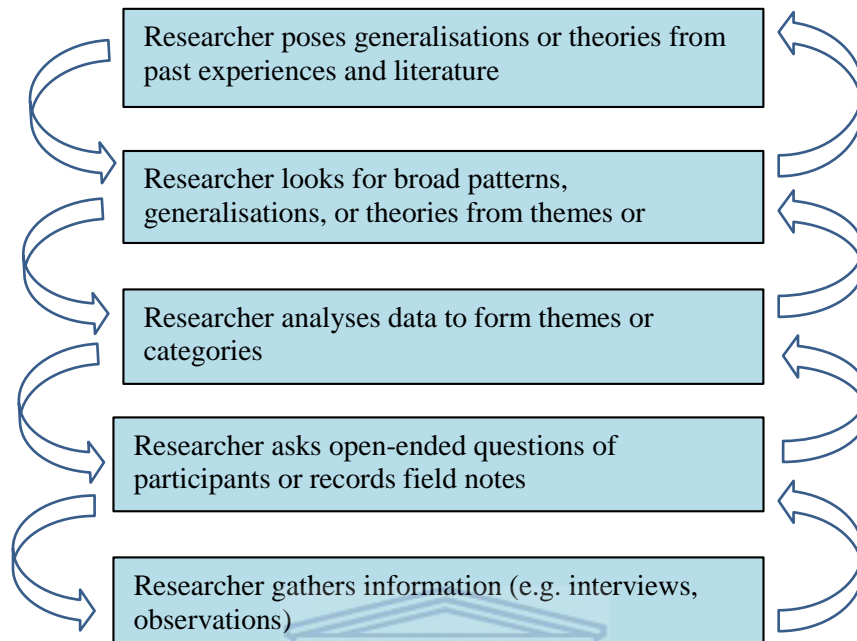


Figure 7: Inductive process of qualitative research (adapted from Creswell, 2009).

4.2.1 Qualitative research methods

This study explored the experiences of the participants with the implementation process of HPS, which was the phenomenon under study at the selected schools. The exploratory nature of this study was suitable for understanding the process and describing the experiences of those involved in HPS implementation in order to uncover the lessons learnt. Exploratory qualitative studies are meant to give deeper insight and understanding of the phenomenon under study by examining the perceptions and practical experiences of those involved in the phenomenon and the way they make sense of their world (Babbie & Mouton, 2003; Creswell, 2009). In qualitative research, the researcher not only describes the complexity of what is being studied but also tries to make explicit the underlying structures that make sense of that complexity (Green & Thorogood, 2005; Neuman, 1997). The emphasis in qualitative research is on “thick description”, which is a lengthy description of events as they are happening and placing them in their context (Babbie & Mouton, 2003).

Furthermore, the flexibility of exploratory studies makes a case study design, which requires an open and flexible research strategy, appropriate. The flexibility allows for various methods and perspectives to be employed in order to understand the case and responds to the dynamics in the case (Simons, 2009; Babbie & Mouton, 2003), which is what I aimed to achieve. I used a case study design for this study because, in keeping with social constructivism, I needed to understand the full context within which the phenomenon of HPS implementation took place and how that context influenced HPS implementation, in order to make sense of it (Babbie & Mouton, 2003).

4.2.2 Case study design

Several variations of the definition of case studies appear in the literature (see Dopson, 2003; Eisenhardt, 1989; Lewis, 2003; Merriman, 1998; Simons, 2009; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003) which is encapsulated in Yin's (2003, p.13) description of a case study:

- An empirical enquiry that:
- investigates a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context, especially when
- the boundary between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident. (bullets in original)

In case study research, in addition to looking at a “bounded phenomenon” (Merriman, 1998) in a real-life social context, multiple perspectives are taken into account in their natural setting so that interpretations are based on real-life experiences (Dopson, 2003; Lewis, 2003; Simons, 2009).

I chose the case study design for my research because the study is on the implementation process of HPS (the phenomenon under study) within each of the three schools' individual contexts. This process would be the “contemporary phenomenon” or the “bounded phenomenon” that Yin (2003) and Merriman (1998) refer to respectively, and in which each school is regarded as an individual case. Inchley et al. (2000) chose a case study design to evaluate the HPS approach, because this design not only provided evidence of whether a programme was successful or not, but also looked for the key factors that contributed to the success or failure of the programme. The qualitative case study design was deemed appropriate for the current study to cover mainly

the “how” and “why” questions that are useful for exploring and understanding change processes (Yin, 1999; Simons, 2009).

A further reason for choosing a case study design for this study was that it draws on multiple perspectives to explore the complexity and uniqueness of a particular case within its specific social context, especially if these are complex and dynamic and have ever-changing rules and policies (Yin, 1999; Dopson, 2003). For example, the school is a complex system made up of different systems internally (the students, teachers, school structures) and externally (parents and the government authorities), which interact with one another (Keshavarz et al., 2010). The case study design can uncover the interactions and influences of the different levels of a system on the implementation of innovations (Anderson, Crabtree, Steele, & McDaniel, 2005; Simons, 2009; Yin, 2003).

According to the literature (Gregory et al., 2007; Waters et al., 2009; Wyrta & Lawson, 2008), even when the external social contexts in which schools operate are similar in many respects, the way a school is able to engage with an innovation will depend on the school’s internal context. During my involvement in the HPS project, I observed that the three schools included in this study generally functioned differently to one another and concluded that there would possibly be differences in the way that these schools engaged with the HPS concept. I therefore set out to examine each school as a separate case in order to gain a better understanding of the phenomenon of implementation of HPS in different school contexts. By doing so, I hoped to gain insight into the complexity of the facilitating factors and the challenges faced in the context of the schools, whether internal or external.

4.2.2.1 Defining the case

Yin (1999) emphasises the importance of defining the case to be studied from the outset, so that the findings can be clearly linked to the case and not some other phenomenon. Another reason for clear definition is that comparison across cases may become difficult if the case is not clearly defined. However, just as there are different definitions of case studies found in the literature, there are also different definitions of what a “case” is depending on which discipline the researcher comes from (Stake, 1995). Stake (1995, p. 2) concludes: “The case is a specific,

complex, functioning thing” and that it is an “integrated” and “bounded system”. Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 25) define a case as “a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context. The case is “in effect your unit of analysis”. This means that not only the phenomenon but also its context is regarded as the case.

However, as Yin (1999) admitted, the boundary between the phenomenon and its context is not always clear. According to Anderson et al. (2005), a complexity theory suggests that the behaviour at the boundaries and across the boundaries of a system should be studied, as this enables a better explanation of the phenomenon under study. In the school system, that would mean I would look at the structures, systems and people within the school, as well as those external to the school, and their relationships and interactions.

I take my definition of a case (my unit of analysis) from Miles and Huberman (1994) (see Figure 8), thus defining my case as the process of implementing HPS (the phenomenon) within each school (which is the bounded context); taking into consideration that the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not always clear (Yin, 1999, 2003) and that there will be influencing factors external to the school that will have an impact on the school context.

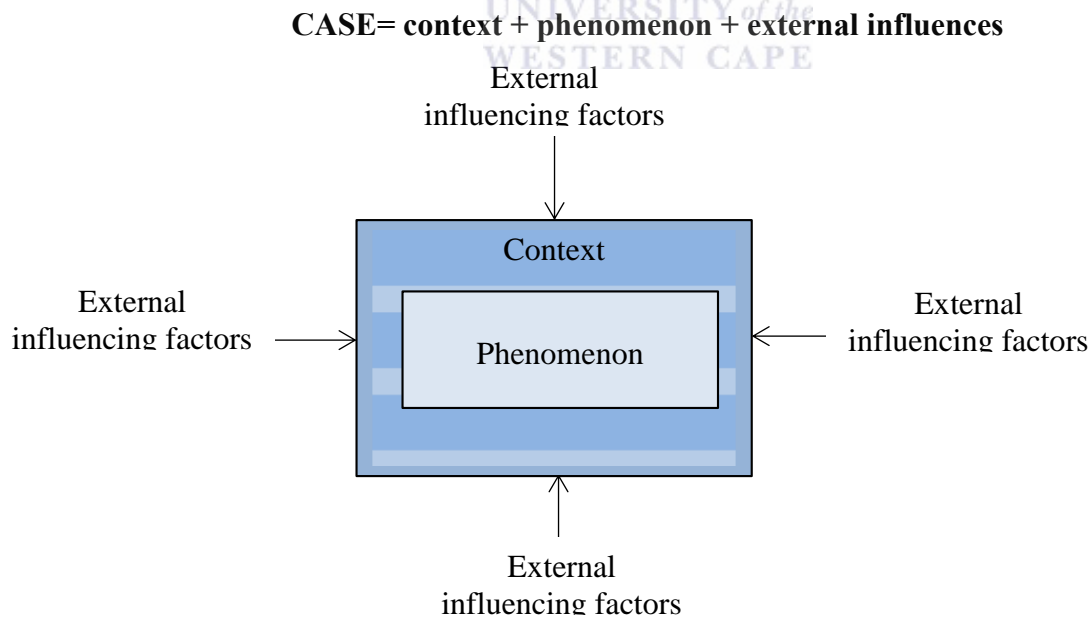


Figure 8: Case defined for this study (adapted from Miles & Huberman, 1994)

4.2.2.2 Multiple case study design

Yin (2003) recommends the multiple case design, claiming that the evidence is more compelling than in single case studies. This study employed a multiple case study design in order to understand the change processes of HPS implementation across the three schools. I treated each school of the three schools in the study as individual cases and, by analysing them separately, I was able to compare themes across the cases and determine whether a theme was unique to a particular school or was consistent across the cases, giving me a general understanding of the implementation process of HPS. Yin (2009, p. 142) explains: “In a multiple case study, one goal is to build a general explanation that fits each individual case, even though the cases will vary in detail”. A multiple case study therefore allows each case to be analysed separately, taking note of its particularity, and subsequently allowing cross-case analysis to show, not only the similarities across cases, but also the uniqueness of each case (Dopson, 2003; Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007).

4.3 STUDY SETTING

The study setting has been described in Chapter 1, section 1.6.

4.4 STUDY POPULATION

The study population included students who were involved with the HPS process, the teachers who were directly involved, the school principals, and the school facilitators. According to Stake (1995, p. 6), in case study research: “balance and variety [in the study population] are important; ... opportunity to learn is of primary importance”. In this study, the study population included the various actors who were involved with, or knowledgeable of, HPS, from the different hierarchical systems in the school and function areas. This ensured that different perspectives of HPS implementation could be studied (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007; Ritchie, Lewis, & Elam, 2003).

4.5 SAMPLING

I used purposive sampling for this study, as it is particularly suited to case study research (Ritchie, Lewis, & Elam, 2003). The integration of the perspectives, which were obtained from the various actors in the sample, contextualised the findings and provided a richer and more in-

depth understanding of HPS implementation. For purposive sampling, the researcher sets certain criteria for inclusion (Robson, 2011). The aim is to select potential participants who have the knowledge, perception and experiences of a particular phenomenon, to answer the research questions (Gibson & Brown, 2009). However, the disadvantage of purposive sampling is that it can contribute to bias, as the researcher is responsible for selecting the specific criteria for inclusion.

The sampling procedures played out differently at each school. Sampling at School A proceeded as intended because everybody who was approached to participate responded, except for one male teacher. At School B, everyone responded, except for one student who did not turn up for his interview. The lead teacher organised for another student, who was actively involved in HPS, to be interviewed and, although this was a good interview, it was not the same information that I would likely have gained from the original student as they had different experiences. The situation for School C was different to the other two schools because, apart from the interview with the lead teacher, I failed to obtain any other samples, which was a limitation to the study. The sample size, inclusion and exclusion criteria, and the selection procedures for the different samples, are described in detail next.

4.5.1 Students

4.5.1.1 Sample size

There were two samples of students: a sample of students for focus group discussions (FGDs) and a sample for individual interviews with students.

I requested a total of 12 students for each FGD, with both males and females being represented. However, the final sample was different for each school and depended on who was available at the time. The sample size for the student FGDs is given in Table 3 and, for the individual student interviews, in Table 4.

Table 3: Student FGD sample

School	Intended sample		Actual sample				Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Age range	Grade range	
A	6	6	3	8	16-17 yrs	9-11	11
B	6	6	3	3	16-18 yrs	10-12	6
C	6	6	6	2	14-18 yrs	8-11	8
							25

Table 4: Student individual interviews sample

School	Intended sample		Actual sample		
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Total
A	1	1	3	0	3
B	1	1	1	1	2
C	1	1	0	0	0
					5

4.5.1.2 Inclusion criteria

The inclusion criterion for the sample of students for the FGDs was that they had to have been involved in some HPS activities for at least one year, although involvement in all the HPS activities was not a prerequisite, as I knew that the students moved in and out of the project. However, the assumption was that they would still be able to share their experiences through their involvement of some stages of HPS implementation. The sample of students for the FGDs was selected because they had shared experiences and knew one another through this engagement, despite them being from different grades. Such commonalities are important for the smooth running of group processes (Horner, 2000).

The inclusion criteria for the student individual interviews was that they took specific leadership roles in the project. The other criteria was that, except for the leaders in the previous criterion, they had to have participated in the FGD as I wanted to follow-up on certain comments that I thought warranted further investigation.

4.5.1.3 Exclusion criteria

The exclusion criterion for both the FGDs and student individual interviews was that students who were not directly involved in the implementation of HPS could not be included as they would not have been able to comment on the actual process of HPS implementation, even though they might have been exposed to it. In addition, for the individual interviews, the students who were not part of the student FGDs were excluded, except for the students who took leadership roles in HPS.

4.5.1.4 Selection procedure

For the selection of the students for FGDs, I asked the lead teacher at each school to identify and recruit students according to the inclusion criteria. I decided that the teachers knew them well and would be able to identify the students who could potentially provide rich information.

I personally identified the sample of students for individual interviews after the FGDs in order to gain a deeper insight into the HPS implementation from their perspective. This was done in consultation with the school facilitators, who also knew the students, to confirm that the students would be knowledgeable and informative about the project. The lead teacher then contacted the potential individuals for participation.

At School A, two of the male interviewees had specific leadership roles in the core HPS group. I also requested an interview with one female student, who took a key leadership role in the core student group and had been involved in HPS from the beginning. However, in the end, she was not part of the sample as she had another commitment on the day that was set for the interview. I was unable to recruit her at a later date as we were not allowed to work with the students in the last term, which is when my data collection period ended. The lead teacher opportunistically selected a third male to take the place of the female as he was available at the time of the interview. Even though he was not in a leadership position in the project, as was my intention for this sample, the information that he provided was useful in confirming what the other participants had shared in their interviews and the FGDs.

At School B, the female in the individual interview sample was one of the two chairpersons of the HPS student group but had not been present at the FGD. My intention was to interview the

male chairperson of the broader student HPS group, but I was unsuccessful at recruiting him, even with several attempts by the lead teacher. The lead teacher then recruited another student, who was chairperson of one of the smaller HPS groups at the school.

Contrary to the other two schools, I was not able to include individual students at School C in my sample because they were not contactable even after several attempts to reach them.

Even though I did not have the sample that I had originally planned for the student FGDs and individual interviews, the information gathered from the students provided rich data for further understanding of the implementation of HPS from the students' perspective.

4.5.2 Teachers and other staff members

4.5.2.1 Sample size

The sample of teachers at school A was comprised of the lead teacher; another female teacher; and the VP (female), who were involved with HPS since its inception; and a new female teacher, who was involved for one year. Although I had wanted to include the only male teacher (the teacher responsible for Life Orientation – LO) who was involved in HPS in the sample, I was not successful in recruiting him, as he always had some other responsibility. Although he attended some HPS workshops, he was not as actively involved as the other HPS teachers and I therefore felt that it was not that crucial to interview him, hence me not making further attempts to recruit him.

At School B, the sample was composed of four female teachers, including the lead teacher, as well as the school secretary (female), who had also been actively involved in the project since its inception. Two of the teachers were involved from the start but the third teacher was very new and so did not have much experience with HPS, and was thus not able to contribute much to the discussion.

The sample of teachers at School C comprised only the lead teacher. I made several attempts to interview the other HPS teachers and the secretary, who was also involved in HPS, but they kept postponing the dates and eventually were just not available by the time my data collection period ended. The sample of teachers and other staff is shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Teachers and other staff sample

		Intended sample		Actual sample		
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Total
School A	Lead teacher	0	1	0	1	1
	Other HPS teachers	1	2	0	2	2
	VP	0	1	0	1	1
School B	Lead teacher	0	1	0	1	1
	Other HPS teachers	0	4	0	3	3
	Secretary	0	1	0	1	1
School C	Lead teacher	0	1	0	1	1
	Other HPS teachers	0	2	0	0	0
	Secretary	0	1	0	0	0
						10

4.5.2.2 Inclusion criteria

The sample of teachers included only those directly involved with HPS implementation, given that they were the most informed regarding the process.

4.5.2.3 Exclusion criteria

I did not include teachers who were not directly involved with HPS implementation, because I felt that they would not be knowledgeable enough about the process of HPS implementation.

4.5.2.4 Selection procedure

I personally approached the lead teachers of each of the three schools for individual interviews. Furthermore, I asked the lead teachers to recruit two or three teachers who were involved in HPS at their respective schools. I felt that the lead teachers would know who would be most appropriate for an interview, as they had in theory worked closely together on the project. This could be construed as a biased sample of the HPS teachers because the lead teacher could select those in favour of her and the project. However, because I was involved in the project myself, and had experience of their involvement, I was able to judge the fairness of the teachers' selection.

4.5.3 Principals

4.5.3.1 Sample size

The sample of the principals is shown in Table 6

Table 6: Principals sample

School	Intended sample		Actual sample		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
A	1	0	1	0	1
B	1	0	1	0	1
C	1	0	0	0	0
					2

The principals of Schools A and B were purposively sampled because of their leadership positions. These principals, even though they were mostly not actively involved with the HPS implementation process, were aware of what was happening. As heads of the schools, they were able to provide valuable information from different perspectives, thus adding to the depth of the data.

4.5.3.2 Selection procedure

I asked the lead teachers at Schools A and B to approach the principals to ask if they would agree to an interview, which they did. However, at School C, there were three changes in principal from the beginning of the project. I was not able to include the first two in my sample, as they had left the school before my data collection started. The third principal had just commenced his duties and I was therefore reluctant to include him because I felt that he would not be able to provide me with information-rich data.

4.5.4 School facilitators

4.5.4.1 Sample size

The sample for the individual interviews with the school facilitators comprised the three HPS team members, who were all female and had worked with their respective schools on a regular basis for the duration of the project.

4.5.4.2 Selection procedure

I personally requested the participation of the school facilitators.

4.6 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Different qualitative data collection methods were employed for this study, because data collection in case study research requires a variety of techniques that will make evidence for the study stronger (Yin, 2003). The methods used in this study included:

- FGDs with students
- Individual in-depth interviews with teachers, principals, students and school facilitators
- Observations at the schools
- Documentary reviews of meetings and workshop notes
- Secondary data from UWC team's FGDs

The FGDs and interviews were the main data collection methods that I employed. All the interviews and FGDs were conducted in the language of choice of the participants. I am fluent in both English and Afrikaans, and these are the languages that are spoken in these schools and

communities. All the interviews and FGDs were audio-recorded with the pre-obtained consent of the participants. Observations, documentary reviews and secondary data from the UWC team's FGDs were additional data collection methods, but served mainly as sources of triangulation. The latter methods were particularly useful in the case of School C because of the limited data collected there, as described earlier.

In case study research, just as with any qualitative research, field work is conducted in a real-world context in which the researcher works with everyday situations. The researcher therefore has to integrate the data collection plans according to the situation at the time. There is no controlling of the context to suit the study as in some other research strategies, especially those mainly used in quantitative research (Yin, 2003). For example, I wanted to conduct FGDs with the teachers, but because of their work commitments I was obliged to do individual interviews or paired interviews when opportunities arose.

For this study data were collected on the internal and external contexts of the school, as well as on the processes that had occurred since initiation of the project. These included the experiences of different stakeholders with the HPS processes, their perceptions of influencing factors, any changes that might have occurred, as well as their perceptions of the factors that can contribute to sustainability of the HPS approach. This process of data collection ensured that data relating not only to the phenomenon, but also to the context was collected in order to understand the case fully, as is required in case study research (Yin, 2003).

4.6.1 Focus group discussions

I chose the FGD method of data collection for this study because the FGD occurs in a more “naturalistic setting” that reflects the social context of the participants more than an individual interview (Ritchie, 2003; Krueger, 1988) as confirmed by Finch and Lewis (2003, p. 172):

It reflects the social constructions – normative influences, collective as well as individual self-identity, shared meanings – that are an important part of the way in which we perceive, experience and understand the world around us.

Another reason for FGDs was the fact that this method relies on group dynamics to produce responses from individuals, who will reflect on their own experiences while stimulated by the

group discussion. Their ideas will be shaped through conversation with others in the group, and this will give them opportunities to deepen and refine their insights into their own experiences and attitudes around the issue (Kitzinger, 1994; Peterson-Sweeney, 2005). The FGD also gives opportunities for airing and clarifying differences amongst individuals in a group (Finch & Lewis, 2003; Kitzinger, 1994). All these factors were deemed important in order to gain in-depth information for understanding HPS implementation. However, the findings of an FGD cannot be generalised to a larger population as the group does not necessarily represent the larger population. In this study I was not looking to generalise to all schools, but rather to gain the perspectives of the participants who were directly involved, in order to understand the implementation of HPS at their particular school from their point of view (Stake, 1995).

Focus group discussions were conducted with three groups of students – one at each school. I chose this method with the students, as it has been found to be particularly useful in research with school children and adolescents (Horner, 2000; Peterson-Sweeney, 2005). In FGDs the power imbalance between adults and young people is minimised as the group takes responsibility for the responses or reflections, thereby providing “a safe haven” for expressing their views (Horner, 2000).

For the student FGDs, I considered factors such as peer influence and social desirability, which are important aspects in this developmental phase of adolescents, as alluded to in the literature review (Allen et al., 2005; Masten & Coatsworth, 1998; Weller, 2006). These factors can play a major role because, in social desirability, views that do not conform to the group might not be shared for fear of being different. On the other hand, individuals might feel more confident in sharing their views because their peers have also done so. Similarly, Horner (2000) posits that in using FGDs with school children, certain factors need to be considered, including: cognitive development, communication skills and peer influence.

It is precisely because of such factors that I chose a moderator who had experience with working with young people and was a skilful facilitator (Horner, 2000; Finch & Lewis, 2003). I did not have much experience with young people, and therefore decided not to do the moderation myself. My role at the FGDs was mainly as an observer and listener, occasionally asking a

probing question or asking for some clarity in the discussion, and taking detailed notes. I also noted the participants' non-verbal cues, when they did not agree with what someone in the group had said.

My choice of moderator was determined by her experience in working with students as an educational psychologist, and therefore her knowledge of the students' developmental stages (Peterson-Sweeney, 2005). In addition, I had previously witnessed her skilful facilitation when she worked first-hand with the HPS students. Another reason for choosing her was that she was a member of the UWC team and was therefore knowledgeable about the discussion topic - a criterion recommended by Peterson-Sweeney (2005).

As an observer in the student FGDs, I could see that the moderator was able to fulfil her role fully. As recommended by Horner (2000) and Finch and Lewis (2003), she encouraged group interaction through, for example, linking issues that different students had raised, and highlighting their similarities and differences. She also engaged all members of the groups, drawing in those who were silent or withdrawn, in an unobtrusive manner, as it is essential in order to elicit information from everyone and thus obtain a full picture of the participants' experiences and views. One important aspect of the role of the moderator is having to negotiate the group dynamics when there is a dominant member, and find a way of engaging others at the same time. For example, the moderator in this study would say "*I have heard your opinion, but now would also like to hear from others*". At all times, the moderator was an active listener and was respectful towards the participants, which is important in acknowledging that the students have their own knowledge and experiences to contribute to the data (Horner, 2000).

All three student FGDs took place at their respective schools; were scheduled for after school hours; and lasted approximately one-and-a-half hours. The lead teachers of each school arranged the dates and times. From my experience in working with the students on HPS implementation, the schools were a convenient place for them to meet as they were where the students normally met for their HPS meetings. It is recommended that FGDs with young people take place in a setting that they are familiar and comfortable with, and at a time that is convenient to them (Horner, 2000; Peterson-Sweeney, 2005).

Before commencing with the formal aspect of the FGD in this study, the students were welcomed and given something to eat, which is an important incentive but also a way of showing appreciation to the participants for their time (Peterson-Sweeney, 2005). We emphasised to the students that active participation was important in order to capture all the different perspectives, and the fact that there were no right or wrong answers. We encouraged the students to speak their minds even if they disagreed with someone else's views, explaining that everyone's perspectives would be a valuable contribution to the research and to HPS implementation.

The FGDs in this study took the form of a workshop with the research objectives being used as a guide to stimulate the discussion (See Appendix 2). The metaphor of going on a road journey was employed as a creative means of collecting the data, as advised by others in the qualitative research literature. According to Ritchie (2003, p. 37), FGDs "are ideal for creative thinking and are a better setting for using stimulation material ... which would be contrived in a one-to-one situation". Similarly, Finch and Lewis (2003, p. 189) argued that the use of "enabling and projective techniques", which are more commonly used in group discussions, can help to focus the discussion and refine participants' views or encourage further debate.

The discussions were conducted mainly in Afrikaans because that was the language in which the students were most comfortable, and the moderator and I are both fluent in Afrikaans. It is recommended that the opening topic for FGDs is general and easy to talk about in order to put the participants at ease and make them comfortable with the moderator (Finch & Lewis, 2004). The moderator started the discussion by asking the participants to share their perceptions about their own school contexts, before narrowing the discussion to HPS. Next, she drew a picture of a road on a flip chart and asked them to describe their HPS journey (their experiences) by writing down on paper the activities with which they had been involved and then placing these papers on the road. In the next two activities, they had to reflect on what had supported them in the process or made it work, and what the perceived challenges were. These were also all placed on the road. Each activity was followed by a discussion. Finally, they were asked what advice they would have for a school that wanted to become an HPS (recommendations and lessons learnt). When necessary, they were probed more on the different aspects by the moderator responding "*Let's talk more about this one*"; "*Please explain this point*"; or "*How did you experience this?*".

On reflection, the chosen style of data collection with the students was a useful exercise because the students were fully engaged in the process, and it seemed to suit their development stage by allowing them to communicate with one another in a constructive way and enabling them to participate meaningfully in a discussion. They were open and comfortable with each other. Due to the ease with which they reached their decisions and came to consensus, even if there was not full agreement, I could see that they were used to working together through their engagement with HPS. They achieved this by listening to each other's views, acknowledging their differences, and then coming to a compromise.

The students from all three schools were very vocal – highlighting both the positive and negative aspects of their schools. Their confidence in voicing their opinions quite freely could be because they were comfortable with the moderator and myself, as we were already familiar to them. I attributed this to the participatory and respectful way that we worked with the students throughout the project, which is important in adult/youth relationships, as alluded to in the literature review (Jennings et al., 2006).

At the end of the FGDs, the moderator summarised the key points and asked the participants if they wanted to add or change anything. The moderator and I had a debriefing session immediately after the FGDs, at which we discussed the main issues that had emerged and reflected on the process to see whether anything could be done differently. Generally, the FGDs ran smoothly without any changes to subsequent FGD processes. I wrote up the flipchart material and compared it with my notes and the audio-recordings from the FGDs.

4.6.2 Individual interviews

Individual interviews were conducted with the teachers, students and principals at the different schools, as well as with the school facilitators. Individual interviews are one of the main forms of data collection in qualitative research. They are a flexible and adaptable way of exploring issues with individuals (Legard, Keegan, & Ward, 2003; Robson, 2011). They can be regarded as a “conversation”, but the difference is that the aim of a qualitative interview is to purposefully construct knowledge about the social world through interacting with people. In this process, the

researcher is not a vehicle for transmitting knowledge but is rather a participant in co-creating knowledge and meaning (Legard, Keegan & Ward, 2003).

I also conducted face-to-face interviews with selected students as I wanted to explore their experiences with the HPS approach without them being influenced by others, as might have happened in the FGDs. I was able to probe for more information when they were not forthcoming, and draw on data generated through the student FGDs and through my own experience with the project. In face-to-face interviews, it is possible to adapt the line of inquiry, probe for more depth if necessary, and clarify certain points from the perspective of both the interviewer and interviewee (Robson, 2011) especially if the phenomenon is complex, like HPS. Another advantage of the face-to-face interviews was that I could pick up on non-verbal cues and adapt the interview accordingly if I suspected that a student was not comfortable with the line of questioning or with the way a question was asked.

In addition, Kvale (2007, p. 14) posits that:

A well-conducted research interview may be a rare and enriching experience for the subject, who may obtain new insights into his or her life situation. The interaction may also be anxiety-provoking and evoke defence mechanisms in the interviewee as well as in the interviewer.

For example, in one interview, I noticed how uncomfortable the student was initially and discovered that the lead teacher who had recruited him had not briefed him sufficiently. He admitted to me that he was anxious, thinking that he was going to be tested on HPS. However, once I had explained the purpose of the research and the interview, he relaxed. In fact, the interview allowed him to reflect on his personal growth since the start of his involvement with HPS.

In qualitative research, interviews can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured. Using an interview guide, I chose to conduct semi-structured interviews as I wanted certain questions answered – such as what the facilitators and barriers were to HPS implementation, without being directive. Instead, I probed further if answers were not forthcoming. A semi-structured interview uses an interview guide that lists the topics to be covered, with some questions and probes that are not set in stone but rather depend on the flow of the interview, which will be different from

interview to interview. I wanted my interviews to be more of a conversation than an interrogation, and therefore structured interviews were not suitable. A structured interview has questions that are predetermined and usually in a set order, although the questions can be open-ended – a characteristic that was also not suited for this study. In this type of interview, the interviewer lets the conversation develop freely where there is a general interest in a particular issue but there are no particular questions that need to be answered (Robson, 2011).

Individual interviews were also conducted with the school facilitators, and these took place when and where it was most convenient for them. The first one took place in my office, the second one at my home, and the third at the school facilitator's home. Although all three interviews were in different locations, there was no difference in the way that the participants responded in that they spoke freely about their experiences and perceptions. They were relaxed and open to the questions, which I attributed to our close working relationship on the project and their interest in the research being similar to the purpose of my research.

All interviews lasted approximately one hour. All the interviews with the teachers, students and principals took place at the respective schools except for one interview with a lead HPS teacher. This interview took place in my office as the teacher was on campus at the time and therefore it was convenient for both of us. All the interviews at the schools took place after school hours except for three – one with an HPS teacher, one with a VP, and one with a principal – which took place during school hours. However, there was no difference in the way that the participants responded or how relaxed they were. Only one lead teacher did not seem to be comfortable but, from my experience of working with her, I knew she was juggling many things at the same time, which was typical of her personality.

An interview guide was designed but, after some initial general questions, I did not follow it strictly and let the conversation flow in the direction that the interviewee was taking as digressions can also lead to interesting and sometimes unexpected knowledge (Dicicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006), thus broadening the scope of my inquiry. However, when I felt that the interview was moving off the topic I would steer the conversation back to the topic again. As the

interviews progressed and I became more comfortable with my ability to gather the information that was necessary for my research, I relied less and less on the guide.

4.6.3 Observations

Data were also generated through observations, the main purpose being triangulation with other data collected in this study. Gibson and Brown (2009) posit that, as the data for the observation is being generated, the researcher has to consider the significance of that data for the research. This can be done by comparing that data to other data collected for the research.

I specifically observed actual interventions that took place; the physical surroundings of the school; different relationships and interactions in the schools generally; and the way the schools functioned. In addition, I sat in on all the UWC team's meetings, and was present for various HPS activities, all of which provided opportunities for observations. I also observed meetings between the school facilitators and the HPS committee at two of the schools. As recommended by Neuman (1997), I endeavoured to pay attention to what was going on at the schools through careful observation in order to capture the physical surroundings and also the "core of social life" (Neuman, 1997, p. 361). I observed the people, their actions and interactions (Gibson & Brown, 2009) not only in the schools but outside the schools as well, when opportunities arose, such as at the student leadership camps.

I made notes of my observations after each data collection episode. Apart from describing what I had observed, I also reflected on the reasons behind my observations. This data enhanced my understanding of the contextual factors that influenced HPS implementation. Ultimately "why things happened as they did" became more explicit.

4.6.4 Documentary review

Documentary review was an additional method used for data collection. Documents can be useful sources of information for qualitative research (Kelly, 2006) and this aspect was particularly useful for verifying the data that was generated by the other methods that were used in this study (Gibson & Brown, 2009). Information was gathered from the minutes of the UWC

team meetings (including reflections on activities); workshop notes; school facilitators' notes; HPS committee meetings; and school improvement plans. Keeping the research objectives in mind, the documentary review encompassed the start-up process; resultant structures; plans; and interventions that occurred subsequent to the introduction of the project. The data collected through the documentary review aided in the description of the HPS activities as the operational aspects of the project were all documented. I regarded this as important as I realised that the participants could not possibly remember the details of everything that had transpired over the preceding two and a half years. The notes from the UWC team were particularly useful during the analysis process as a form of triangulation with the team's FGDs and the school facilitators' interviews.

4.6.5 Secondary data from UWC team FGD

Secondary data from a UWC team FGD that was conducted with the UWC team was also used for this study. The purpose of that FGD was for the team to reflect on the process of the project as form of evaluation. The data collected from the team, as a body external to the school system but the initiator of the project, gave another perspective on the process of HPS implementation.

This FGD was moderated by a person who was known to the team but was external to it, who was also knowledgeable about HPS processes. As a member of the team, I was solely a participant in this FGD and did not have any input into the interview guide for it. It covered the challenges, enablers and lessons learnt. I analysed the original transcript in the same way as the transcripts of the data for the current study.

4.7 DATA COLLECTION TOOLS

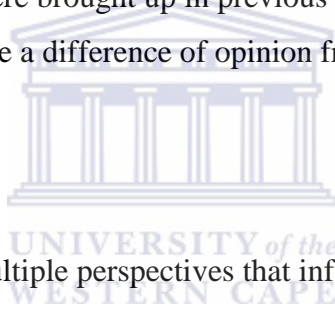
The interview guides and FGD guide were based on the research objectives. The questions for the teachers and students covered the following key areas:

- Perceptions of their schools generally
- What was happening with regard to HPS at the schools
- The challenges and enablers of HPS implementation at their schools

- School-level influences of HPS
- Suggestions on how to do things differently from lessons learnt
- Suggestions for sustainability

The principal's interview guide covered similar key areas but was more about perceptions than actual experiences as most of them were not directly involved in HPS implementation.

The questions were open-ended and, informed by the conceptual framework, literature and my own experience with the project, I added some probing questions, which were used when needed. Review of these tools was on-going, as data collection and preliminary data analysis took place concurrently, providing opportunities for adjustments where I deemed them necessary. For example, I realised that I had not asked any school context-specific questions in the initial interviews with the teachers, which I then included subsequently. I could also probe more around specific issues that were brought up in previous data, such as issues around leadership where there seemed to be a difference of opinion from different participants. (See Appendices 3, 4, 5)



4.8 DATA ANALYSIS

During data collection, I gained multiple perspectives that informed my analysis. Drawing on the meanings that the participants attached to their experiences, and also my own experiences with HPS, these perspectives gave me an in-depth understanding. In qualitative data analysis, the researcher tries to “build an explanation based on the way in which different meanings and understandings within a situation come together to influence an outcome” (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003, p. 216). In other words, data analysis entails making sense of the data (Merriman, 1998).

When doing analysis in case study research, it is useful to consider Yin's (2003) distinction between holistic and embedded case studies. My study was a holistic multiple case study because I had a single unit of analysis, which was the school, and the implementation of HPS was the phenomenon under study. Each school was analysed separately in order to explore HPS implementation within each case first, which was followed by cross case analysis to understand the implementation process generally. Holistic case studies only have one unit of analysis,

whether this is a single or a multiple case study. Embedded case studies, on the other hand, have several units of analysis even in a single case study.

I analysed the data for each case separately before doing cross case analysis. Ritchie and Lewis (2003) and Eisenhardt (1989) noted that non-cross-sectional analysis is more suited to multiple case studies, which they claim give a better idea of the “distinctiveness” of each case. In this way, each case can be understood, with its own structures and characteristics, and in its own context, before doing cross case analysis – at which point, some of this detail can become lost. In addition, becoming familiar with each case facilitates cross case analysis (Eisenhardt, 1989). In searching for cross-case patterns, categories are selected across the cases, and similarities and differences are identified.

I used the ATLAS.ti software package version 6.0.15 to manage the data and facilitate data analysis. All the transcripts were entered into the software and labelled according to their source. They were then separated into three “families” according to their respective cases. The codes for each transcript were entered. The software facilitated analysis because I could not only generate individual codes with their related extracts of data for each transcript, but could also apply the codes across transcripts and cases, which made cross-case analysis easier.

4.8.1 Thematic coding analysis

I chose to use Robson's (2011) thematic coding analysis, which is a generic approach to qualitative research analysis. According to Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 86) “... thematic analysis involves the searching across a data set, be that a number of interviews or focus groups, or a range of texts, to find repeated patterns of meaning”. Some of the advantages of this approach that I found useful were its flexibility, its ability to highlight similarities and differences across the data set, its usefulness in summarising the main points in a large amount of data, and it offering opportunities for thick descriptions (Robson, 2011).

The thematic coding analysis in this study was both inductive, where some codes emerged from working with the data, and deductive, where the codes were derived from previous reading of the literature.

Robson (2011) described thematic coding analysis as having five phases, although these may not necessarily occur sequentially. These phases were followed and adapted as below.

1) Familiarising yourself with the data.

Ritchie, Spencer, & O'Connor (2003) used the analogy of scaffolding for this phase, comparing familiarisation to the foundation of the scaffold. In emphasising the importance of this step, they pointed out that if the foundation was weak, it would compromise the whole structure. This is the phase where I immersed myself in the data by reading through all the transcripts, field notes and selected documents. In addition, I listened to some of the audiotapes in order to become closely familiar with the range of data. In this first round of analysis, I made notes about the issues that came up for me, in the margin of the hard copies of the transcripts.

2) Generating initial codes

In this phase of analysis, the first set of codes is generated. Codes are labels that are assigned to a chunk of text to give it meaning, which can be referred to as a meaning unit (Miles & Huberman, 1994). I closely read a sample of transcripts covering the range of participants and all three schools. Ritchie and Spencer (1994) advised that a range of data be looked at in this stage, in order to cover the diversity that might occur. I looked at the transcripts of a few teachers' interviews, students' FGDs, students' individual interviews, the school facilitators' transcripts, that of a principal, and also the UWC team's FGD. I felt satisfied that I had covered the range of participants and had gained an initial sense of the data and the main issues. From the sample of transcripts, I developed a list of codes that was derived from the data (inductive). These initial codes were mainly descriptive and close to the data. Ritchie and Spencer (1994, p. 180) recommend that, because coding is about "labelling data in manageable "bites" for subsequent retrieval and exploration", it is preferable to keep the codes as close to the data as possible. Therefore, codes should mainly be descriptive, with more intense analysis occurring at a later stage (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

This phase was not just a straightforward matter of allocating codes, as I also had to make a judgment about each piece of data being allocated. I had to question what the data was telling me and how it was answering my research questions, and then make a judgment as to its meaning

and of its most appropriate allocation. I therefore defined the codes as much as I could and, in places, added inclusion and exclusion criteria. I also accorded definitions if the codes were not very obvious, so that I could be consistent in my analysis over time in order to assist with the retrieval and allocation of data, as Miles and Huberman (1994) suggested. In some instances in this study, the same piece of data was allocated more than one code, which is claimed to be good for exploratory studies (Miles & Huberman, 1994), and which highlighted the associations that were emerging.

Once I had developed the initial codes list, I reviewed the codes and combined similar ones. Then, I coded the remaining data sets from a school before moving onto the next. This gave me a full picture of each school, which was important for understanding the particulars of each case, in order to draw conclusions about the phenomenon of implementing HPS as it played out in the three different school contexts. However, I did not restrict myself to the codes list and continued to add codes when I came across data that I felt did not fit any of the existing codes. Once the coding was completed manually, the data were entered into ATLAS.ti software, which facilitated the management of the data. Each transcript was labelled for easy identification in ATLAS.ti and the codes were entered, including the related meaning units (extracts from the data), definitions of each code, and their inclusion and exclusion criteria, where appropriate.

3) Identifying themes

I sorted all the codes into potential themes and put all the data related to a particular theme together. According to Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 82) “a theme captures something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set”, which would then assist with interpretation of the data. Some data were recoded if I saw that they fitted better under a different theme. The ATLAS.ti software facilitated the grouping of the codes to develop themes.

4) Constructing thematic networks

In this phase, the relationships between the themes formed in the patterns that were emerging. These can be presented as matrices or networks. For the cross case analysis, I applied the themes that emerged from the cases, across the three cases, using matrices as suggested by Stake (2006),

in order to see the similarities and differences. After allocating themes to each individual case, I constructed matrices for each theme and a column for each case to facilitate cross case analysis. I summarised the findings under each theme in each column, after which I made tentative assertions for that particular theme across the cases. Based on Stake's (2006) advice, I ensured that each assertion had a single focus and was supported by evidence from the data.

5) *Integration and interpretation*

The assertions made in the previous step formed the basis for my interpretations. This is the phase where, through on-going analysis, the themes are refined, clearly defined, and named, to tell the overall story. The analysis is related back to the research objectives, and the literature (Braun & Clarke, 2006). According to Toma (2000, p. 181), this phase is about "... integrating data from multiple sources into some sort of coherent whole. Not just a set of ideas and opinions".

The data analysis process was by no means an easy one. It required constant moving backwards and forwards between the data and the analysis. This was facilitated by reading and rereading the transcripts; changing codes and themes and changing back again; and often adding to my confusion before clarity emerged. I also had regular and intense consultations with my supervisors and other colleagues through the different phases of analysis. Lastly the consultation of relevant literature informed my analysis.

4.9 RIGOUR

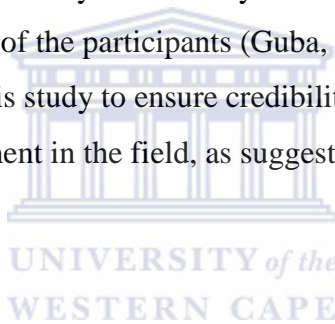
Constantly evaluating the quality of the data throughout the research process is an essential process for ensuring rigour in qualitative research (Robson, 2011; Rule & John, 2011). In order to do this, issues such as appropriateness and adequacy of sampling and data collection methods need to be assessed to ensure the comprehensiveness of scope and variation. Robson (2011, p. 157) succinctly explains the purpose of rigour:

The basic principle here is that you are never taking it as self-evident that a particular interpretation can be made of your data but instead that you are continually and assiduously charting and justifying the steps through which your interpretations were made.

Anfara, Brown and Mangione (2002, p. 28) cite Denzin (1978, p. 7) in defining rigour in qualitative research as the attempt to make “data and explanatory schemes as public and replicable as possible”. In addition, because qualitative research is about reporting interpretations of other people’s perceptions and not stating hard facts as in quantitative research (Walsham, 1995), it is essential to establish rigour so that readers can decide for themselves whether the findings are credible. To ensure rigour or “trustworthiness”, as Guba (1981) refers to it, within the constructivist-interpretivist paradigm, good qualitative research has to be credible, dependable, confirmable and transferable (Guba, 1981), and these are the qualities that I strived for in this research.

4.9.1 Credibility

The credibility of a study is determined by how closely the findings reflect the truth or the real world as seen from the perspective of the participants (Guba, 1981; (Walsham, 1995). The strategies that were employed in this study to ensure credibility included triangulation; peer debriefing; and prolonged engagement in the field, as suggested by Guba (1981). These strategies are expanded on below.



4.9.1.1 Triangulation

In this study, triangulation was achieved by using different data collection methods, and also different sources of data, to strengthen credibility, as recommended in the qualitative literature (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). In addition to ensuring methods triangulation by using different data collection methods, as described in section 4.7, source triangulation was achieved by selecting different constituencies of participants, as described in section 4.4. Yin (2003) claims that the important advantage of triangulation is that the different sources can be looked at as different measures of the same phenomenon. By combining the different sources of evidence and using different methods of data collection that complement one another, a true picture of the phenomenon will emerge as more evidence comes to light, thereby ensuring credibility (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Stake, 1995).

4.9.1.2 Peer debriefing

Peer debriefing (Guba, 1981; Rule & John, 2011) was another form of credibility employed in this study. Peer debriefing can guard against researcher bias (Robson, 2011). Peer debriefing is done with someone who has knowledge of the research or the phenomenon under study but who is not directly involved in the research (Anfara et al., 2002; Creswell & Miller, 2000). In this study, the UWC team members, who were familiar with the project but not researchers in this study, served as peer reviewers, as I shared aspects of my research process and preliminary findings with them at different stages through the research process. I also had regular consultations and discussions with my supervisors – one of whom was the principal investigator of the project, though not this particular research. These peer debriefings allowed a review of the research process over time, acted as a support mechanism, and gave me opportunities to test my developing insights and challenge my assumptions.

4.9.1.3 Prolonged engagement in the field

Prolonged engagement in the field was another strategy employed for ensuring credibility, and involves being at the site for a prolonged period (Anfara et al., 2002; Creswell & Miller, 2000). This will encourage building the trust of the people being studied, and establishing rapport with them. In this way they should feel more comfortable about sharing information with the researcher. Even though I was not in the schools for a long continuous period during the research period, I was involved with the schools as part of the UWC team since inception of the project, which was two and a half years prior to the start of data collection. I had regular contact with the schools over this period, during which time I gained the trust of the school participants. This facilitated the ease with which I was able to collect data in the schools. Because of this regular contact, I was also able to make observations, which added to the data for this study – all of which strengthened the credibility of this study.

4.9.1.4 Confirmability and dependability

Confirmability in rigour refers to whether the reporting of the various stages of the research is acceptable and appropriate (Sharts-Hopko, 2002), which refers to “the security and durability of a research finding” (Sharts-Hopko, 2002) – thus implying dependability. These notions can be

compared to the notion of reliability in quantitative studies and are concerned with whether or not the findings will be replicated if the same methods are repeated (Lewis & Ritchie, 2003). Using multiple cases in this study ensured that the findings could be replicated in the next case, in a new context, and with different participants, by testing emerging patterns from one case to another (Miles & Huberman, 1994), thereby increasing the rigour of the findings.

Creating an audit trail is a means of reaching confirmability and dependability (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Guba, 1981; Sharts-Hopko, 2002) which, in case study research, can be achieved through creating a case study database (Yin, 2003). This is where all the documentation for the study is kept, including field notes, research diaries, transcripts, documents used for reviews, and memos of the analysis process. The audit trail for this research includes hard and soft copies of all the verbatim transcripts; field notes; and reflections and memos on, for example, the analysis process – all of which are systematically filed. In addition, the ATLAS.ti software, with all the coded transcripts, can be made available to others for scrutiny. The documents for the audit trail must be kept in such a way as to be easily accessible to an external person for scrutiny, and the evidence throughout the process must be able to be traced by that person (Yin, 2003). The transcripts, as well as related memos that recorded my thought processes during analysis, were imported into the ATLAS.ti software, where the coding and categorising have been made explicit.

A selection of my field and reflective notes, and raw data, was shared with my supervisors to allow them to make judgments about whether or not my interpretations were linked to the data that was collected for the study. By making this information on the research process public, judgments can be made about whether or not a study has indeed been carried out rigorously (Babbie & Mouton, 2003).

Moreover, to increase credibility, at the end of each interview or FGD I summarised the discussion for the participants so that they could verify my understanding of what they had said. I also held a debriefing session with the moderator after every FGD, all of which added to confirm my interpretation of the data.

4.9.1.5 Transferability

Another quality of rigour is transferability, which is where sufficient information on a study context, its participants, and the phenomenon under study, is given to a reader in order to invoke an experience of what is being described (Yin, 2003). For this study, I have given thick, rich descriptions of my findings of the participants' lived experiences and of the context, to ensure that the findings were reported in as detailed and accurately a manner as possible, in context, so that others might be able to decide whether the research can be applicable to similar settings (Babbie & Mouton, 2003; Creswell & Miller, 2000; Guba, 1981; Lewis & Ritchie, 2003).

Another strategy that I used to increase transferability was employing purposive sampling to enable diverse views to be heard, and to ensure that a wide range of data was collected (Guba, 1981). The criteria used for selecting the various samples have been made explicit in this study, so that the reader can make judgements about whether or not the sample selected actually fits the inclusion criteria, thereby increasing transferability (Robson, 2011).

4.9.1.6 Role of the researcher

In qualitative research, the researcher is the main research instrument and, therefore, her or his assumptions, biases and personal values need to be made explicit (Creswell, 2003), which is what I attempted to do in this section. Reflexivity on the part of the researcher is another important strategy for rigour. According to Creswell and Miller (2000, p. 127), "this is the process whereby researchers report on personal beliefs, values and biases that may shape their inquiry". Dopson (2003) points out that the challenge which the case study researcher faces lies in maintaining an appropriate balance between the two roles of the everyday participant (insider role) and researcher (outsider role). I regarded myself as having this dual role.

Although every effort has been made to ensure objectivity, there are certain biases that may shape the way I viewed and understood the data that I collected and my interpretation of them. My "insider" role relates to my involvement in the project from the start, thereby having a vested interest in the research. I was part of the UWC team and initially worked closely with the HPS committee at one of the schools for about a year, as well as with students from all three schools. The HPS project commenced two and a half years prior to my data collection and I was therefore familiar with each school's culture and climate, and had already established a good rapport with

the students and teachers by the time I commenced data collection. Babbie and Mouton (2003) argue that this insider role is advantageous, as the researcher in qualitative research has to get as close to the participants as possible in order to establish credibility and trustworthiness. It is through the close relationships and interactions that I had with the participants that I found meaning in the data, which fits the interpretivist worldview. Toma (2000, p. 179) claims that “more intense interactions strengthen end products in qualitative research”, and therefore the close interaction will result in better qualitative data. Furthermore, the context is also better understood in this way, as the qualitative researcher is responsible for describing the overall context in as much detail as possible (Toma, 2000), which is facilitated by the researcher being an “insider” (Babbie & Mouton, 2003).

However, to reduce bias, I opted to step back from my active involvement as a UWC team member during the period of the research, and become an “outsider” as Bonner and Tolhurst (2002, p. 10) warn: being too “enmeshed in the study environment” as an “insider” might come with the danger of losing the research focus. I subsequently still attended meetings, although mainly as an observer, and did not actively participate in decision-making or planning in the schools. Despite this “outsider” role, I was confident that the participants in the schools would feel comfortable enough to divulge information because of the trust that had been built during our collective involvement in the project. According to Bonner and Tolhurst (2001), participants can feel free to divulge “intricate concerns” because, as an “outsider”, the researcher is not a member of the school community and is thus not regarded as an “internal threat”. Whether the school participants saw me as an “insider” or “outsider” did not seem to make a difference because of the trust that had been built. They regarded me as a member of the UWC team rather than as a researcher, which facilitated my interactions with them during the research process.

While my involvement in the project was mainly as an “outsider” during the research, there was no guarantee that this role would be maintained. For example, due to my previous role as part of the UWC team, my participation continued to be requested. In this situation, I was faced with the dilemma of being an “outsider”, after having stepped back in order to be a researcher, while still feeling obliged to participate and meet the expectations of the participants who regarded me as

an “insider” to the project. However, I was reflexive about my role throughout the research process and documented this for transparency.

One issue that had to be considered in this study was the power dynamics between myself and the participants. In the words of (Kvale, 2007, p. 14):

The research interview is a specific professional conversation with a clear power asymmetry between the researcher and the subject. He or she initiates and defines the interview situation, determines the interview topic, poses questions and decides which answers to follow up, and also terminates the conversation.

In other words, the researcher sets the agenda and therefore has some power over the interviewee. However, Toma (2000) argues that, because of the nature of qualitative research, there will be a close relationship between the qualitative researcher and the participants, which likely minimises the power imbalance. Although I acknowledge my close relationship with the participants in this study, I did not deny the power imbalance as a researcher. I attempted to reduce its effects by explaining the purpose of the research, as well as the methods of data collection, and also by explaining that participation was voluntary. The trust that had been built through my prolonged engagement with the participants and the HPS implementation at the schools also assisted in reducing the negative impact of the power asymmetry.

I was reflexive about my assumptions, biases and personal values being influenced by the values and principles of health promotion, as I was aware that they would shape my interpretations. I was constantly aware of my partiality towards adolescents, whom I think have so much potential for the future of the country; and having experienced what I think is such an exciting phase of development with my own three children. It is this partiality that influenced my decision to become involved with HPS and hence this project.

When I attended school, there were significant inequities due to apartheid. With me being from a race that was not classified “White”, the schools that I attended lacked the resources that the “White” schools had. As a result, we did not have many of the privileges that our “White” counterparts had: a situation that, to this day, still exists in many resource-limited settings in the country – including the settings in this study. I had similar schooling to what the student participants in this study had, and I can now imagine how different my schooling experience

might have been if we had been given the same opportunities as the “White” school children in those days. I felt a certain amount of envy at the time and was always left wondering what it would have been like had we also had those privileges.

Furthermore, having witnessed the schooling of my children, and seeing how different it was to some their counterparts in less privileged settings, it made me acutely aware of the inequities that still exist in our country. My children were privileged to attend schools that were better resourced because of the transformation that had taken place since democracy. They therefore had more opportunities for positive development throughout their schooling years. However, not all children were afforded this privilege, because a large part of the population was still affected by the inequities of apartheid. This made me realise that I wanted to make some contribution to bring about change in schools in an attempt to address some of this inequity, and I saw HPS as a means of doing so. The unfairness of this inequity was always a factor in my thinking process throughout my research.

Additionally, my assumption was that students had limited voices in their schools, mainly because of the hierarchy and power imbalances that existed within the school system. I therefore actively reflected throughout this study on whether or not this assumption was valid.

The field notes in which I recorded my experiences of the research process, my feelings and my own assumptions facilitated the process of reflexivity. In these notes, I reflected on my experiences and ideas that could contradict or enhance my original theoretical ideas (Babbie & Mouton, 2003). I found that the role of field notes was important in that they contributed to the overlap between data collection and data analysis. It was useful to reflect on the data, asking what it was contributing to my knowledge of HPS and how it compared with other cases. These notes can be about “cross case comparisons, hunches, about relationships, anecdotes and informal observations”, (Eisenhardt, 1989, p. 539). I included these aspects in my field notes during my data collection and then drew on for my analysis.

Finally, I am a lecturer in health promotion and HPS, and therefore have a keen interest in health promotion. I acknowledge having prior theoretical knowledge of what could possibly influence HPS implementation. However, being involved in this project gave me practical knowledge of

implementing HPS. My special interest in undertaking this research was learning from the experience of others through my interpretations of their reality, not only to better understand the influences on implementing HPS and thus contribute to the wider understanding and practice of HPS in secondary schools in SA, but also to enhance my teaching and practice in health promotion.

4.10 ETHICS CONSIDERATIONS

With the close personal interaction of qualitative interviews, and the potentially powerful knowledge produced, ethics becomes as important as methodology in interview research. (Kvale, 2006, p. 497)

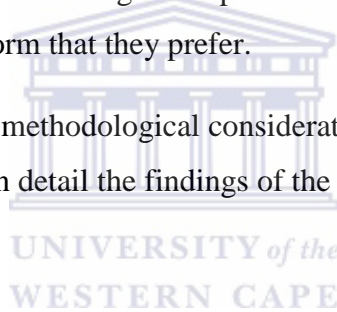
Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the UWC Research Ethics Committee, the Western Cape DoE, and the principals of the three schools. However, before any data collection took place in the schools, I contacted the principals again as a matter of courtesy and to serve as a reminder of my pending research. Prior to commencement of the study, written informed consent, including permission to be audio-recorded where appropriate, was obtained from adult participants and from students who were over 18 years of age. Written consent was obtained from the parents of students under 18 years of age (Appendix 8), in addition to assent from the students themselves. Participants who did not submit their consent forms were not allowed to participate. (See Appendices 6 and 7 for Information Sheets and Appendix 9 for Consent Forms.) The purpose and value of the study was explained verbally, as well as in writing, to all participants in the language of their choice (English or Afrikaans), using the participant information sheet. The participants were made aware that their participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw from the study without any negative consequence to themselves. They were requested to keep the contents of the interviews and FGDs confidential.

I personally stored the data on my computer and filed the hard copies of the data, and was the only person who had access to these documents, thereby minimising the risk of others having access to the transcripts. Instead of using a participant's name, each transcript was given a code thus ensuring anonymity of the data. Transcripts were marked according to the study population (teacher, student or principal) followed by A, B or C (depending on which school the participant came from) and finally, a number that was unique to the participant. For example, Teacher AP16

would refer to a teacher from School A who was coded as AP16 on the transcript. Proper names were not used in the quotations included in this thesis, but rather their designation to preserve the participants' identities. Assurance was given to the participants that no identities would be disclosed in any reports.

The participants were assured that, in the unlikely event of any unforeseen harm or negative feelings emerging as a result of participation, the situation would be addressed through appropriate channels. For example, on the leadership camps, some homosexual students experienced strong emotions when they came to terms with own their sexuality. The camp facilitators were qualified to assist these students and enabled them to deal with these emotions. A copy of the thesis will be made available to the Western Cape DoE as it is the custodian of the school-going children, and DoH as the implementer of HPS. The findings of the study could serve as a guide to these departments to bring about positive change. Appropriate feedback will be given to the three schools in a form that they prefer.

This chapter dealt with the various methodological considerations that were employed for this study. The next chapter describes in detail the findings of the study, as illustrated in the three case studies.



5 INTRODUCTION TO FINDINGS OUTLINED IN CASE STUDIES AND OVERARCHING CHALLENGES

The implementation components that framed this study have already been described in Chapter 3. In order to create a conducive implementation climate for HPS, the combination of leadership and management support is essential; the values fit of HPS with the values and vision of the school where it is being implemented and the policies and practices for HPS implementation should ensure that those implementing HPS have the means, motives and efficacy to bring about change. If a conducive climate has been created for HPS, then it is highly likely that HPS will be effective. These assumptions have suggested several themes, which have been explored in the data for the three schools and will be expanded on in the discussion of the three case studies.

In analysing the data there were some overarching challenges that all three schools faced, which are described here as general to all three cases before discussing the findings of the individual cases.

5.1 CHALLENGES IN EXTERNAL SOCIAL CONTEXT

It is evident from the data collected in this study and the OT students' community fieldwork reports (Bonn, Gobhozi & Kriegler, 2011; Fakier, Ismail & Malope, 2011) that all three schools faced similar social problems, some at individual level but others at societal level. Social challenges include poverty and unemployment, teenage pregnancy, vandalism, school dropout or attrition, drug and alcohol abuse, behavioural problems, teenage pregnancy, bullying and peer pressure, and threat of suicide.

All three schools maintained very strict discipline and had regular disciplinary hearings. Crime and gangsterism and related activities in and around the school had a major negative influence on the safety and security of the students and teachers inside and outside of the school. The following quotation is an extract from School B's website, which sums up this situation for all three schools:

We are situated in the heart of gangs and shebeens⁹. People especially youngsters are drug dependent and do not mind vandalizing our school to get their hands on anything that they can sell to feed their drug habits. We have regular burglaries.

5.2 UNFORESEEN INFLUENCES THAT IMPACTED ON HPS IMPLEMENTATION

Even though plans were put in place, unforeseen circumstances impacted negatively on HPS implementation. One such example was the teachers' strike, part of a large public sector strike in SA for three weeks in August 2010. This strike had a detrimental effect on implementation of HPS at all three schools in 2010. The teachers' strike occurred soon after the teachers' camp, and meant that the teachers could not do any work in the schools, including academic work (even those who did not formally strike). The momentum for HPS was lost, because once the strike was over they had to make up for lost time with the academic programme and everything else, including the HPS activities, was set aside:

It was like there was this light bulb moment for the group [at teachers' camp]; and then when the teachers strike happened immediately after that; and I think there were months between that camp and us actually making contact with the teachers again. That had all just died away, and I think if we could have kept that momentum going ... and then after that everyone was so stressed about making up time ... (School facilitator, School C)

This shows that even if there are good intentions, at times unforeseen influences can derail any plans. This presented a challenge for HPS implementation.

Another unforeseen influence was the Soccer World Cup held in SA in 2010. This shortened the academic year considerably, which meant that there was not sufficient time for anything else other than the set academic programme. This compromised implementation of HPS, because planned activities either had to be postponed or set aside completely.

⁹ illegal local bars, usually mainly operating from private homes.

It can thus be seen that even with the best of intentions the implementation climate was compromised, and this was beyond the control of everybody involved with HPS, as well as the school leadership and management. It also emphasises how the different systems at play in HPS can impact on each other.

5.3 CHALLENGES TO INTERSCHOOL RELATIONSHIPS

Despite the reported positive effects of interschool relationships at all three schools, all participants from the three schools admitted that it was logistically challenging to work with each other, because of time constraints and availability. As a result, joint planning was compromised, information was not always shared, and decisions were made unilaterally:

Hmm, at times it was a bit difficult ... we tried to organise meetings so that the three schools could meet ... and I know 'time' for teachers is always a big issue. Hmm, and then at a stage we actually just went and did what we had to do. (School facilitator, School B)

Furthermore, it was the opinion of School C's school facilitator that the teachers of the three schools did not have as much opportunity to bond with one another as the students had, because the teachers only attended one camp together.

5.4 INTEGRATION OF HPS THROUGH IQMS

One of the intentions of the UWC team was to see how HPS could be integrated into the schools as a whole-school approach through the School Improvement Plans (SIPS) and the Integrated Quality Management Systems (IQMS), both mandatory, so that it could become part of the policies and general functioning of the school. In fact, the IQMS requires the school to include student participation and community involvement, in keeping with the HPS approach. If these policies were followed as was intended, then a whole-school approach for HPS would have been possible. However, there is not much evidence that this had actually been done.

The notes of a UWC team meeting indicate that there was a perception that the IQMS was not taken seriously by the schools. It was regarded as just a checklist that had to be ticked off, instead of the schools actually engaging with the content. Therefore it would not serve much purpose to link HPS to the IQMS if it was not regarded as beneficial to the school. However,

there is some evidence that attempts were made at Schools A and B to link what they did with regard to HPS with their respective IQMS. These schools presented their documents to the district, but there was no further acknowledgement of HPS from the district and no evidence that key areas of focus of the IQMS that related to HPS were acted upon. They seemed to be just entries made in the IQMS for the sake of it.

5.5 OUTLINE OF FINDINGS CHAPTERS

The findings attempt to show the uniqueness of each case, “noting its particular situation and how the context influences the experience” of HPS in each (Stake, 2006, p. 39). The three case studies, which are described in the following three chapters, were developed by combining information from the individual interviews with principals, lead HPS teachers, HPS teachers, HPS students and school facilitators; FGDs with HPS students, secondary data from the UWC team; opportunistic observations of the school context; and documentation from HPS project meetings and workshops.

The case descriptions follow a similar format, with variations according to information received. The data are organised according to the adapted analytical framework for implementation described in Chapter 3 and Figure 5. Each case starts with a profile of the specific school, followed by a description of the HPS values-fit with the values of the school. Next the school’s readiness for change is presented within its own context. This focuses on the school context generally, as it was before HPS implementation, but also at the time of data collection.

The next three sections describe the leadership and management support, the HPS champion and the resources that were available for implementation of HPS. This is followed by the people and practices for HPS implementation. The facilitating and challenging factors are discussed in each sub-section where appropriate, but a separate section is devoted to the challenges facing integration of HPS into the life of the school. The section that follows covers participants’ perceptions of what would make HPS sustainable and their suggestions as to how HPS implementation could be done differently. The final section describes the effectiveness of HPS despite all the challenges faced. The interconnections between different factors are also explored, as is the influence on the implementation climate, where applicable.

6 FINDINGS – CASE 1

6.1 SCHOOL A PROFILE

The Vision Statement of School A reflects its commitment not only to education but also to the development of students as future citizens by creating a conducive school environment:

- *To develop the school as centre of excellence in all facets of education*
- *To develop values, skills and attitudes that will promote and strengthen good citizenship and lifelong learning within a safe and caring environment*

School A was 30 years old in 2012, with the current principal being only the second in its history, having risen through the ranks from teacher to head of department and VP before becoming principal. The staff at the school therefore knew him well by the time he became principal. Many of the teachers started teaching at the school when it opened and were still there 30 years later, as exemplified by the VP who had been at the school for 29 years. The student body numbered 1252 students in 2011, with 581 males and 671 females. School A is a sought-after school in the area. It has consistently high matriculation¹⁰ pass rate, with 90.5% in 2012, when it achieved the highest academically of the three schools (National Department of Basic Education, 2013).

The organisational structures at the school included the SGB, the RCL, the school management team (SMT) and the prefect body. The school had five security personnel working shifts, who were members of the community. The school grounds were neat with a small garden in front of the school, a playground, sports field and a large hall that is also used by the local community.

The school held an assembly every Tuesday where matters pertaining to the school were discussed. An annual carnival, which was well supported by the community, was held to raise school funds. The teachers had a gathering every Monday morning, where they took turns to read a verse from the Bible¹¹ to motivate and inspire each other for the week ahead.

¹⁰ School-leaving qualification.

¹¹ The majority of students and teachers were Christian.

School A offered a number of co-curricular activities for the students, including a variety of sports on offer such as netball, soccer, rugby, cricket, athletics and table tennis. While school personnel acknowledged that not all students could afford the sporting gear or transport costs to sporting events, financial or material support was provided whenever possible. Other activities included a school choir, an active debating society which had won debating competitions, and a debating society of which two students had represented SA at a United Nations debating competition.

A range of external organisations and services were involved with School A. An important social service was provided at the school by two trained counsellors from the community who held sessions at the school with students in need of such. In addition, a range of projects and initiatives run from within government and the private sector increased in-school and post-school opportunities for students. For example, School A was a Dinaledi (Reach for the Stars) School – this is a National Department of Basic Education initiative which gave extra support for the teaching of mathematics and science in collaboration with the private sector (National Department of Basic Education, 2013). The school was also supported by the Khanya Technology in Education Project, an initiative of the Western Cape DoE, which provided schools with well-equipped computer laboratories. This technology not only helped students and teachers to become computer literate, but improved access to curriculum materials for teachers and served as a valuable teaching aid.

A two-year mentorship programme for students in Grades 11 and 12 was also offered by Media24's Rachel's Angels Trust (Media 24 Rachel's Angels, n.d.), which involves university students in supporting school students' academic ability and life-skills development, covering topics such as self-esteem, motivation, study techniques and the realities of the commercial world and society.

Another organisation working with School A students was Go for Gold (Go for Gold, n.d.), which provided disadvantaged youth with opportunities to develop technical skills, build confidence and receive hands-on training in preparation for a career in the construction industry. These students were recruited in Grade 11, furthered their studies in mathematics and science,

and were also taught basic computer and life skills. Training continued four times a week until the end of Grade 12, when they were interviewed by participating construction companies for a year's internship. After the internship year they would enrol to study at a tertiary institution sponsored by one of the participating companies.

Most of the services provided were for further development of students. However, recognition of the leadership role of the principal was evident in the school's involvement with Partners for Possibility (Partners for Possibility, n.d.), which partnered a principal with an individual business leader who brought knowledge and skills about change leadership to the school.

From a spiritual perspective, a voluntary group of teachers, students and members of a Christian organisation met every Thursday during second break for prayers and a spiritual and motivational talk.

The following sections describe the implementation process of HPS and factors influencing it, specific to School A, following the adapted framework described in Chapter 3.

6.2 HPS VALUES-FIT WITH VALUES OF SCHOOL A

In School A the values of HPS are to some degree evident in the second statement of their vision, which recognises that learning should take place in “*a safe and caring environment*”. There was further evidence of values-fit with the principal's vision for the school: he valued HPS because it addressed the school's social obligation:

In [Place A] there are lots of community problems, there are health issues ... and I think what was wonderful out of this [HPS] was the birth of the feeding scheme. I don't think we can even imagine what it means to the children. So how can you say no to something that will work with these issues? (Principal, School A)

The VP provided endorsement of this values-fit when she highlighted School A's involvement in social responsibility activities in the community and attempts to address issues such as substance abuse:

But we have, these things - I mean we're always busy with teenage pregnancies, we always busy with nutritional issues, all those little things. It's just now it's been labelled sort of, but HPS has been part of

the school. (VP, School A)

There was further evidence that the principal embraced the values of respect and friendliness, which he saw HPS advancing, because it promoted a caring environment for teachers and students. He also valued HPS for bringing schools in the area together to work in such a way as to make a difference in the community. This suggests that School A's leadership was able to see the potential of HPS beyond the UWC project, in furthering the school's vision and needs.

Other evidence of values compatibility was articulated by some of School A's staff members; one suggested that the school took a holistic approach to health, i.e. addressing physical and psychosocial aspects of health, noting that this was what the school was already striving for. This suggests that they understood the compatibility of HPS with their own endeavours.

By creating a supportive environment, compatibility and adaptability of the values of HPS with the values of the school and what it was striving for in its vision are likely to have positively influenced the implementation climate for HPS at School A.

6.3 ORGANISATIONAL READINESS FOR CHANGE

... and I must say when we started off with this whole thing, everybody was fired up and things were happening, and students were talking about it and discussing. And our HPS students were telling the other kids what HPS is about ... (Teacher, AP3)

The above quotation illustrates eagerness on the part of the school members to engage in HPS. This can be seen as evidence of ORC, which is discussed in this section. Factors that influenced ORC are presented and expanded upon; these include seeing the benefits of HPS for the school, factors in the school context, existing policies, practices and structures, and lastly the past experience of School A with external innovations or organisations.

6.3.1 Seeing the benefits and potential of HPS for the school and reasons for involvement

The teachers, principal and VP who were interviewed, were clearly in support of the initiation of HPS at the school. Even though different teachers had diverse reasons for becoming involved, the main reason was seeing the potential and benefits that HPS could bring to the school. The teachers saw the potential of HPS to make a difference in the lives of the students, especially in the negative social context that prevails:

And I think there also is a need for, hmm, for something like the HPS project at the school when we look at the health issues of the students, the area within which the children live ... they do not know themselves how, with their little money, to care for themselves. And I think a good place to start is at the school itself ... (Teacher, AP4)

This was confirmed by the principal when he described the potential that HPS had for the school:

At high schools especially, there never was “come we look at health promotion ... come we look at the community ...”. In some learning areas it is clear what needs to be done [about health] but it’s not sufficient ... what you [UWC team] are coming to do is something that was needed ... it is [a] programme that you can have throughout the year but tackling issues in an exciting way and raise awareness in that way. (Principal, School A)

The motivation for involvement was another factor that influenced readiness for change. One of the teachers acknowledged that she became involved because of her role as a LO teacher when HPS was initiated, and she realised the relevance of HPS for the LO curriculum. Another teacher who joined the school after HPS was initiated became involved after being inspired by the positive attitude and enthusiasm of those involved in HPS, including the active involvement of the HPS students. Both these teachers therefore appeared to be motivated by its potential and perceived benefits to the students and the school.

This was also true of the lead teacher, who admitted that it was her passion for making a difference in the school that motivated her to become involved. On the other hand, she saw the potential of using students to assist in attaining the school’s vision. The varying reasons that

teachers became involved illustrate their understanding of the potential benefits of the change efforts of HPS.

The reasons why students became involved in HPS differed from those of the teachers, but also constituted their readiness for change. Like the teachers, who perceived benefits for the students, the students also saw the potential of HPS for themselves:

It has a positive influence on a person's life, a person learns new things ... It also gives a person more self-confidence. (FGD Students, School A)

A student gave an example of the potential that HPS had when he acknowledged that shy students (referring to himself) were attracted to HPS because they saw how being involved had built their peers' self-esteem and self-confidence. Peer influence was enhanced when HPS students shared what they had learnt during HPS activities with the rest of their class. This sparked an interest in other students, who subsequently became involved. Some students initially became involved through curiosity, and then continued because they found it interesting, enjoyable and challenging.

Interestingly, one teacher argued that it took a certain type of student to become involved with HPS: those who were more aware of health issues before they became involved with HPS. She was convinced that they were also the students (whom she termed "do-gooders") who did not give problems in the school generally. This suggests that these students were motivated and therefore ready for change, especially with regard to health.

Two students independently argued that food was an incentive for certain students' commitment. According to them, when workshops and meetings where food was provided became less frequent, the number of students attending decreased. They concluded that only those genuinely interested in pursuing HPS stayed involved, although there is also evidence of other legitimate commitments, such as sporting activities that they had to prioritise before HPS.

The teachers and students might have had different reasons for becoming involved, but it is clear that they were motivated in some way to be committed to HPS, which is likely to have contributed to the ORC.

The context of School A is discussed in more detail next in relation to how it impacted on the school's readiness for change.

6.3.2 Organisational context of School A

For the purposes of this study readiness for change is dependent on the organisational context – in this instance, the School A context. Apart from the relationships in the school amongst different members of the school community, School A's context was characterised mainly by openness to change; existing policies (formal and informal); their attitude towards their work; a caring culture; and structures in place that can facilitate HPS implementation. The school context was also influenced by the social (and community) context within which the school existed, which highlights the different systems at play within the school system, in keeping with systems thinking in the settings approach.

6.3.2.1 Caring culture of the school and social commitment to the broader community

I think there is quite a high level of commitment by staff to the school and the values of the school and what the school is trying to achieve.
(School facilitator, School A)

As confirmed by the above quotation, a culture of caring for and commitment to the school, especially in a challenging community context, is clearly evident from the findings and is compatible with HPS. This can therefore be seen as having contributed to the school's readiness for change. School A displayed an adaptive culture by responding to social problems facing the students, possibly arising from the sense of caring and social obligation. This was evident in the staff being proactive with regard to issues they felt needed to be addressed, such as substance abuse or violence, which they perceived as emanating from the community. During their annual planning they would, for example, select speakers to address the learners on certain identified issues. In addition, the staff were responsive in dealing with unforeseen issues that arose at school, including drawing on external agents (e.g. a school counsellor) when these services were required.

The culture of the school was also demonstrated in the participants' concern for the image of the

school (although students' and teachers' concerns diverged). The VP believed that the location of the school on a busy main road on the border of the catchment community made it more open to public scrutiny and therefore influenced the way it should portray itself to the public.

Furthermore, some students expressed concern about the negative image depicted in an article that appeared in the local newspaper reporting a violent incident between students on the school premises, feeling that this was not a true reflection of the school as a whole. On the other hand, the VP felt that the school leadership played an important role in how the public viewed the school. The fact that the principal had been at the school for a long period (implying stability) sent a positive message about the school to the community, which was possibly why the school was sought after in the area. The concern about the image of the school can be regarded as having a sense of accountability to the community. This could be another factor that influenced the school's readiness for change, because they saw HPS as assisting in creating a positive school image.

Consistent with what the teachers claimed, the principal was concerned about how the community context affected students, such as TB and the stigma around it; parental denial that their children were sexually active, or that their children were abusing drugs; and the influence of negative role models in the community. There appeared to be a sense of accountability towards the students, because the principal admitted that the teachers had to act as positive role models in the absence of such in the community. The benefit of HPS for furthering the school's accountability was highlighted:

In the absence of real role models, of heroes and the [lack of] success stories in the community, there is a need for such programmes [like HPS] to assist us. (Principal, School A)

The school's culture was also reflected in the regular devotion sessions at assemblies and weekly in the staffroom. The school facilitator's observation was that the values of compassion, respect, support, "big-heartedness", and understanding of the community context were derived from the school's Christian ethos, and ingrained in their work ethic while tolerant of other beliefs. Many of the students also belonged to church youth groups involved in philanthropic activities in the community, showing their sense of commitment towards the community.

In addition to a culture of caring for the school, the school's leadership confirmed the teachers' culture of caring for and commitment to the students, which created a supportive school environment. The principal illustrated this point when he commented:

I think the teachers generally, I can say, are very hardworking. They take pride in what they do and are dedicated and when students need support – when students start showing interest [in anything] - then the teacher will not stand back ... because no one wants to disappoint a child when they show interest and that is what makes that the teachers be there for the students – to help them. (Principal, School A)

Most teachers even went beyond their normal teaching duties to address the students' needs when necessary, illustrated with the following quotation from a student:

They are trying their utmost best to like help us because they go out of their way to help us. I mean giving us extra classes; it's not like what they get paid for but like they still do it. And for me that, that like shows a lot. (Male student, AP6)

Creation of a supportive environment suggests that the students could thrive, and was compatible with the principles of HPS. The teachers understood the challenging circumstances that students faced in the community, which very likely increased the teachers' readiness for change. This was evident in the concern the VP showed for the students:

And students are exposed to all this ... I am 50 now and I can't imagine myself being exposed to all those things. And they are still so young, I think that is the worst thing actually, really... At such a young age, I mean you shouldn't even be burdened with at all in your life. (VP, School A)

Really the counselling is for me a priority because ... we always say we can't better their situations at home or where they come from but at least just give them coping mechanisms... (VP, School A.)

Another indication of the positive school culture was that the school gave students opportunities to explore and realise their potential other than through academic performance, such as sporting and cultural activities:

... I mean for your own health you can't just [only] study ... And then you will see in those spheres [non-academic activities] that it's really mostly the students who don't really achieve academically. Then, at least they get a chance to shine as well (VP, School A)

It was not only a culture of caring for the school community that may have strengthened the ORC in School A's context, but also a culture of collaboration and cooperation in the school, which is described next.

6.3.2.2 Culture of collaboration and cooperation

The culture of collaboration and cooperation in the school was reflected in the relationships between the different actors in the school and how well they worked together. The relationship between the teachers was characterised by active support for one another, unity and camaraderie; this is asserted not only from my own observations but also from the participants' perspective:

And also it's like a big family in the staffroom. (VP, School A)

Yes, yes, wonderful relationships ... We understand each other, we support each other. (Teacher, AP3)

However, despite this good relationship, the VP said that she felt frustrated at times when she could not put new initiatives into place; she anticipated a lack of collaboration and cooperation, from some of the teachers, who would cite their teaching responsibilities as priority:

Sometimes you have such wonderful ideas, but the first thing people are gonna tell you is, "well, I'm here to teach". (VP, School A)

This is an indication that the culture of collaboration and cooperation did not extend to everybody or everything that happened at the school. On the other hand, the VP might have overestimated what was realistically possible for the teachers, given their core purpose of teaching, especially the time and effort it required.

However, the culture of collaboration was evident in efforts on the part of teachers to build relationships with students. The VP stressed the importance of making the effort to learn to know individual students and how that can encourage building relationships:

And I can assure you I know I think the names of about three-quarters of them. I try to know them by name, the principal knows them. You know these children, even if they can just be recognised by "this person knows my name". (VP, School A)

One way that the teacher/student relationship was strengthened was through having a period most mornings where the class teachers spent 15-20 minutes with their own class, during which

time they engaged with students whom they thought needed attention or guidance. This shows how trust between teachers and students can be built if an environment is created where the students can feel free to express themselves to their teacher. However, this trust did not apply to everyone in the school. This suggests that the trusting relationship was not universal in School A, and although this was not surprising, it could have negatively influenced the school's readiness for change because it might have affected their willingness to work together.

Much of the data confirm a positive organisational culture with regard to cooperation and collaboration, but there are also data which reveal challenges, such as the negative attitude and behaviour of some students, which impacted on their relationship with teachers and their peers. Some of the challenging student behaviours at the school included negative peer pressure and bullying amongst students, as well as some students arriving under the influence of marijuana. Some students felt that the negative attitude and behaviour of certain students compromised teacher/student relationships, because they were uncooperative with teachers and in class, which impacted on the rest of the class.

One teacher admitted that it was not always easy to be committed to teaching with uncooperative students, even though they were in the minority:

I had a conversation with one class one day and this one girl told me that "but even matriculants don't get jobs, so why do we have to finish our schooling?" (Teacher, AP3)

This teacher's despondency was obvious when she said that she needed to be motivated herself to motivate the students, but it was difficult to find the time and energy to do so. This feeling of despondency and low morale can counter change, because of the low sense of self-efficacy. The teachers attributed the low student motivation (where present) to the students' home circumstances, where nobody motivated them towards study or future opportunities, in spite of the school's interventions to assist them academically. This demonstrates how the external social context impacted on the students' attitude and behaviour, which in turn had an impact on the way they collaborated or cooperated in school.

Furthermore, the principal suggested that the students did not seem to have a sense of pride and responsibility towards their country. He argued that this was the reason that some were not

motivated to develop themselves further, which suggests that the school's vision of promoting good citizenship was not easily attainable:

They don't see themselves as citizens of their country. And it is important that they pass, they must move forward so that they can fulfill their place [in society]. But our students do not have that – absolutely nothing! (Principal, School A)

In contrast, it was the students' perception that the majority of students in the school wanted to succeed in life. This vision for the future likely positively influenced the majority of students' willingness to be cooperative in school; this could have fuelled the students' positive response to HPS, as they saw it as a way of working towards that vision.

Despite good cooperation and collaboration amongst the teachers, the negative attitude and behaviour of even a minority of students can, it seems, negatively affect teacher/student relationships, leading to teacher despondency, low morale and a low sense of self-efficacy. This in turn could negatively influence teachers' readiness to implement HPS, as they already found it difficult to cope with their existing duties and challenging students. Therefore, as a collective the change efficacy of School A did not seem that high, as not everybody was ready to implement HPS.

6.3.3 Existing school policies and structures compatible with HPS

School A had a range of policies in place that could positively influence its readiness for change, including a code of conduct and a policy requiring all teachers to be involved in co-curricular activities such as clubs and sporting activities. Involvement in these activities may have contributed to the school's readiness for change, as they were seen as fitting under the umbrella of HPS.

School A was fairly strongly structured, and many of these structures seemed to be regarded as effective by members of the school community. Those that were in place included the prefect body, RCL, SGB and SMT, all of which could potentially benefit HPS implementation (firstly, because they suggest an effectively running organisation, and secondly, because of the power arrangements and influence these structures imply).

However, one formal structure at the school that was not functioning well, according to the VP and students themselves, was the RCL. One of the reasons given was that it was difficult for members to meet after school, which when their meetings were scheduled for, to plan and organise events or activities because of lack of transport and safety issues, highlighting the impact of the external social context on the school.

The students in the FGD did not seem to have much confidence in the RCL, claiming that the members did not take their roles seriously and that many members did not attend the RCL meetings regularly and did not actively pursue their responsibilities. An HPS student who was also an RCL member confirmed this perception:

We [RCL] don't take authority because why, hmm, we do not make any effort to do something. (Student FGD, School A)

Even though the RCL members were formally introduced to the whole school, the students felt that the RCL did not have a high enough profile at the school and therefore was disregarded by other students. However, the above RCL member admitted feeling overwhelmed with the school's expectation of the RCL in fulfilling its tasks in addition to its members' academic work. This suggests that it was hard to cope because everything felt like a priority, demonstrating how the different systems impacted on one another in the school system.

Although the principal was concerned about the lack of RCL involvement in HPS, he had high expectations of their potential role in the sustainability of HPS:

They must own it [HPS], they must run with it and I very much would like the students to control ... the teachers must be there but more for support and the RCL must fulfill that role [of taking responsibility for HPS]. (Principal, School A)

Therefore, although the RCL's readiness for change might have been low, there was potential for it to increase the school's readiness for change. Consistent with the principal's view, the VP felt there was potential for the RCL to work with the HPS students, seeing that they seemed to have similar goals.

It seems that the SGB also did not play a very active role in the functioning of the school. The VP remarked that the main function of the SGB (consisting of parents, teachers and students)

seemed to be to deal with issues of discipline, because that was the main reason for meeting regularly. No other SGB functions were mentioned, which can be a reflection of their lack of contribution to the functioning of the school or limited impact on the school.

Although one parent who was a member of the SGB attended the initial HPS workshops and meetings, she stopped as the project progressed. This meant that the SGB was most likely not aware of what was happening with regard to HPS, or they did not see it as part of their mandate and therefore were not committed to HPS. This suggests that there was low readiness for change as far as two key school community structures were concerned. However, it is essential for the school's readiness for change that the school community perceives that existing policies, structures and practices have the potential to facilitate implementation of HPS (but these have to be functional).

6.3.4 Positive past experience with external organisations

Another factor in the schools' organisational context that is regarded as important in promoting readiness to change is the school's past experience of working with external organisations and seeing the benefits of these. School A's willingness to be open and amenable to external agents was confirmed by the principal:

It is our policy that whenever anybody comes into the school and say "We are busy with a programme for children, do you want to become involved?" I will always say "Come!" – the more people we can get [to address issues facing the school] ... If we did not do this then we would not have been exposed to HPS. (Principal, School A)

It is evident that the school's leadership realised they did not have the skills or time to address all the issues that arose in the school, and were therefore open to external agents if they could contribute to the positive development of the school and students. Apart from the external bodies already alluded to in the profile of the school in section 6.1, prior to initiation of HPS, the school also had foreign and local university students who worked with the students, holding counselling sessions or facilitating after-school leisure activities. The school also called on, amongst others, the local clinic, police, motivational speakers and LoveLife (an NGO). This ability to work with and draw on external agents is an important aspect of HPS and a good indicator of readiness for

change.

In summary, influential factors for School A's readiness for change included acknowledging the benefits and potential that HPS had to bring about positive change in the school. In addition, the flexible and conducive school context included the caring culture of the school, motivated and committed teachers and students, good collaboration and cooperation amongst teachers, and the relationship between the teachers and students. Existing policies, practices and structures as well as experience of working with external organisations further contributed to the school's readiness for change.

However, factors such as poor functioning of existing school structures, and the low self-efficacy of some teachers, largely influenced by student attitudes and behaviour, and work priorities, compromised the school's readiness for change. Despite these challenges the strong ethos of School A encouraged the school's readiness for change, resulting in structures and practices being put in place to implement HPS.

Based on the framework designed for this study, and in line with the settings approach, different actors are involved in any particular health-promoting setting. The following section focuses on the leadership and management of School A and its influence on the implementation of HPS.

6.4 LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT SUPPORT AND PRACTICES

The leadership and management of School A was found to be a key contributing factor for the functioning of the school and implementation of HPS. Included in this section will be the leadership qualities of School A's principal and how that impacted on his understanding of HPS, as well as his role in the implementation of HPS.

6.4.1 Principal's leadership style and impact on understanding of HPS

At School A the leadership and management role of the principal was perceived as instrumental to the smooth running of the school in general. The teachers interviewed noted that colleagues from other schools, ex-colleagues, and colleagues at School A, regarded it as a "better school"

despite the social problems in the surrounding area. This perception was attributed to the effective leadership and management of the school, which included proper systems in place and detailed planning, and staff who worked towards a common goal:

There is always a plan B, a back-up plan if someone should stay absent, "this and this is what we do" and so on ... (VP, School A)

The school facilitator confirmed the proficient management at the school, where plans were normally followed through.

The principal's leadership style seemed to have had some positive influence on the ORC and implementation climate of HPS at School A. The principal appeared to have a distributed leadership style, giving teachers leeway and scope to take initiative when needed:

Sometimes you have to empower your staff ... and you must respect the fact you gave them the scope to take leadership themselves, to take initiative and that they do not sit and wait for you to say "do this and that" because then it will never work. You will never have the energy for all these tasks. (Principal, School A)

The principal of School A was seen by colleagues and others as having important leadership qualities which furthered the interests of HPS, not least of which was his understanding of HPS and its potential. The following quotations demonstrate this understanding:

There is so much potential to make HPS big ... it can be a big umbrella with lots happening under it, such as sport and what we can do to better ourselves ... When you talk about HPS then you think of a whole package. (Principal, School A)

To have 1200 in the school and for them to be able to live together and have a good relationship with one another, that's what is important. You can't have so many students and think you can just come in and teach and finish and think that everything will run smoothly. (Principal, School A)

The principal used his status as leader in the school to the benefit of the students. For example, he was seen to have reduced the stigma of the feeding scheme by queuing up for a meal himself, which encouraged the hesitant students to come forward as well. This action reflects his understanding of the students' social circumstances and his attempt at alleviating some of the related challenges, which exemplifies his leadership style as caring, a vital aspect of HPS.

6.4.2 Principal's role in HPS

The principal's role in HPS was seen as mainly one of support, as is evident from the data. The VP was emphatic when she said that the leadership of the school (principal and VP) supported HPS and especially the lead teacher in her HPS role - a point confirmed by the lead teacher and students. The lead teacher attributed leadership support to accountability. She stressed that she first gained the principal's approval before anything was implemented, and she noted that in this way the principal knew exactly what was happening and as a result gave his support. Her view was that it was important that HPS had the support and permission of the leadership in whatever they did, because then nobody could undermine their HPS work. This suggests that communication with and accountability to the principal was seen as key for implementation of HPS at the school.

The principal's support for the students was also apparent. The students' opinion was that the principal showed genuine interest in HPS as he popped in to see what they were doing and tried to do everything in his power to facilitate HPS. The principal acknowledged that he knew his support was important to the students and therefore made sure that he made this obvious to them:

I think for me it was important that I make time to listen to them when they come talk to me and they are excited and enthusiastic about it and they want to share it with me. I must show that I am interested and show my support ... they must always be aware that I am enthusiastic too. (Principal, School A)

However, the type of support that the principal gave for HPS was questioned by the school facilitator. She regarded it as mainly moral support, as his focus was on the academic programme. Her expectation was that he should have been more actively involved in HPS. However, she acknowledged that he allowed "space" for HPS to be implemented and showcased, which contributed positively to the implementation climate:

I think he allows room for things to happen. I think he also made space to promote HPS through allowing teachers to speak at assemblies, promoting what [name of lead teacher] is doing, encouraging ... but he hasn't you know directly taken up the flag himself... but I think he does see it as being important. (School facilitator, School A)

Despite the majority of participants saying that the principal was generally supportive, some students felt they could have accomplished more if the support from the principal had been stronger. For instance, one student felt that they could not achieve what they wanted to because the principal objected either because of issues such as time or other events happening simultaneously. The students might have seen this as lack of support on the principal's part, but from the principal's perspective it could have been that he was just being realistic about what they were actually able to accomplish.

The students admitted that they were hesitant to take initiative because they wanted to avoid rejection by the principal, and therefore went via the lead teacher or another teacher to approach the principal. It seems that the students felt that they did not have the authority to approach the principal directly or the autonomy to make their own decisions. The students' frustration was palpable in an example that they gave of trying to obtain permission from the principal to organise a Casual Day event:

... then for the whole week, every interval, every day, we had to go to the office and then they say we have to hold on they will give us an answer soon and when we involved another teacher [name of LO teacher] and then it moved a bit quicker. (Student FGD, School A)

It is evident that the principal exhibited different levels of support, depending on who he was supporting (e.g. teachers or students) or what the event or activity was. There therefore seemed to be a tension between the principal being supportive of HPS and his core responsibilities towards the school. This made it difficult for the students to take ownership of their initiatives, which points to the power that the principal has in the school.

The issue of power and authority was closely linked to leadership and management. The lead teacher admitted that the principal took a strong leadership position on what he would and would not allow. For example, he did not like shipping containers¹² and did not allow them on the school premises in case they created a "poor image" of the school. Another example was when

¹² Shipping containers are often donated to resource-limited schools where they are used as classrooms, kitchens or for storage and other purposes.

he did not give permission for the interschool variety show that the HPS group had planned, because he was concerned about the safety of his and other participating HPS schools. This shows that the principal had the power and authority to control what the HPS group was able to do or partake in. The principal's role in HPS can therefore be regarded as ambiguous – supportive on the one hand but obstructive on the other, albeit for the good of the school because of his responsibility as custodian.

Despite his claim of distributed leadership, the principal had the power to decide what was best for the school and what roles the teachers could play. For example, one of the HPS teachers was a LO and English teacher when the project started, but the principal moved her to the English department exclusively because that was where her expertise was required. As a result, her involvement in HPS became limited because of her increased workload.

The principal and VP had different levels of power and responsibilities, reflected in their different levels of involvement in HPS:

... and it's true she [VP] was there and she was supportive and I'm sure she would have fed those ideas through [to the principal] ... but I do think it makes a big difference having a principal there ... the VP sits with the curricular stuff, the instructional leadership stuff, whereas the principal is responsible at a level to hold the whole school. (School facilitator, School A)

The visible presence of the principal showing endorsement of HPS seemed to be important. The school facilitator felt that the principal's presence would have given HPS more status, which partly reflects the power and influence the principal is perceived to have.

It is evident that although the principal gave support for HPS, it was not sufficient to convince everybody to become involved. The school facilitator argued that the principal should be actively involved especially at the initial HPS workshops because of his position of power and authority especially to encourage a whole-school approach:

... probably additional finances, to support what she [the lead teacher] was trying to do, I would say from a leadership position, trying to help to draw the linkages between what she was doing and probably what other committees and structures in the schools were doing. Maybe get more staff into officially ... support what [name of lead teacher] was

doing, and say “but this is a school-wide thing” you know? (School facilitator, School A)

In summary, effective leadership and management facilitated HPS implementation practices, especially with regard to support given to the lead teacher and allowing “space” for HPS to be implemented – even if not about making more resources available. This suggests that the support contributed towards a conducive implementation climate, despite the principal having to veto certain HPS activities. This dualism reminds one that the implementation climate is always in tension, where two agendas (that of the school as an organisation and HPS) clash, but only if they are seen as separate.

6.5 ROLE OF THE HPS CHAMPION

In the case of School A, the role of the lead teacher as champion in the implementation of HPS was duly acknowledged. According to the participants, having the lead teacher driving the change process was a major success factor. The principal acknowledged that because the teachers already had many and diverse responsibilities, the process needed a champion to specifically drive it, motivating others and monitoring that things actually happened. The lead teacher fulfilled this role by not only being responsible for operationalising the process, but also rallying support for HPS. She also supported and encouraged others involved in the process, thus creating an enabling climate for change.

The lead teacher’s personal characteristics seemed to have influenced the roles she took and her leadership style within HPS, which in turn influenced the practices for implementation of HPS. The school facilitator confirmed that the lead teacher was open to new innovations that increased her readiness for change. Furthermore, the participants strongly validated her commitment, passion and unselfish nature, which were in line with their expectations of a champion, and their school culture. In their view it was the lead teacher’s personal characteristics that led her to volunteer for the role of champion, which led to HPS being a success at the school:

Oh! You know [lead teacher], she is a very strong character ... And even if she had to do everything by herself, then she would have ... it’s because of her that “this” [HPS] has been a success and ... that we could have a feeding scheme that we have done so many things in terms of HPS. She’s driven and she loves people. (Teacher, AP3)

Her unselfish nature, commitment, and passion for HPS, were clearly endorsed with the following statement that she made:

... but when it comes to the project, then it seems to me that I have no language, because I am a person that just wants to do-do-do! The project is so close to my heart, I can only give all my love ... That which I learnt from the project, I can only share my knowledge and expertise with everybody and that is why that which I have built up I cannot keep to myself, I share it with everybody that comes in my way, and with my children [the students]. (Lead teacher, School A)

The lead teacher not only had the ability to garner support from others, but was also able to influence other teachers to become involved, as illustrated by the following quotation from the principal:

What was nice is that I did not have to stand behind her to drive her, she was the one who was totally enthusiastic about it [HPS] and she had a passion for it. When there was a HPS event happening over the weekend, then Monday she would give detailed feedback and say what the will be done next and because of that more and more teachers became involved. (Principal, School A)

It is evident that the lead teacher's dedication and commitment was highly regarded by her colleagues. When one this teacher was asked how she coped with being involved in HPS, she admitted that not everybody had the same dedication and passion as the lead teacher:

Force yourself; I seldom see [lead teacher] she is never there during an interval, I don't know when that woman eats ... because she really gives more than 100% I feel; and not everybody can do that unfortunately. (Teacher AP3).

The influence of the lead teacher also extended to the students, and she was perceived to have played a major role in students becoming involved. For example, she purposefully involved non-HPS students in the OT students' interactions with the HPS students, some of whom subsequently became involved with HPS because they enjoyed these activities.

The students saw the lead teacher as a source of inspiration, acknowledging her passion, encouragement and mentorship even when on occasions when she was not actively involved. In addition, they admired her for being a good organiser, advisor and motivator. The high esteem

with which she was held amongst the students is illustrated in the following quotation, given when a male student was asked who his role model was:

I would say [lead teacher] ... everything she does is so perfect for me ... I can't help myself, I just want to be like that one day. Well, she's just excellent! She does everything that she can to make the school better and I think that is great because I would also want to achieve something in life when I'm like that, to be like, to be like her. (Male student AP8)

This adoration for the lead teacher as a source of inspiration could be because of the lack of positive role models in the community, as was indicated earlier.

The lead teacher's positive influence on the students was further demonstrated when they reported that they were determined to show her that, due to her guidance, they could work independently and had the ability to cope and continue in her absence, building on her legacy. This meant that the lead teacher had influenced their sense of self-efficacy and self-confidence:

That which she had built, we can show her that we can stand on our feet, she does not have to ... She is there to guide us through everything, but she knows that we can do the journey ourselves... So if anything has to happen to her, we are strong enough to manage. (Students FGD, School A)

The lead teacher had the ability to network with different community organisations with which she already had links, such as an HIV NGO and, in this way brought resources into the school. This networking ability is an important aspect of a champion's role and it encouraged community interaction in keeping with the HPS approach. The lead teacher also exhibited strong organisational skills. She attributed her own ability to multi-task to her experience as a deputy principal at a previous school. Her ability to manage HPS in addition to her core responsibilities was acknowledged by all the participants. This is a reflection of not only her leadership ability and organisational skills, but also the school's strong interpersonal culture that created an enabling implementation climate.

Although the lead teacher's organisational skills were challenged at times, she was quick to point out that when things did not always go according to plan, it did not reflect people's abilities, but rather that some situations needed more organising and deeper planning than others.

The sustainability of HPS at the school was brought into question in relation to the lead teacher's role as champion. The school facilitator was concerned that the lead teacher's post was a SGB post¹³ and not permanent - her perception was that this limited the power that the lead teacher had to take HPS forward in the school. This raises the question of who should play the role of HPS champion, because another core staff member may not necessarily be able to sustain such a project. When the students were asked about their perceptions of the sustainability of HPS if the lead teacher were to leave, most responded that it would still exist but would not be as successful as currently. However, one student felt that HPS would no longer exist, showing an over-reliance on the lead teacher.

Even though the students' self-efficacy seemed high, they did not often work independently of the lead teacher. The school facilitator had reservations about the kind of support the lead teacher gave to the students, questioning whether it actually assisted the students to take leadership, because of her overpowering nature – albeit well intended. This highlights a tension that can exist between wanting to involve others in the process, but at the same wanting to be in control. The lead teacher tended to take full responsibility for HPS without substantial delegation to others in the school. This was acknowledged by the participants, including the principal and VP, and could have been disempowering for the students and teachers. In some instances, the lead teacher's strong characteristics overwhelmed some of the teachers. This resulted in their letting her carry all the responsibility, with them only taking responsibility when she gave it to them. However, at the same time they gave their cooperation when she needed it, again demonstrating the influence she had in the school.

The caring and nurturing nature of the lead teacher was also perceived to have created some problems. Even though the school facilitator acknowledged these qualities of the lead teacher, she felt that they resulted in her concentrating more on the psychosocial aspects of HPS than on the structural aspects. Her opinion was that some teachers saw the lead teacher's "mother figure"

¹³ A temporary post that the SGB offers independent of the DoE

identity as positive while others saw it as negative, which seemed to have discouraged them from becoming involved.

In summary, it is evident that the lead teacher served as a champion for the implementation of HPS at School A, with her leadership style and positive characteristics. She had many of the characteristics needed for a champion with commitment, passion, drive and leadership, and had the ability to influence others, in addition to organisational and networking skills. All of this possibly created a conducive implementation climate, because of the practices that occurred as a result of her champion role.

However, there were other characteristics, such as her overpowering nature, that probably had a negative impact on some teachers' and students' practices or willingness to implement HPS, which in turn might have created a negative implementation climate. In addition, her role was influenced by certain contextual factors beyond her control in some instances and the principal's leadership and management role, which likely determined the way she was able to put HPS into practice, highlighting the complexity of HPS implementation.

6.6 RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

In this section the focus is on the availability of human and financial resources for the implementation of HPS.

6.6.1 Human resources

The availability of various human resources was one key factor highlighted in the data for the effective implementation of HPS. Even before initiation of HPS the school made use of different available human resources – both internal and external to the school, as indicated in section 6.1. in this chapter. This openness was an important aspect of the organisational context, reflecting both readiness for change and recognition of the need for additional human resources in the face of existing or new challenges.

There were different actors in the school system that could be (and were) drawn on for HPS

implementation, namely the school staff (mainly teachers), the students (internal to the school), the parents, and education district officials (external to the school). The external organisations that School A drew on for HPS included foreign students - recruited through the surrounding academic institutions (including the project) and various NGOs in the area.

However, the need for more counsellors and social workers to provide services in the school was also highlighted. The teachers felt that the district did not have enough human resources to adequately provide such services, and therefore the school depended on external sources for these services when available. Although drawing on external resources is encouraged in the settings approach, the implication here is that the district was not fulfilling its role of providing the necessary resources to the school which, by implication then impacted on the implementation of HPS too.

6.6.2 Financial resources

Most participants felt that having financial resources was an influencing factor for supporting the practices and processes of HPS. Financial resources for HPS were provided through different sources and included foreign students providing some financial support for the school learners to carry out their HPS plans; the DoE providing funding for the feeding scheme; and the bulk of financial support coming from the UWC team for workshops, food at the workshops for all participants, and the student leadership and teachers' camps. However, even though the student leadership camps proved beneficial for participants they were resource-intensive. The implication here is that while reliance on external funding for certain aspects of HPS has a positive influence on HPS implementation, it can impact negatively on HPS sustainability if the funding is no longer available.

Having financial resources can be seen as an incentive and can encourage or reinforce motivation and a sense of purpose, because it can enable events to be organised or activities to be undertaken. For example, the school facilitator's opinion was that having financial support was linked to the HPS committee at School A having power, as they could accomplish something with the money which would not have been possible otherwise:

I think what helped was having some money and some resources for the HPS committee. I think the money that came from [foreign students] ... I think that little bit of power, or that little bit of leverage that the budget gave. (School facilitator, School A)

Although all the participants felt that financial support was important, there were two (one teacher and one student) who did not think it was absolutely essential:

I do not think that finances is a big thing because you do not always need money to promote health at the school; there are little things we can do. (Teacher, AP4)

However, a lack of financial resources was cited as a challenge. For example, the students wanted HPS badges so that they could be easily identified, and the lead teacher wanted a billboard saying that the school was an HPS. Neither was possible because of the lack of money, which meant that the marketing of HPS was compromised.

Apart from financial resources, other resources were also deemed necessary. The teachers and VP expressed a need for more infrastructure at the school to facilitate implementation of HPS. For example, the VP felt that they needed a counselling room to provide privacy, as they were using an old computer room that did not provide a conducive environment.

It is evident that the school had additional human and financial resources available to it which facilitated the implementation practices for HPS – which in turn increased the actors' means and motives to implement HPS. On the other hand, the effect of the shortage of needed resources was that HPS practices could not be carried out as intended, thereby compromising effectiveness.

6.7 PEOPLE AND PRACTICES FOR HPS IMPLEMENTATION AT SCHOOL A

This section deals with the key people and practices that they were involved in for the implementation of HPS. It mainly describes the ways of working – participatory, collaborative, cooperative, inclusive, the way decisions were made and working with others internally (teachers and students working together) and externally (e.g. OT students). The nature of communication mechanisms used by the different actors, are also described. Finally, this section depicts the integration of HPS into the curriculum and normal functioning of the school.

6.7.1 Participation of students

Another of the elements of both HPS and the adapted framework is the participation of the recipients of an initiative. Implementing HPS was highly dependent on students' actions and interactions, and in this section I attempt to capture factors that seem to have driven and challenged them. HPS principles suggest that they, the targets of the innovation, would be participants, drivers and recipients of the innovation.

One of the action areas of HPS is to develop the skills of the different actors, which will enable them to fulfill their roles as implementers of HPS. Building on this action area, one of the key strategies of the UWC team was developing the skills of the teachers and students to implement HPS, one of the key action areas of HPS. The students felt that no special skills were required when starting off with HPS, as long as they had some of the characteristics or qualities described further on in this section and were passionate about people and HPS. The perception of the students was that skills such as leadership and communication skills would be acquired as a result of involvement with HPS. Consistent with this perception, the student leadership camps played an important role in developing the students' skills and self-efficacy. Amongst other skills developed, the students involved in HPS developed leadership skills, which involved decision-making, leading groups, conflict resolution and managing responsibilities. The aim was to not only assist them with the implementation of HPS but also to develop their life skills, in keeping with the holistic concept of HPS

Furthermore, there is evidence in the case of School A that teachers recognised that the students' active participation in implementation was a significant driver of HPS. The teachers felt confident that the students could take HPS forward in the school by becoming more actively involved in decision-making processes while being guided by the teachers. However, the principal's opinion was that more innovative ways of involving students had to be explored to actively attract more students. He felt that the message of HPS was not coming across strongly enough to the whole school. This thought was echoed by the school facilitator:

I think there need to be much more exciting things ... and really tapping into where students would like to see change ... and the things

that they find exciting ... and link that to TB and HIV/AIDS. Do it through the medium of what inspires youth ... like leadership stuff, like meeting with other schools, like sport competitions ... all those broader things. (School facilitator, School A)

The nature of student involvement in implementation is evidenced by students taking the initiative when opportunities arose, despite the lead teacher being the main decision-maker. For example, one of the students on the HPS committee called meetings at the start of the school year in order to attract new students to HPS, when he saw that the lead teacher had not yet done so. This student also took on substantial responsibilities, such as note-taker and timekeeper at meetings, and substituting for the lead teacher when she was not available. From my own observation, having the most contact with her out of all the HPS students, this student was the lead teacher's "right-hand person", who she called on whenever she needed things done, and for whom she probably served as role model.

Student initiative is also exemplified by a group of HPS students who organised a Casual Day at the school to raise funds for charity. Their pride in and ownership of this achievement is evident in their reported feeling that they had the power to accomplish something for themselves, despite the previously reported challenges of gaining permission from the principal, and the lead teacher's directive leadership style. In this instance they experienced some level of autonomy, although opportunities for taking decisions and initiative did not occur that frequently.

There is evidence that HPS created new opportunities for students to lead. The teachers, principal and VP stressed that HPS had created a "platform" for the students to act as role models for the rest of the school. They envisioned that in this way they would potentially influence other students to change their behaviour and become more aware of their environment, an important aspect of HPS.

Critical to participation is the creation of opportunities for participation, in the form of distributed leadership, not only between the principal and his staff but also between the principal, the lead teacher and the students. As described in Chapter 1, section 1.5.5, the students were divided into groups, each having different functions for implementing HPS and each with its own leader who managed the group. Member students had different responsibilities, such as

chairing meetings and taking minutes, which they reported were fulfilled without feeling threatened by other students. That they had elected the student members achieved a feeling of mutual responsibility and teamwork:

The roles work because we do not feel that one is taking over and we do not feel that [key HPS student] is taking over and he is ruling over us. (Student FGD, School A)

However, although it is evident that the students' skills and self-efficacy had been developed, they were not always able to act on it. For example, according to the students, the lead teacher usually called the HPS meetings and took most of the decisions when needed, and they just followed her guidance and instructions. This is evident of the lead teacher's directive leadership style, which most likely resulted in the students' limited autonomy and decision-making power:

We are broken up into groups but [lead teacher] does everything so we just fall in with what [lead teacher] does. (Student AP6)

On the other hand, there were occasions when the students held meetings with the lead teacher present in the class but not taking part in the meeting. Here the students would make decisions but then still run them by the lead teacher for approval. She would give her opinion, and they would usually accept what she finally recommended. This suggests that they had the power to make decisions but what they eventually did was not always what they had intended. Their level of participation therefore varied from mainly following instructions to making decisions independently of the lead teacher (not often), reflecting limited student self-efficacy and authority.

The students outlined a number of personal qualities that made them and their peers more able to engage in HPS: high self-esteem, good manners, perseverance, respect for others, tolerance, friendliness, and making sacrifices. In addition to motivating each other, some students also had personal (intrinsic) motivation. For example, some expressed a vision for their future despite a teacher alluding to them not being motivated. It is evident that being involved with HPS created opportunities for them to think positively about their capabilities for the future, which built the students' self-efficacy to a certain extent. Students also motivated each other by providing a platform to not only express themselves freely, but also to listen without being judgemental. This

happened to such an extent that they felt comfortable with each other and came to love and trust their peers in HPS. This is important for teamwork, as suggested in the settings approach, which created a conducive implementation climate:

Uh [in agreement]... and in HPS we do not put each other down or disregard you, it almost as if you step into love when you are in HPS and that is also what attracts a person to HPS. (Student FGD, School A)

However, retaining commitment was one of the implementation challenges that the students in the FGD discussed. One student felt that everybody needed to show their commitment to the school by making some contribution, and being involved with HPS was one way of doing so. However, there was evidence of some lack of student commitment to HPS. For example, when asked why some students lost interest in HPS, one student said it was her perception that nothing much was happening with regard to HPS at the time; another found it boring after a while but became involved again subsequently when she saw things happening again. It was apparent that some students did not have a full understanding of the implications of being involved in HPS - they seemed to think that it was a series of activities that, once concluded, implied no further action. These perceptions suggest a communication gap regarding HPS and had implications for successful implementation.

It appears that the participation of students was influenced by an array of factors that impacted on the dynamics of the interactions with each other and others, but especially the lead teacher. Furthermore, certain students' skills, personal qualities and positive attitudes also contributed towards a positive climate for implementation of HPS, with their actions and practices for HPS reflecting the school culture of caring. However, the students also faced challenges such as lack of commitment, understanding of HPS and student autonomy, which negatively impacted on their ability to effectively implement HPS.

6.7.2 Participation of staff

Staff participation was shown to be equally important during implementation, but a different set of factors to those of the students emerged. The lead teacher confirmed that there were seven

staff members involved with HPS, each with different roles depending on their interest or expertise.

Different perceptions emerged with regard to who was actually involved - according to the VP it was mainly the LO teachers who participated, although the UWC team noted only partial involvement of the head of LO, and this was mainly around sporting activities. This suggests that the intention of the school was to have all the LO teachers involved, but this did not seem to happen. Although the head of LO attended a few HPS meetings, he often was occupied elsewhere when there were HPS meetings or events.

One LO teacher who taught other core subjects was more involved at the outset, but her additional teaching workload affected her involvement as the initiative proceeded. Despite this teacher still being involved in some HPS-related activities, such as being given the responsibility of assisting the UWC OT students in working with the students, she admitted to feeling guilty about not being actively involved further. She acknowledged the lead teacher's ability for balancing HPS and her workload, implying that some people had the ability to cope whereas she did not. This observation is a reflection of the personal characteristics of the lead teacher that other teachers might not have possessed – the ability to multitask, which influenced her self-efficacy and consequently sustained participation.

The aforementioned teacher acknowledged that even though she was not very involved in all HPS activities, she continued to instill the values of health promotion in her class whenever possible:

... because I try my best in class telling people what they should and what they shouldn't do, what is good what is bad, all of these things ... and especially having respect for one another ... So if I have respect for the next person, "don't mess up the place" for instance, "keep it clean", that kind of thing. (Teacher AP3)

This was the same teacher whose teaching role was changed by the principal, but it seems that that was not the only reason that she had limited involvement as HPS progressed. At the time of her interview I noticed that she was very despondent and overwhelmed with work, which seemed to have a detrimental effect on her self-efficacy. This illustrates how personal experiences of

workload, interpersonal dynamics and possibly personal circumstances, may have impacted on implementation.

Another key factor for HPS implementation that was evident from claims by the HPS teachers and the lead teacher was the culture of collaboration amongst the teachers. This was reflected in the good cooperation from staff when called upon for HPS-related work, even though they may not have been directly involved with HPS:

Obviously you must have the support from them [teachers] because I must approach them when there's [OT] students – "sent me some of the students. I need some of the Grade 8s, I need some of the Grade 9s" ... And there is not one [teacher] who will be sulking. (Lead teacher, School A)

The VP confirmed this, claiming that, by cooperating with regard to HPS, the staff supported the values of the school.

However, some students said that although they did not want to undermine their teachers, their perception was that there was lack of support from some teachers for the lead teacher and HPS, contradicting the claims made above:

I do not want to make our teachers look bad, but if [lead teacher] goes to them with an idea and asks them for their approval, then it seems as if they are not interested in us [HPS group] taking our plans forward, because then it leaves us hanging in the air and then we do not know where or how. (Student FGD, School A)

This contradiction implies that the practices and processes were not transparent enough to make everyone aware of what was happening. However, if the students' perceptions were true, then implementing HPS without the support of the rest of the teachers may have been challenging. This possibly could have negatively influenced the implementation practices and consequently the implementation climate.

Co-operation was also raised as an issue with regard to personal behaviour. One teacher raised her doubts about full cooperation from some of the staff, which she acknowledged was more at a personal level – when they had to change their own behaviour, which she felt was the individual's responsibility:

Like for instance HPS would want everybody not to smoke here, but they need to agree to do that. And if that doesn't happen ... But nobody has asked them [to stop smoking], we didn't make it [explicit] – maybe, I don't know why, maybe because we feel that it's grownups. They know what they should do and what they should not, so who are we to tell them what to do... They should be responsible. (Teacher, AP3)

Although the above remark might have been made because this teacher was feeling despondent due to reasons noted earlier, it was still an issue that could have had a negative impact on the implementation climate because of the low readiness for change of those staff members. Behaviour change is difficult, even if crucial for their health and for them acting as role models to students. It therefore appears that despite claims from the majority of participants of the culture of collaboration and cooperation, there were instances in the school context when predictably there was tension in the relationship amongst the staff.

6.7.3 External support and collaboration

The support and collaboration of external agents is important for implementing HPS, as the school most likely will not have all the resources or skills to do it by themselves. It has already been established that School A was open to others contributing to its development, which would have facilitated a positive implementation climate. This section discusses the factors with regard to support and collaboration of the UWC team, the education district and parent involvement.

6.7.3.1 Role of the UWC team, including the school facilitator

6.7.3.1.1 UWC team, and collaboration to extend the school's reach through HPS

The UWC team, including the school facilitator, was seen to be a key external agent for facilitating implementation. Apart from providing some financial and material resources, as noted earlier, the UWC team also provided technical assistance in the form of facilitating workshops and developing skills to implement HPS. The lead teacher and one other HPS teacher attended an HPS short course convened by members of the UWC team during the winter school holidays to further build their capacity for HPS implementation. The team also provided mentorship, guidance, education and problem solving with the HPS school committee. For

example, the VP commented that the school facilitator was able to structure the HPS process for the school. However, the team played more of a facilitating role as the implementation progressed than a “hands-on” role. There was a perception that the role the UWC team played resulted in a valuable relationship between it and the school:

... and without your involvement and without your input I don't think this school would have opened many other doors, especially on the health aspect. (Teacher, AP3)

Another factor that was highlighted was the potential of extending the reach of the school outside of the school. It was also acknowledged that the HPS had exposed the students to a world outside of their immediate surroundings, which some of them had never been exposed to before:

... kids, they feel good to be like in contact with people from UWC because they sort of know what the world out there holds. (Student AP6)

One example of such exposure was a trip for the HPS students to a HPS in one of the informal settlements on the outskirts of Cape Town, where mainly Black people resided. None of the students had been to such an area before and they reported that they had been quite terrified of being mugged or even killed. However, visiting the school changed the perception of these students. They were pleasantly surprised at how effective the school was as an HPS, even though it was in a poorer socio-economic area than their own school. They left there with changed perceptions, were inspired, and had a renewed interest in HPS.

Furthermore, the teachers perceived the relationship between the UWC team and the school as reciprocal. The school was seen as having built a link with an institution that students might want to attend. The UWC team was seen as giving direction, and at the same time received firsthand knowledge of what was happening in the external and internal social context of the school (as none of the team members came from that community):

It's also a nice bond to have with UWC because sometimes we – they are “there” and we are “here”, and at least people have a insight of what goes on in our communities as well ... The relationship is very important, yes. (VP, School A)

6.7.3.1.2 *The UWC team's use of a participatory approach*

The nature of the collaboration of the UWC team with the school was in keeping with the settings approach of using a participatory bottom-up approach right from the start of the project. For instance, the teachers confirmed that giving students a voice was an important strategy, which the team used in the process:

It is not only the teachers that are going to say "this and that" is going to take place. They [the students] give their input and they get the platform to inform people about what is important for them or what they think is essential. (Lead teacher, School A)

In addition, the lead teacher voiced her approval of the more amenable and holistic approach of HPS to development, as compared to the DoE's didactic and authoritarian approach to teaching:

The whole project is so child-friendly because it asks the child's input whereas the Department just gives the child a book. The project gives the student the opportunity to give input and gives him opportunities to network with schools from other countries. (Lead teacher, School A)

The students also appreciated the non-judgemental approach of the facilitators at the leadership camp, commenting on how they accepted the students for who they were:

It's not only about what you learn but the people who are there have good personalities and good attitude to be open with you. They do not say that you are low class so they cannot mix with you. They handle you on the same level where they are. (Student, AP7)

This non-judgemental approach can be regarded as empowering for the students because it built their self-confidence. This is especially significant in schools, where they are not usually treated as equals because of the hierarchical nature of the education system.

The importance of the school context for implementation was highlighted in the school facilitator's reflection on working with the school at the initiation of the project. She reflected on how the UWC team first had to ascertain the context of the school and how it functioned in order to implement HPS. This meant that the team was considerate in not pushing their own agenda at their pace, but rather started from where the school was at the time:

We were kind of in bits picking things you know? But kind of – maybe it needed to work in that way where we slowly got an understanding of the context and the environment. We're trying to pick up things around how to do leadership management work. (School facilitator, School A)

One teacher's suggestion for how things could have been differently by the UWC team was on alternate ways of working to empower those implementing HPS. Some participants did not seem to consider the UWC team's approach to be as participatory as the team had believed it to be. One teacher felt that in order for HPS to work effectively, the decision-making should be left entirely to the HPS committee, and not external actors, so that their own needs could be addressed. The following quotation implies that the school facilitator might have been too pushy:

I feel that we should be left alone, our core [HPS] group, and then we need to decide. We shouldn't do things what other people want us to do. We need to decide what is important, because I think somewhere we missed that. "What is important" and we need to actually make a list of things that we need to do. (Teacher, AP3)

In addition, more flexibility on the part of the school facilitator was suggested. The VP recommended that there should be less structure around HPS and more flexibility, by working more in tune with how the school functioned. This suggests that if this was done, there might then have been better integration. However, it appears that the school did not resist whatever the school facilitator might have suggested, even though they did not totally agree with her.

6.7.3.1.3 The importance of relationship building for the school facilitator

It is apparent from the data that relationship building was one of the key roles of the school facilitator. The school facilitator confirmed that, through constant face-to-face contact from her side, had developed a good relationship with the HPS group and also the school generally. She claimed that this contact provided her with the opportunity to feel the rhythm of the school, enabling her to fit in with the way the school functioned. She felt that because the school and teachers were so busy, it was necessary for this constant contact as well as regular mentoring, to consolidate HPS and to keep it on the agenda at the school:

I think on a busy school agenda that almost having that external pressure a little bit to say "you've got these little hangers at different points in the year to say these inter-school meetings, these places we coming together, these places we having these meetings". Helps to just catch things. (School facilitator, School A)

Another aspect of this relationship building was the mentoring and support of the HPS school committee. She felt that her support for and mentoring of the lead teacher, specifically, was

important because the responsibility of HPS was placed on the lead teacher as opposed to the entire school taking it on. This is contrary to the VP's perception (alluded to earlier) that HPS had been integrated into the school, and leads one to question whether the school fully understood the concept of HPS as a whole-school approach.

Although the students acknowledged the school facilitator's support, the one regret she reported was not building a stronger relationship with the students because of lack of time and her focus on the lead teacher. What aggravated this situation was that she had not been involved with the student camp, which she was not able to participate in. The camp had provided concentrated time for students to build relationships, not only amongst themselves but also with the camp facilitators and other adults on the camp. This was therefore a missed opportunity for the school facilitator:

... because there you build relations, your building capacity and they not being able to translate that into the schools. I mean although I could read the [camp] reports, it's very different to report ... as opposed to building a relationship with a group of students and they feel that you there helping to support them. (School facilitator, School A)

Moreover, the school facilitator had attempted to build a relationship with the rest of the staff and other students, but felt that that was not too successful as a result of time constraints and other priorities, compromising HPS as a whole-school approach.

Although the VP showed her appreciation of the relationship with the UWC team, she admitted that she found the school facilitator to be forceful at times. The school facilitator herself admitted this, although she justified her actions:

I think, just helping to create space to support that teacher to share those ideas with the staff. To go through things and do a little bit of planning; and then sometimes – I mean I now sit in on those inter-school meetings, and actually watch [name of lead teacher] with the students and then just push a little bit to say “but now what about those badges? And what about that budget” ... which I think is helpful. (School facilitator, School A)

Apart from involvement with the HPS school group, the school facilitator and some team members also engaged with the school in a different way, by attending some of the schools'

public functions. The school facilitator felt that such engagement further strengthened the relationship. The school made a special effort to invite the team, not only a reflection of the relationship that had been built with the UWC team, but also of the school culture; they were proud of the school and showed this by acknowledging their achievements and wanting to share them with other stakeholders. Further evidence of the relationships that developed was the school publicly recognising the team's contribution by awarding the members with acknowledgement certificates, which is indicative of a positive implementation climate.

It is evident that a relationship had been built between the UWC team and School A that was beneficial to both parties. Although the team had different levels of engagement with the school, and members of the HPS group, it all contributed positively to the implementation climate.

However, the data show that not all relationships or collaboration deemed necessary for HPS was possible. One clear example is the low level of engagement of the education district.

6.7.3.2 Engagement of education district

Although the local education authority can play an important role in supporting the implementation of HPS, it was the teachers' and school facilitator's perception that the district was not involved in HPS in any meaningful way. They were of the opinion that a relationship between the HPS committee and the district had not been formed, and that there was very little support from the side of the district. For example, the lead teacher reported that she was keen that the district be made aware of what was happening at the school with regard to HPS, and had therefore sent an invitation to the district to attend an HPS event – but nobody attended. The lead teacher's further expectation was that the district should have been aware of HPS through the school entries in their IQMS, and could have asked for more detail if genuinely interested. This highlights the negative perception that some in the school had of the district.

Similarly, the school facilitator reflected on how difficult it was to form a relationship with the district. Like the lead teacher, she related how, despite several invitations, the district's attendance at HPS events was poor. The documentary review revealed that the district was represented at only two events out of several. Despite this minimal engagement, the UWC team made numerous efforts to keep the district abreast of what was happening with regard to HPS,

which they acknowledged and approved of, yet they showed no interest in becoming directly involved. This lack of active involvement is of concern, as the district is a key actor that has power and authority over the school, and because HPS is set in the education system this involvement becomes key to a conducive implementation climate.

Suggestions on how the district could be involved in the future were made. A teacher said that if the mandate came from the district, then principals would have to see that HPS was implemented. This meant that it would not just be something voluntary that some interested teachers became involved in as was the case here, but that it would be taken more seriously by the rest of the school. On the other hand, there was a concern by a teacher that if HPS became mandatory then there would be a long administrative process that could serve as a deterrent to the implementation of HPS. In such a situation the participatory principles of the settings approach would be challenged because of its top-down imposition.

Another suggestion was that the district should be involved right from the start by first making them fully understand what HPS entailed, what the benefits could be to the school and district, and the potential for connection to the curriculum, even before approaching the school. However, from the documentary review it is apparent that this did not occur. The lead teacher felt that if the district really saw the benefits and potential they would have allocated money to the school for HPS. The principal however acknowledged that should the school ask for assistance for some HPS activity, he was confident that the district would not refuse. He stressed that the school had to take the initiative in approaching the district for additional resources. The data confirmed that this was done to some extent with the feeding scheme and kitchen facilities that the school had requested, as part their HPS processes.

The school facilitator believed that the district officials should be primed to encourage the values of a healthy, functioning school, which she regards as HPS, and should acknowledge the schools that are taking these initiatives. She felt that if the district shared whatever plans they had for schools with schools, then resources from the district could be channeled where needed and duplication could be avoided when implementing HPS. For example, she pointed out the value of having the district social worker at a meeting and, on hearing about student leadership

development plans at the three schools, realised how similar that was to what they were planning. This implies that there would then be a pooling of resources and drawing on what was already available, creating a mutually beneficial situation.

Similarly, the principal felt that the district could play a bigger role in the implementation of HPS because of their human resources, such as psychologists and social workers, especially with regard to psychosocial matters, which was much needed at the school with its challenging social context. However, he admitted that the district was mainly reactive when such issues arose, rather than being proactive in preventing issues from arising in the first place:

For example, one student stabs another with a knife, then they will come in a hurry and sit with the SGB and the child and then they are gone again. But what did they do to ensure that the child does not go that extent again? Now they want to put metal detectors and scan each child. It's not right. ... for me it is more about how we can change the behaviour of the students and that is where they can play a role. But they don't have programmes like that. (Principal, School A)

It is clear that the district is considered an important actor for the effective implementation and sustainability of HPS, but they played this expected role in a very limited way.

6.7.3.3 The limited involvement of parents

The parents' level of involvement in a school can determine their level of involvement in the implementation of HPS. However, their level of involvement appeared to be influenced by the social context. According to the teachers and VP of School A, parent involvement in the life of the school had dwindled. They became involved only when it was absolutely necessary, such as when they had to substitute for a teacher. In the parents' defense, the teachers acknowledged that parents had various personal responsibilities and were therefore not always available when needed. Their limited involvement in the school was also reflected in their level of involvement with HPS.

However, there was a small number of parents who attended the initial workshops that were organised by the UWC team, and they participated in the mapping and dream tree exercises that identified needs and resources (see section 1.5.3). However, their involvement dwindled as HPS

proceeded most likely because of reasons stated before. Parent or community involvement in HPS was limited to two women from the community who prepared the food for the feeding scheme, and members of the community who were former parents who conducted weekly prayer sessions at the school.

From a different perspective, HPS had facilitated a certain level of interaction between the students and their parents. The students spoke about their parents' approval of their being involved with HPS because the parents saw the positive effects that it had on the students. They claimed that they had raised their parents' awareness of HPS and increased their knowledge as well, thereby garnering the parents' support for their children's involvement in HPS:

... and our parents are aware that we are with HPS and every parent is sceptical when a child leaves school late – “where were you?” – and then you just tell her “Mom I was with HPS” – “oh no, then that’s fine” – so they are aware of it ... then you teach your mother what they did not know ... (Student FGD, School A)

Some parents attended the camp reunions that were held after each student leadership camp as a means of encouraging parent involvement. From the documentary review it is clear that the feedback from the parents was always positive, because they were impressed by the difference that the camp had made to their children. However, even though parents asked for workshops on how to communicate with their children, when a workshop was organised, the turnout of the students was good but the parents' turnout was very poor. This is a reflection of some of the difficulties in getting parents involved in HPS implementation and has implications for the implementation climate. Even though parental involvement is regarded as important, in reality this was not always possible, especially within the challenging community context.

6.7.3.4 External networks for HPS

The school's prior networks with external organisations and structures, such as the police and local clinic, reportedly still existed when HPS was implemented and were used for HPS practices. In addition, the teachers and school facilitator highlighted other networks that had formed since HPS was initiated, such as with the school nurses, social workers and university students, including foreign university students.

In addition, the data show that universities can also play a role in the implementation of HPS if university students are placed in the schools as part of their service learning. The involvement of the OT students and other foreign students are examples of how they supported and built on HPS practices through their own activities in the school. For instance, the lead teacher claimed that the OT students were of benefit even though they were not fully involved in HPS implementation, as they enhanced her practice for the implementation of HPS. Apart from support for the busy lead teacher in the school, the school facilitator felt that having the OT students working with the school students was a great advantage because they could identify with the OT students on account of their closeness in age. This demonstrates how external resources can be used to the benefit of the HPS implementation climate:

I think having those, younger people going in spending more time, those conversations with youth and, and seeing how they can get involved I think that's really important. And looking at building of their ideas and it's almost like they could be there to help to support someone like [lead teacher]. You know, have more intensive little workshops and seeing how they can link to students particular needs and build some skills within the school context. (School facilitator, School A)

In summary, external support seemed to have positively influenced the implementation climate for HPS and this was possibly because the school was open to external agents who could contribute to the further development of the school and its students. However the limited district support was one of the challenges for HPS implementation.

6.7.4 Integrating HPS into the broader community

As indicated already, community interaction is another important aspect of HPS. The participants reported how they, as an HPS group, interacted with the community. Instead of having an independent event they joined a Youth Day event in the community that was organised by the police. They also highlighted the TB march that was an interschool HPS event, sharing information on TB with the community and for which they received a warm response. Another example was when the earnings of the Casual Day event (which the students had initiated) were given to an organisation that dealt with people with disabilities, showing their sense of social responsibility and commitment to their community.

The HPS committee at School A highlighted their intention to introduce HPS to a neighbouring secondary school that they felt was not performing well and needed upliftment, showing their commitment and caring beyond their own school – in keeping with the school’s culture and the principles of HPS. Furthermore, the principal emphasised the value of working with other schools for the benefit of the community. He felt that they could uplift the community by developing the students, and he saw HPS as bringing the schools together which did not often. Seeing that community interaction is an important aspect of HPS, these actions were likely to have contributed to potential benefits of HPS for the community.

6.7.5 Role of communication for advancing HPS implementation

Effective, open communication is another key aspect of implementation policies and practices as well as health promotion, and therefore key for implementation of HPS. This was acknowledged by the participants:

I think awareness is very important, if people just start talking about a certain thing ... and be aware of something, then something can be done, but if nobody talks about it and nobody is aware of anything then what can be done? (Teacher, AP3)

The data show that different communication methods were employed during the implementation process, depending on the purpose of the communication. These included holding meetings, report-backs to and by the different actors. Marketing and profiling of HPS can also be considered an important aspect of communication. The role of these strategies in implementation of HPS will be presented in more detail next.

6.7.5.1 Value and challenges of HPS meetings

Various meetings were held and for different reasons. For example, the HPS school committee held meetings where planning took place, decisions were made, information was shared, problems discussed and solutions sought. The meetings were attended by members of the HPS committee and/or of the different groups that had been formed, depending on their purpose.

The frequency of these meetings depended on the purpose of the meetings. If an actual activity was being planned, they were more frequent (about three times a week), but if it was to discuss

HPS issues generally, they were less frequent. However, there seemed to be a lack of skills for organising meetings. For example, notes were not regularly taken at meetings, and there was no proper schedule of meetings, as illustrated with the following statements from three different participants:

Yeah! And we said every second week or every, uh, month. (Lead teacher, School A)

We have many, sometimes three times a week. (Student FGD, School A)

Perhaps one week; three days and the next week sometimes four days; the next week – two days and the next week – nothing. (Student FGD, School A)

The times of these HPS meetings were also reported to be a challenge. Most were held during break times and very occasionally after school. At times the students had other responsibilities such as choir practice during break time, and therefore did not attend the HPS meetings. The students and teachers claimed that holding meetings after school was not very practical because some students did not want to stay after school due to transport and safety issues. Earlier it was suggested that students were not committed because they did not attend the HPS meetings regularly but, from the issues raised here, it can be seen that lack of commitment was not necessarily the only reason for non-attendance.

In addition, the school facilitator also held a few meetings with the rest of the staff (those not directly involved with implementation). She saw the value of these meetings with staff as a means of sharing information and raising awareness. However, this kind of communication was mostly a one-way process with the school facilitator giving information, although giving space for some discussion; the value of these meetings is therefore questionable. The VP thought that initially the school found HPS a bit too demanding, because the school facilitator requested too many meetings. She pointed out that some teachers' perception of meetings was not always positive and they shied away from them. The school facilitator, on the other hand, felt that they had too few meetings, indicating a tension. However, she understood that they felt overwhelmed at times, especially with the increasing pressure for better academic performance:

You know I did at times think, because the school agenda was so busy at different times it felt like it's "Ooh! We've got to fit this in"... it started last year with the whole focus on teaching and learning and the pressure on schools with results, that the time for meeting was really difficult. (School facilitator, School A)

In addition to the HPS committee meetings, interschool meetings and workshops were held which were attended by the HPS committee with other HPS students and the school facilitators. The UWC team also attended some of these meetings. The purpose of these meetings was to bring the three schools together in order to share ideas and experiences and plan inter-school events. The school facilitator highlighted the benefits of the inter-school meetings for sharing ideas and for inspiration:

I think the inter-school meetings were important for exchanging information between schools, and just helping people to share ideas of where they were, and helping to motivate and inspire. I think if you look back at the minutes and say "It was good to get together, it was good to share this, it was good to hear what other people are doing". (School facilitator, School A)

However, despite acknowledging the value of the inter-school meetings for building relationships, the participants admitted to some logistical challenges when they wanted to meet or work with the other HPS schools. For example, it was difficult to get all three schools together to plan an event because they could inevitably not all meet at the same time due to time constraints or workload.

It is evident that meetings contributed positively to the implementation climate. However, holding them regularly and between schools posed substantial logistical challenges. Another challenge was a lack of skills of the HPS committee in organising meetings. These challenges most likely contributed negatively to the implementation climate.

6.7.5.2 Information flow and marketing and its role in communication

Another way of communicating what was happening was through information flow by reporting back on HPS initiatives. The participants acknowledged the regular report-back of the lead teacher, not only to the principal but also to the rest of the staff and at assemblies of the whole school when appropriate. The lead teacher confirmed that this information flow created

transparency that led to staff support for HPS. The VP confirmed that the efficiently produced written reports of the lead teacher had value for not only keeping the principal informed but also for showing the district what the school had been doing when being assessed for their IQMS.

The school facilitator confirmed the benefit of keeping such records:

I think [lead teacher] was very good in keeping that file together, keeping a record from the workshop notes that we took, from the course stuff, from what the students did, from the minutes of our meetings ... that she could then also hand to the office and say "This is what we've done" so when the IQMS was done and that's when the principal would want to call in and say "Now show us what else boosts the school" in terms of you've got proof ... (School facilitator, School A)

It was with this information that the principal was also able to report on HPS to the parents and the rest of the school at the annual prize-giving celebration, where he shared the school's achievements. Students also reported back on their experiences of HPS in assemblies and at the HPS camp reunion attended by parents and teachers.

The school facilitator submitted a written report to the school on the monitoring sessions that she held with the HPS committee in order to review and revise their plans for implementation. The VP acknowledged the value of the school facilitator's and UWC team's reports of meetings and workshops held, when she explained how the whole school engaged with the reports:

But you get feedback you know. And, and don't just think we leave the papers and the pieces just like that – we go through it and we work through it. Yeah, and also not just that I go through it, the principal goes through it. It has been communicated in the staffroom as well. (VP, School A)

The school facilitator felt that the report-back on the findings of the team's survey on perceptions of HPS at the school was also a means of communication - it made the school more aware of their context and the potential of HPS. The VP acknowledged that the survey had given them material to work with for further school development, which was the intention of the HPS project.

Information flow can be described as marketing for HPS because it raised awareness of HPS.

Apart from report-backs and reports, there were other methods of information flow for HPS. For

example, the students showcased what they had learnt by doing presentations and drama at a special event for parents and teachers. The events that they organised to celebrate the special days of the health calendar also played an HPS marketing role as raised more awareness of HPS. The students also received certificates from the UWC team for their contribution to HPS at an assembly of the whole school. This meant that the students' abilities and achievements were acknowledged in a public way, in line with the school culture of acknowledging students' achievements, thereby creating a positive implementation climate.

However, there was still a perception that there was not enough awareness of HPS in the school, and suggestions that further workshops and presentations were needed to market and profile HPS:

... with the feeding scheme, actually no one knows that it's all because of HPS really. And if you had to tell them that it was because of HPS, they like "What are you talking about?" ... by maybe having workshops like inviting them to come see what we do, how we do it.
(Male student, AP6)

In addition, the lead teacher wanted some public display indicating that the school was an HPS school, which never materialised – as a result of lack of funding. Another issue that was raised around marketing was the students' eagerness to have HPS badges so that they could be identified by the rest of the school. The badges appeared to be significant for the students because they admitted that they were even prepared to raise funds and pay towards obtaining them. However, the lead teacher did not approve of them using their own money. Badges seemed to be a status symbol or symbol of power for the students, because the topic came up a few times in the students' individual interviews and FGD, as illustrated by the following response when asked if a badge can make a difference:

I do think so because it's almost like they more careful then because they can like see no but he really is a prefect and he is not just pretending to be one. (Male student, AP6)

Another suggestion by the students for marketing HPS was for them to wear HPS T-shirts (which were provided by the UWC team) at school on appropriate occasions, such as the health calendar days, to raise awareness of HPS:

... we can put on our T-shirts, and like at the back there's an HPS logo

– if we can walk at school with that that sweaters whole day I would think it would be cool they would join ... Yeah, so they can see us.
(Male student, AP8)

It is apparent through these innovative suggestions that the students and lead teacher were keen to market HPS, further showing their commitment to HPS and their willingness to bring about change. These suggestions are an indication of wanting to move HPS beyond the small core group. HPS is a whole-school approach and if it has to move beyond just a small group of students and teachers, then continuous marketing and profiling appears to be essential.

From the above it can be seen that different strategies of communication were used for different purposes. Communication was used for advocacy (marketing and profiling) and for enabling (developing skills, raising awareness and giving information) which created a conducive implementation climate.

However, communication was not always adequate, as indicated earlier. One HPS teacher said although they had regular report-backs and information that was discussed at the time, identified opportunities were not always followed through or the information was not clearly understood. In the instances where communication was not adequate, the implementation climate was likely compromised. Apart from challenges in communication and other challenges already alluded to in this chapter in the process of HPS implementation, there were also significant challenges related to the integration of HPS as whole school approach, as is evident in the following section.

6.8 CHALLENGES OF INTEGRATING HPS INTO SCHOOL A

Integrating HPS into all aspects of the school as a whole-school approach is important for the “anchoring” and institutionalisation of HPS. This section presents the challenges to integration in terms of including HPS across the curriculum and in relevant school policies; how understanding of HPS influenced integration; and tensions such as balancing a heavy workload and HPS, and business interests and HPS.

One way of integrating HPS was including it into the curriculum, which was to a certain degree taken up in School A, especially in LO. The VP was adamant that HPS was not just an add-on

and said that it was integrated into how the school functioned and was included in the curriculum, although she admitted that it was mainly in LO:

... no, not only Life Orientation, but mainly in Life Orientation you have more time, to speak about all these issues you know? They [the other subject teachers] have a syllabus to finish, although HPS comes, even in my subject Consumer studies (VP, School A)

The value of HPS being integrated into the curriculum was confirmed by the HPS teachers, who spoke about the benefit of HPS in broadening the curriculum and making it more interesting for the students:

... because it is not something in isolation, it is part of the curriculum and it expands the curriculum. It captures the children's attention and it strengthens the whole educational journey of the child. (Lead teacher, School A)

However, a major tension of integrating HPS into the curriculum and functioning of the school was the balancing of heavy workload and HPS. Teachers expressed the view that constraints mainly due to their academic and sporting responsibilities, were the main reasons for feeling overwhelmed about taking on the additional work involved in HPS. This is an indication that in view of the heavy workload, not all teachers were ready for change:

And I mean with six English classes and with the marking workload that we do have and the preparation it's very difficult. I already give up my second break for pupils who need to come finish things that are not done, and it's difficult to have meetings and things after school – so I mean that's our life (Teacher, AP3)

Just sometimes, it can feel as if it's something added ... because, with all the commitments – look, if we have a special meeting to accommodate UWC people also where we could have included it in a staff meeting, so now people become annoyed because they still have other commitments, things like that you know? (VP, School A)

The above quotation suggests that HPS was regarded as an add-on, because if it was integrated into the functioning of the school, then it would have been included in the staff meetings. There seemed to be tension around the perception of whether HPS was an add-on or not. This suggests that the HPS approach was not fully understood or integrated into the school, despite claims that it was. One teacher felt that HPS activities could be integrated into what they did at school, but

felt overwhelmed with HPS commitments such as attending meetings and workshops, and supervising university students. It was her opinion that the school had taken on too much with regard to HPS. In fact, she was quite cynical when I referred to the dream tree when she said: “it will *stay* dreams”. This is an illustration of how the heavy workload and inadequate planning of HPS created a negative implementation climate, influencing her sense of self-efficacy and motivation to further implement HPS, despite having been actively involved initially.

Contrary to above teacher’s experience the lead teacher, who did not regard HPS as an add-on, admitted that to some teachers it might have felt like an add-on because it was not part of the formal curriculum and therefore not their priority. She also acknowledged that, apart from the academic programme, the teachers already had additional commitments such as school sporting activities and family responsibilities. There were also other school priorities that took up additional time for the students and teachers, and therefore not everybody was prepared to be involved in HPS – indicating that they were not ready for change. However, the lead teacher, who was also involved in most of these activities, did not feel overwhelmed with all her responsibilities, which she attributed to managing her time well. It was therefore easier for her to be committed to HPS. She admitted however that managing time was not a strength of some of the other teachers.

Moreover, School A did not meet its target matric results in 2010, and as a result the principal clamped down on any activities, including HPS and those not directly related to the academic programme. This suggests that HPS was seen as an add-on and not as integrated. There seemed to be inevitability in the tension between the academic programme and the need to be involved in HPS, even though the school realised the benefits of being healthy for academic performance:

In the school in the classroom and so on, there’s not always time to [practice HPS] because I mean if you prioritise, your academics come first but ... I know you must be healthy to be able to achieve. (VP, School A)

I think I missed some of it [HPS meetings] because school is keeping me busy and I don’t want it to be like that. (Male student, AP8)

Understanding the HPS approach is another important factor for its implementation and

integration, because there might be different interpretations. This could influence the implementation climate. Although there was a belief that HPS was being integrated into the school, it appears to be to varying degrees. There seemed to be uncertainty about how to integrate HPS into the curriculum as well as not having a full understanding of what being involved in HPS actually meant.

The school facilitator acknowledged that there was not enough awareness and knowledge of how HPS could fit into existing school structures or committees and confirmed by a teacher:

It can become part of what we do but then, I don't know. I don't know how – and I'm sure of the Life Orientation, hmm - but not only the Life Orientation classes or lessons. (Teacher, AP3)

The school facilitator further confirmed that, from her conversation with the educational social worker, there was a very narrow understanding of HPS at the district level of the DoE and therefore it was narrowly compartmentalised:

... that's the problem even for her is that in the district it becomes HIV and AIDS and TB that's your portfolio ... They should all see it as part of what their job is and it becomes something that's fobbed off on the social worker, like something that's fobbed off on the Life Orientation teacher. (School facilitator, School A)

This lack of understanding at district level therefore had negative implications for the integration of HPS.

Another challenge was the consideration of business interests over HPS, as the following example shows. There was the tension between selling healthy foods at the tuckshop and compromising the only means of income of the person running the tuckshop (a former parent). Even though the school saw the benefits of the healthy tuckshop for creating a more health-promoting environment, the potential negative socio-economic impact on the owner of the tuckshop served as a barrier for creating a healthy environment in the school. One teacher remarked that if the school could not give this person better facilities where healthier options could be prepared, then the school could not expect her to change her practice. This tension suggests that HPS was not fully integrated into the school, otherwise a more concerted effort would have been made by all involved and affected to bring change to the benefit of all in the school,

including the tuckshop owner.

It is evident that integration of HPS a whole-school approach had several challenges that were conceptual as well as practical. Practical challenges were the issues around workload and academic priorities creating a tension that seemed to impact on the school's ability to implement HPS. Important factors contributing to this were conceptual challenges such as the overwhelming feeling of some individuals that HPS was an add-on. Some school members definitely regarded HPS as an activity in isolation from the normal school functioning. If they understood that HPS could be incorporated into what they were already doing, the possibilities of a whole-school approach with full integration of HPS might have been realised.

One suggestion for integration was bringing school leadership structures on board right from the start. The school facilitator regretted not having a meeting with the principal and SMT to put HPS onto their agenda right from the beginning, which could have facilitated more whole-school involvement and therefore a more favourable implementation climate. She suggested that more effort should have been made to ensure that the teachers understood the potential that HPS had if linked to the IQMS, implying that it would have led to better integration. Although it was done to some extent, the school facilitator's opinion was that there could have been more focus at the curricular level to assist the teachers in taking up HPS, by taking an example like TB and showing how it could be used across the curriculum. This is one way that the whole school could have been involved, because it would have had a focus and therefore been more manageable for the teachers. Involvement in this way might have created more interest in HPS generally, which could then have been broadened out as a whole-school approach, ensuring successful integration of HPS.

In conclusion, all the elements of School A's implementation arena, as described in this chapter, including the different people, practices and processes that determined the scope of implementation; the leadership and management support; the available resources and the role of the champion and other actors such as students and school community; can be seen as influencing the implementation climate for HPS, ranging from positive through to negative. Furthermore, it is evident that the fit of the values of HPS with the values of the school

facilitated a conducive implementation climate. The implementation effectiveness of HPS was influenced by the various factors described, serving as enablers and challenges in the process. Despite the challenges encountered, and because of them, the participants were able to reflect on their experiences with HPS implementation and suggest ways of sustaining HPS at School A, as is indicated in the following section.

6.9 SUSTAINABILITY AND SUGGESTIONS FOR DIFFERENT APPROACHES

Reflecting on their experience with the process of implementation and its effectiveness gave the participants ideas for how to improve the sustainability of HPS, which this section describes. The intention of the school was to continue with HPS even if the UWC project was no longer active. This was evident in their acknowledgements of the benefits and value of HPS for the school community and especially for students and the fit of the values of HPS with the values of the school in order to further the vision of the school. Furthermore, thinking about succession plans if the lead teacher was no longer available suggests that they wanted HPS to continue at the school.

The VP was confident that HPS would continue at the school because the culture and functioning of the school was in line with the HPS approach – the innovation fitted the values and needs of the school. She admitted (consistent with the other participants) that it might not continue in the same vein if the lead teacher left, but there would be other teachers who would be able to take the lead. Similarly, the lead teacher had her doubts about HPS continuing in the same way, because she acknowledged that others might not have the same drive and passion as she had, implying that they needed these characteristics to lead HPS. However, she was confident that the principal would make sure that it continued by giving his support to whoever was leading HPS. She stressed that he would do so because it was his responsibility to see that projects were sustained at the school, indicating her trust in the leadership and management of the principal and also highlighting the important role of the principal in the sustainability of HPS.

On the other hand, the students were also considered as having a role to play in HPS sustainability. As indicated earlier, the teachers and students were confident that the students

would be able to take HPS forward in the school because of their active involvement and commitment. The students acknowledged that HPS could continue under the guidance of the student leadership because they were confident that they had the ability to take HPS forward, indicating their group efficacy. What was to their advantage was that not all students in leadership positions in HPS were senior students, which meant that there could be more continuity.

However, the students admitted there was a problem with retaining their peers' involvement in HPS, and they needed to find a way to solve this problem because they felt that consistency is important for sustainability. The question remains whether they will be able to continue without the lead teacher's support, which they relied on heavily. On the other hand, the students were able to make decisions when she was not around such as on the camp, which suggests that they felt more empowered without her presence. Her absence may therefore lead to their feeling more confident about their own capabilities, which would be beneficial for the sustainability of HPS.

Furthermore, it was a teacher's opinion that people external to the school should assist and support the students, which she thought would be more sustainable for the school. Interestingly, she suggested parents for this role although she admitted that it was difficult to involve them. She said this would be more sustainable than having people from academic institutions or the district because they were not in the school permanently, whereas parents had a link with the school at least for the duration that their children attended. This suggests a more vigorous attempt at getting parents involved in HPS.

In addition, the school facilitator perceived that if certain activities were institutionalised then there would be more chance of sustainability. She gave an example of how the Teacher's Day idea had become something that the school celebrated every year through the buddy system, which was introduced by the lead teacher as an HPS initiative. This suggests that better integration into the life of the school can lead to sustainability.

However, one teacher linked sustainability to being realistic about what they were actually able to do. She referred to some of the things put on the dream tree by the HPS group which she felt were not achievable, because the logistics were not thought through carefully:

I'm sure somewhere we are gonna have a need for a sick bay but there is no space now anyway ... and like the vegetable garden, who is going to take charge for instance? Where is the water coming from? Who is going to clean, who is going to weed the things? All of those practical, I think most of these things were a bit impractical for us to do.
(Teacher, AP3)

Reflecting further on their experience with HPS, participants made suggestions on how certain approaches during implementation of HPS could have been undertaken differently.

6.9.1 Initiating HPS

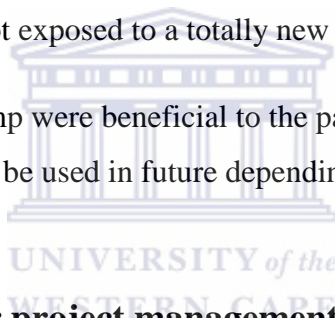
The school facilitator suggested that when initiating HPS, the HPS survey tool that was developed and used by the UWC team two years into the implementation of HPS, should have been used to determine the baseline first, to see what the needs of the school are, and then starting work from there rather than starting with a narrow focus such as HIV and TB. However, she felt a tension between seeing the value of the narrow focus of HIV and TB and working with the broader concept of HPS, and then linking it to what was already happening at the school. The value of focusing was that there was something tangible to work with. However, she commented that by narrowing it down to HIV and TB, the intervention was mainly relegated to LO. She also felt that, because of this focus, it was difficult to capture the interest of the rest of the teachers. She suggested a broader approach, by first identifying existing activities for the whole school (as opposed to only the HPS group) that could be regarded as HPS, and working with those in order to better understand HPS and create more interest at the whole-school level, which could increase the level of school readiness.

6.9.2 Student leadership camp

The data from all the participants and the documentary review indicated that the student leadership camp was one of the most successful ventures of UWC project. However, there was a suggestion that there should be a combined camp for students and teachers so that they could plan as a team and take things forward together. The team had a discussion around this issue when planning for the leadership camps, and decided against a combined camp. There was a feeling in the team that it would be more beneficial for students if their teachers were not present.

However, the final camp was a combined camp with students, teachers and community members. This camp was not held away like the previous ones, where they stayed away from home. Instead, it was held on the UWC campus, which is close to where most students live, and participants were transported to and from home every day. The dynamics of this camp were different to the others but the camp was still beneficial to all who participated, judging from the camp evaluations, which suggests that student leadership camps could be beneficial whether they are held away from home or not and whether they are combined or not. The additional benefit experienced of having the camp close to home was that it reduced the costs and was also able to involve community members and teachers, which in turn built their capacity in working with the students in a different way to what they normally did. However, the disadvantage of the final camp could have been that the students did not have sufficient bonding time with each other, because they did not spend evenings together as was the case with the previous camps. Another disadvantage was that they were not exposed to a totally new environment.

It is apparent that both types of camp were beneficial to the participants, although in different ways, and therefore either type can be used in future depending on the availability of resources.



6.9.3 Suggestions for better project management of HPS

There were also suggestions on how to improve certain project management aspects of HPS implementation. The participants' opinion was that efficient planning was very important for implementing HPS. Unrealistic planning was regarded as a reason that some of the activities did not materialise. The lead teacher said that the lesson she learnt was that planning something within the boundaries of the school and with the school alone can be realistic, but once other schools were involved it became much harder to manage logistically. From my observation and as confirmed by other participants, it seems that the lead teacher was so eager to do things because she wanted to make a difference (reflecting her characteristics), that she did not always think things through and realise that they might be unrealistic. It is clear that proper planning was something that needed to be considered not only for specific HPS activities at the school but also at the broader level of HPS implementation itself, especially because of its complex nature.

The above suggestions on how things could have been approached differently implies that, if these were in place, then a better-quality implementation climate would have been possible, making HPS implementation more effective. Despite many of the challenges faced, HPS was reported to have been effective at different levels.

6.10 PERCEPTIONS OF POSITIVE CHANGES AT SCHOOL A

In this section data are presented on HPS effectiveness which substantiate actual testimony of benefits and gains as experienced through being involved with HPS. Benefits of HPS implementation have emerged at the intrapersonal, interpersonal and school levels.

6.10.1 Intrapersonal benefits to students

Intrapersonal benefits of being involved in HPS emerged as various manifestations in students and included developing communication skills, building of self-esteem, self-efficacy and self-confidence, developing leadership skills and increased their commitment to their academic work. All these factors are relevant if students are to participate meaningfully in the implementation of HPS.

Building their self-confidence and self-esteem meant that the students would possibly be able to “advocate” and “mediate” during the implementation of HPS, creating a conducive implementation climate. Leadership skills were evident in many of the students who were involved in HPS, especially those who attended the leadership camps and had leadership positions within HPS. This was confirmed by the VP and principal when he commented on the change in some of the students:

You can see the leadership qualities in the students involved in the [HPS] project. Those students have gone through a total transformation, those students can talk, suddenly they can talk! ... You would not have seen the potential in those students ... but suddenly they were really leaders. (Principal, School A)

The students themselves acknowledged that they had developed leadership skills through the HPS leadership camps, workshops and meetings. They claimed that this gave them confidence to cope without adult input if necessary. However, despite this claim, apart from conflict resolution

that took place without the lead teacher present, they did not seem to have accomplished much without adult input – especially from the lead teacher, as discussed earlier.

Related to building self-confidence, developing the students' communication skills was an important process in the implementation of HPS. The students admitted that they were able to speak to their teachers more confidently, whereas before becoming involved with HPS some of them had been introverts. The participants confirmed that HPS not only gave the students opportunities to express themselves freely on issues that were important to them, but also gave them the ability to speak in public. The students specifically spoke about how they were encouraged to express themselves freely and in innovative ways when they were on the camps, through the reflective writing exercise that they undertook. They enjoyed the experience of communicating their feelings in innovative written forms such as poetry and song, with which they felt comfortable. They also commented on how free they felt on the camp to show their emotions, even crying openly without feeling inhibited. This was a new way of expression for the students, which appeared to have positively influenced their self-esteem and confidence and put them in touch with their own feelings.

One student felt so inspired by HPS and the profound effect that it had on him that he felt confident enough to want to discuss HPS with the rest of his class:

I have like a note that I have in my diary, it says "I will, I am and I am gonna do it." ... I wrote it because I started to believe in myself ... It made a big improvement my life ... I can speak in front of everyone ... I actually want to do that sometime in class; I want to talk about HPS in the class. (Male student, AP8)

The same student, who admitted to ordinarily being shy, felt comfortable enough to express himself in the presence of other HPS students, indicating the safe environment that HPS had created:

I like working with a group with HPS children. It inspires me, I'm shy to speak in front of a lot of people but when I talk to them I'm not shy. (Male student, AP8)

Many students gained important health understandings; for example, the principal narrated how a student rectified his misconception about the transmission of HIV:

I told him, “You will get AIDS, you can’t drink from someone else.” That is when he told me “Please Sir, you must become more knowledgeable about AIDS, it is not about that, it can’t be contracted that way”. They are more knowledgeable than others now. (Principal, School A)

In addition, HPS was also seen to be beneficial for the development of the students’ character and critical thinking abilities, as is apparent from the following quotations:

I mean for their personal development also and for the development of their character also, and it makes them think because now also students don’t just accept things. (VP, School A)

It like gave me a major boost; I’m more open to try new things and not just closed to one thing the whole time. (Male student, AP6).

The positive personal effect of the student leadership camp on students is further reflected in the quotation below:

Yes, when I came home [from the camp] I was a different person ... My mother didn’t even recognise me, she asked me, “But you weren’t like this when you left”, so I said “I changed”. (Male student, AP8)

It is evident that being involved with HPS created opportunities for them to think positively about their capabilities for the future, providing a vision that built their self-efficacy:

The reason why we are all here is to make a success of our lives and that one day we can also hmm, attend university. (Student FGD, School A).

On a more sensitive level, one student shared how after attending the camp he had the confidence to tell his mother about his homosexuality, which he had hidden from her before:

... And for me it was time for me to be who I am and to accept who I am because living a lie it’s not right ... because if the HPS wasn’t here ... It means a lot because if it. Once again if it wasn’t was for the HPS I wouldn’t have told my mom the truth – I wouldn’t be so happy with my friends I wouldn’t, I would be a pretender. (Male student, AP6)

Another intrapersonal benefit that the students highlighted was that being involved with HPS meant that they stayed out of mischief because they were occupied in a positive way. They acknowledged that the students would not have sacrificed their breaks or after-school time to become involved with HPS if it was not meaningful or enjoyable to them. This suggests that

meaningful activity increased their commitment, which is evident with the following quotation:

Yeah, and the TB march, even though we were like writing exams and I first went home. It was still nice because, seeing everyone marching and everyone happy and taking photos, that was very nice. (Male student AP6)

Furthermore, the VP believed that HPS had the potential to have a positive influence on the students' academic work because health and education "go hand in hand", which was confirmed by some of the students themselves. Some students claimed that they applied the attributes that they had gained while being involved with HPS, such as perseverance, dedication and leadership skills, to work more diligently with their school work.

Many of the intrapersonal benefits were also a manifestation of interpersonal interactions, such as at the leadership camps and during workshops. For example, the lead teacher felt that the interaction with foreign students at the school involved in HPS activities had been beneficial for the students' personal growth. She was impressed with how spontaneously the students were able to communicate with these university students and how confidently they were able to report back to the school. Further interpersonal experiences and their benefits are presented in the next section.

In summary, the students benefitted personally through their experience with HPS and were able to use the skills that they had developed although to a limited extent, demonstrating the capacity building brought about by HPS. This suggests that the implementation of HPS was effective with regard to students' intrapersonal growth and a greater level of agency, even if not for the implementation process of HPS itself.

6.10.2 Positive interpersonal experience

In the settings approach, collaborative working is one of its key characteristics and there is evidence that School A engaged in a number of opportunities where working together resulted in positive interpersonal experiences through building relationships. Relationship building is important for the implementation and sustainability of HPS implementation, which is a complex process requiring teamwork and cooperation.

All the participants confirmed the new relationships that had developed between the HPS students. The lead teacher acknowledged that prior to the initiation of HPS at the school, students had not necessarily known one another but the process of HPS implementation had brought the HPS students together. Similarly, the students claimed that the unity amongst them that started at the leadership camp not only brought them together, but kept them together. They had built up such a good relationship that they trusted, loved and felt totally comfortable with one another.

The students regarded the teamwork and cooperation that occurred amongst them as a result of being involved with HPS as important in their relationships with one another. Another interpersonal experience was their new ability to deal with conflict without involving adults, which demonstrated collective self-efficacy. This was demonstrated when an issue arose at the leadership camp:

... and so we did not argue, we talked with one another. We spoke about how I felt over the matter, how you felt over the matter and how she felt over the matter. We sorted out the whole story ourselves ... without a teacher or adult or whoever was involved [in the camp]... There was lots of drama ... cried and sobbed, yes. (Students FGD, School A)

The students also acknowledged that there was good peer support as they motivated each other in positive ways that led to the building of self-esteem, as illustrated in the following quotation by one of the shy participants:

And sometimes they even encourage me to do something then I'm afraid, but when I'm done I'm feeling kind of good because it feels like I did something for the world and I want to feel good about something when I do something. (Male student, AP8)

Further evidence of the benefits of working together was the relationship building with Schools B and C. The students confirmed the harmonious relationships that had developed with students from other schools where they shared ideas and formed friendships in the process, demonstrating how HPS had brought the schools together:

It was good for me to work with them because our opinions and their opinions differ ... So it is always good to work with their ideas and then we share our opinions with one another. Now I think that our relationship with [School B and School C] is a good relationship

because we will always laugh and talk together. We look forward to seeing each other. (Male student, AP7)

The students acknowledged that there was no rivalry between the three schools, which could ordinarily be expected, but rather that they respected one another. Most of them acknowledged that they continued their friendship outside of HPS initiatives via social media. Some of them admitted that it was good to get to know the students from their own community, which would not have happened if it was not for their involvement with HPS, thus highlighting the effectiveness of HPS implementation and the potential for furthering community interaction.

The principal also commented on the value of bringing the schools together through HPS. In the following comment it is interesting to note that the principal used the word “we” when referring to working with the other schools in HPS. This suggests that despite not being actively involved, he still had a sense of ownership over what the school did with regard to HPS:

In the process we worked with other schools ... and schools where the students would not normally work or interact with other students because students do not usually reach out to other schools. (Principal, School A)

Similarly, the teachers acknowledged the relationship that had been formed with their colleagues from the other two HPS schools as a result of networking and working together on HPS activities. Consistent with what the students claimed, one teacher said that because of this relationship, she had learnt from the others’ experiences through their similarities and differences.

In the settings approach, it is essential to work collaboratively. The affirming relationships that developed, the networking and the working together within the school, as well as with other schools, is evidence of collaboration having taken place. This was a manifestation of a positive implementation climate and suggests the implementation effectiveness of HPS and possibly sustainability.

6.10.3 Positive change at school level

One significant structural change was the initiation of the feeding scheme. The participants

regarded the feeding scheme as one of the most successful HPS initiatives and one that benefitted the whole school. It was something positive that came about as a direct result of being involved with HPS, even though feeding schemes are not generally implemented at secondary schools. The feeding scheme was one of the identified needs during one of the initial workshops. With the support of the UWC team, the HPS teachers' capacity was built to submit a proposal to the District, which was approved. The HPS students indicated that students benefitted from the feeding scheme because it provided meals for those who might not have had a meal at home. The students' perception was that in this way the students were able to concentrate better, contributing to the overall progress of the school. Although the feeding scheme was successful, there was a need for a new kitchen (which had been functioning from the storeroom at the time of data collection). Because of the efforts of the lead teacher with the support of the school leadership, a kitchen was subsequently built on the school premises and benches erected outside for the students, where they could have their meals.

Another benefit was the perception that, since HPS was implemented, it had raised awareness of health issues in the school overall:

Many of the students are definitely more health conscious I would say. Hmm, and even the class, when we do Life Orientation, then many of their ideas come out, that which they learnt at HPS. (Teacher, AP4).

A teacher claimed that the school would be able to tackle other issues (apart from TB and HIV which were the project's focus) related to health and general wellbeing, because of better understanding and experience gained through the project.

Furthermore, peer influence was reported to have played a role in recruiting more students for HPS, thereby growing the HPS group – which was seen as a gain for HPS. This growth was confirmed by a student who claimed that other students wanted to be involved in HPS because the HPS students were seen as role models:

Well I think everything changed at this school because it wasn't like this, like the HPS club is expanding at the moment and people didn't want to join when I was joining so they didn't, but now they do ... Because I think they look up to us, they want to be like us. (Male student, AP8)

There was also improvement in the school's physical environment as a result of HPS. The need to improve the ablution facilities was identified during the initial HPS workshops and entailed building more toilets for teachers and students, a need that was then addressed by the school. In addition, the students reported that they noticed that the school grounds were cleaner after breaks and also claimed that there was some improvement in student behaviour because there was less swearing and smoking on the school premises. They were of the opinion that the small HPS groups that they had formed seemed to have brought about these changes.

Although the VP admitted that she could not pinpoint other gains or benefits directly related to the HPS project, she felt that HPS definitely had a positive impact on the school:

I can't give you a definite example, but I know it does impact; they are aware of HPS – as I say, HPS is not something that's separate, it's part of the school ... you can't pinpoint "this, that and the other" – I think maybe matters would have been worse if it hasn't been for, for little things that have been done. (VP, School A)

It is evident that there were a few substantial changes at the school level as well as smaller changes. The fact that the VP could not pinpoint exactly what could be attributed to HPS could suggest that some changes were not significant enough but could also suggest that in keeping with a whole-school approach, HPS was possibly integrated into the normal functioning of the school so that it was difficult to isolate the HPS specific changes.

In conclusion, the settings approach and HPS emphasise interventions at different levels of the system, and it is evident that the students, teachers and the school as a whole had benefitted from the effects of the implementation of HPS through their various interactions, highlighting the important role that the different actors played at the various levels of school system during implementation. Therefore, despite the many challenges experienced in process of HPS implementation, there were also many interrelated factors that created an enabling implementation climate which resulted in positive effects.

The next chapter is a description and discussion of Case 2, which is referred to as School B in this thesis. Although the format of the chapter is similar to that of Case 1 and follows the adapted framework, the content will relate to what emerged from the data of School B specifically, and

no comparison will be made with Case 1 yet. This will rather be covered in the Discussion chapter.



7 FINDINGS - CASE 2

7.1 SCHOOL B PROFILE

School B's Vision Statement reflects the commitment of the school to strive to create a safe, conducive environment through whole-school development, with the aim of achieving quality teaching and learning:

To be a progressive learning centre of excellence and innovation based on: a safe learning environment that builds teamwork, gives acknowledgement and invests in people's passion.

School B had been operation for 23 years in 2011, when it had 1428 students: 739 males and 689 females. The school, which had achieved an 80.1% matriculation pass rate in 2012, offered a mixture of technical (civil, mechanical and electrical engineering, business and computer studies) and academic subjects. Because of its technical offerings, it attracted students from further afield than the surrounding community, but mainly from poorer socio-economic communities. The principal had served as acting principal in 1994 and 1995, and was appointed principal from 1996 until 2012, when he retired.

School B offered a variety of co-curricular activities including netball, rugby and soccer. There were also various clubs including a Peace Club, which attempted to resolve conflicts amongst students in the school, clubs for hiking, chess, darts, fishing, first-aid, Youth in Philanthropy and a cadet club,¹⁴ which the principal and teachers believed improved discipline and encouraged leadership amongst students. A teacher was responsible for each sport or club. Each club raised its own finances by selling food at the school to support their co-curricular activities, indicating an encouragement of entrepreneurship and self-sufficiency. Other organisations that the school was involved with dealt with issues such as drug addiction and women's leadership at the school. The school also had visits by nurses from the local clinic, who conducted tests for TB and HIV, and with whom students could discuss any health-related issues.

¹⁴ Students have a military-style brigade and go through military exercises which require strict discipline.

Formal structures in the school included an SGB, a prefect body, an RCL and a SMT. There was also a Finance Committee, which managed all the finances of the school including those of the different clubs.

The entrance to School B was via two gates that were kept closed and monitored by five security personnel who worked in shifts, limiting access to the school. The school buildings were surrounded by high, thick palings suggesting a quality of imprisonment. The school had large sports field but because it was not fully fenced, students did not have access to it for safety reasons, restricting their activities during break times. The school was generally well-kept, although the grounds were littered at times. Large signs above the entrance to the school indicated that smoking, drugs, alcohol, weapons and hawkers were not allowed. Bordered on one side by well-kept houses and neat streets, the other side of the school abutted an area of sub-economic and generally overcrowded housing with a high prevalence of gangsterism.

Case 2, although following a similar format to Case 1, presents data that are unique to School B.

7.2 HPS VALUES-FIT WITH VALUES OF SCHOOL A

To be a progressive learning centre of excellence and innovation based on: a safe learning environment, which builds teamwork, gives acknowledgement and invests in people's passion. (School B Vision Statement)

Looking back at the vision of School B, it implies that a supportive and enabling environment needs to be created, with the school community at the forefront of all its endeavours. This vision fits well with the HPS approach of creating an enabling environment for the school community in which to improve their health in its broadest sense, and acknowledging the importance of people working together to achieve its goal towards health and positive development.

The values of HPS were seen to be compatible with the school's values of caring and concern for the students to improve their well-being. The participants saw the benefits and potential that HPS had to make a difference for the students in the school, by creating an enabling environment that addressed the needs of the students:

I thought it will be a good for the school if we start with HPS, especially for the feeding scheme, because we struggled to get a

feeding scheme going because we found that there was a hunger need amongst the children ... and it [HPS] would also provide an opportunity to look more closely at health. (Principal, School B)

Similarly, the lead teacher saw the potential of HPS being integrated into what they were already attempting at the school with regard to creating a healthier environment for the students, especially around norms and values:

We are trying to make like a norm at school, a norm to pray every morning, a norm to stand in your rows, a norm to wash your hands, a norm that there is gonna be food for you every day if you hungry or whatever. So with the HPS we are trying to make healthy practices a norm in our school and not for specific days. (Lead teacher, School B)

Another teacher echoed this by saying:

Hmm, I feel that like each child should be a health promoting child by, for instance, just picking up papers. (Teacher, BP16)

The above quotations indicate that the school was attempting to create a health-promoting climate by having policies and practice to support this, thus enabling the school community to make healthier choices. The recognition of the compatibility of HPS with the needs of the school suggests that they were ready for change.

7.3 ORGANISATIONAL READINESS FOR CHANGE

7.3.1 Seeing the benefits and potential of HPS and reasons for involvement

At School B, it was of interest whether teacher motivation (which is important for implementation and also influences ORC) was internal to the individual teachers or derived from the fact that they worked at a school where change was embraced. When probed, it was apparent that some of the teachers had personal reasons for becoming involved with HPS, and some examples are presented. One teacher reported that some members of her family had TB and some were HIV positive. She felt that not only would she be able to improve her knowledge on TB and HIV but that those students in the same situation would benefit from HPS. In this way she felt that she was contributing positively to the school which she perceived she had not been doing before the project, and seemed to have motivated her further.

Furthermore, the school facilitator explained that the principal was particularly interested in the development of a TB policy that HPS could facilitate, because he acknowledged that TB was a major health problem in the community and, more recently, HIV was also on the rise.

Developing such a healthy policy meant the needs of the school would be met. In addition, the principal was very concerned about the unhealthy food that was sold at the school tuckshop and saw HPS as having the potential for making a change where healthier choices could be made.

Other HPS teachers said that they became involved because they “had a passion for health”, while two of them described their involvement arising not only from this passion but through their friendship with the lead teacher. Another reason given by teachers for their involvement was that a school policy required their involvement in a co-curricular activity and HPS was one way of doing this. In addition, the teacher responsible for first aid saw a natural progression in her involvement as she regarded first aid as an HPS activity. She did not feel that it was additional to the role she was already playing; it rather meant that the first aid club would receive more exposure and in turn attract more members. After the school facilitator had explained HPS to the teachers, they came to realise that some of their activities could be regarded as HPS although they had not previously been “labelled” as HPS. This is evidence of how forward-looking the HPS teachers were, and they showed some sense of pride in what they were already doing, which is likely to have served as motivation for the school’s readiness for change:

I will never forget it ...where they explained what health promoting is all about, everything else that takes place at school actually makes it a more healthier thing you know? And it was so amazing that we weren't even aware of all the things that we were already doing you know ... which was part of health promoting. (Teacher, BP16)

The reasons that the HPS students gave for them becoming involved suggested their readiness for change. In keeping with the caring culture of the school, these students were strongly motivated to make a difference in the school because they were aware of the problems facing many other students, such as gangsterism and truancy. The students wanted to assist in changing the school by creating a supportive environment where they had a sense of belonging:

Yes, it is because we also want you to be happy and healthy here. We also want there to be peace between each and everyone. (Male student, BP18)

In addition, the students also had personal reasons for becoming involved. One student was determined that she not only wanted to improve the health of other students because she was aware that TB was rife in the community, but she also had a family member with TB. Another reason given for student involvement was peer influence. HPS students motivated other students or they became interested after experiencing the HPS activities of their friends, and were tempted to become involved too, thereby increasing students' readiness for change:

My one friend was in HPS and intervals there used to be meetings. Then she said that I must come with her because it is interesting and I must come and find out more. I went with her and that is how I became a member. (Student FGD, School B)

The teachers claimed that the camp also served as incentive for students to become involved with HPS as it was something to look forward to at the end of the school year:

And also the camp, because that is the biggest attraction – the fact that you on this camp where every need is catered for and you don't have to pay a cent. And it's right before the actual holiday starts, so you start your holiday on a very, very high note. And that pulls students. (Lead teacher, School B)

In summary, there were varied reasons for teachers and students to become involved with HPS, some personal and others related to the broader environment. Even though there were different reasons given, there was an implication that the school context - its caring culture, peer relationships and existing policies and practices - allowed them to feel motivated, opening up the potential to embrace change.

7.3.2 Organisational context of School B

As noted, the various factors in the school context of School B influenced its readiness, and these include the culture, the caring for and commitment to students, the way the school functioned, the different relationships in the school, and the existing policies and practices in the school.

7.3.2.1 Caring culture and commitment to students

A supportive environment with a culture of caring and commitment for the students seemed to be prevalent at School B even before HPS was initiated. The students felt proud of their school as they saw it as a positive environment providing development opportunities for them. This was in

contrast to the community environment, which they claimed often had a negative influence on them:

I think highly of my school and I am proud [of it] ... because there is a home for us young people – is the best thing that happened to us young people because that time that we sit so at home and catch on unnecessary things that causes problems we can rather be sitting at school. (Female student chairperson, School B)

The culture of caring and commitment to students was evident in the celebration of student achievement, motivation of students, student discipline, and the sense of social responsibility at the school. For example, the principal showed his pride in the school when he acknowledged the students' achievements in various co-curricular activities.

They beat all the schools! All the schools! These, these White schools¹⁵ take a beating from them! (Principal, School B)

Furthermore, he felt that it was important to celebrate the students' achievements, such as with the certificates of acknowledgement that were presented to top achievers. This was usually done in assemblies when the whole school was present. The principal perceived that this would inspire other students and therefore changed from presenting certificates to the matriculants at the parents' meeting to doing so in the presence of the whole school.

The principal emphasised that it was important to keep the students motivated, and the school did so in different ways. One way was reporting back on what people in the school were involved in, not only to inform others in the school but also to motivate them. Another form of motivation was in a form of a slogan for the matriculants to make them work towards a goal: "Make mom and dad happy".

It is evident that the school felt accountable to the students because of their challenging social circumstances, which likely positively influenced the school's readiness for change. One

¹⁵ Although it was 20 years since democracy, many of the schools were still racially segregated as they are situated in the areas that were allocated to the different race groups and many of the inhabitants continued to live in their allocated areas. The White schools are situated in areas inhabited by mainly White people and therefore mainly attended by White students although this is starting to change. Historically, these schools were better resourced and achieved better overall.

example of the caring culture was when the school supported a student who was terminally ill with AIDS. The staff brought her food and assisted her with her school work in order that she could complete her matriculation certificate. Another example was when the principal or a teacher personally took ill students for medical attention, and also paid for the services when necessary. These actions were perceived as giving parents the consolation that the school cared for their children. This shows that the school acknowledged that the parents were either not available or did not have the resources to take the child for medical attention, and therefore the school took on the responsibility, reflecting their commitment to the students:

The people feel that this is a good thing because they feel that “Okay, if my child gets hurt at least I know the school will take my child to the doctor”. (Principal, School B)

The teachers’ commitment to the students was also shown in the extra time they dedicated to tutoring students. The principal acknowledged that teachers also volunteered to wash students’ sports outfits after a match, because in all likelihood this would not be done at home. According to the lead teacher, teachers also secretly donated ingredients for the feeding scheme at the school. In addition, they sacrificed their break times to supervise students who wanted to play on the open field next to the school as there was no other large open space for them to play on.

This culture of caring and commitment to the students could potentially have influenced the school’s readiness for change.

7.3.2.2 Culture of collaboration and cooperation

It seems that teachers showed different levels of commitment to their work, which also influenced their cooperation and collaboration with others in the school. There were those who took on most of the responsibilities and those who did only what was absolutely necessary. This passive attitude can have a detrimental effect on the implementation of HPS because it suggests that there might be different levels of readiness amongst them.

Although the HPS teachers worked well as a team (which will be discussed later in this chapter in section 7.7.3), they highlighted the negative aspects of the attitude and behaviour of some colleagues. One teacher was particularly critical of her colleagues and disclosed that some teachers paid no attention in staff meetings because they felt that whatever was being discussed

was not meant for them or did not apply to them. Her perception was that some teachers were apathetic and expected others to do what needed to be done in the school to make it function effectively. A teacher admitted that some of the teachers did not familiarise themselves with the school policies (which were accessible to them) and, in combination with not attending meetings, she perceived that they were not aware of what was happening in the school all the time. This shows that there was some tension amongst teachers, which could have compromised their level of cooperation for HPS and therefore also negatively influence their readiness for change.

There was also the perception that some teachers were resistant to change, which could have implications for the school's readiness to implement HPS:

And it's quite difficult to motivate them and to convince them that something is going to work. Hmm, some of them are very old school so they set in their ways. (Teacher, BP16)

However, this negative attitude of some teachers towards their work was not reflected in their concern for and commitment to the students, as evident in the relationships between the teachers and students.

The relationship between the teachers and students will have an impact on whether they will be able to collaborate and cooperate with one another to bring about change. The teachers and students regarded the teacher/student relationship as mostly positive:

We still have the respect of I would say 80% of our students; and it's really just a few students that's out of hand. I strongly believe that students want to be disciplined and if you give them their scope [too much leeway] then they will take it because kids are going to be kids. (Teacher, BP 16)

The students acknowledged that most teachers were amiable and not judgemental towards them. This meant it was possible that they would be able to collaborate with one another in an affirmative relationship.

However, the students regarded this relationship as having negative aspects too, attributing this to a few students' bad behaviour. The students felt that some students did not appreciate what the teachers did for them or how they cared for the students. However, the students' perception was that teachers did not always understand why students misbehaved. These negative aspects most

likely also influenced whether the relationship between teachers and students would be compromised, especially if they had to work collaboratively such as in HPS.

In conclusion, if these relationships are affirmative, then readiness for change will be high because it would create a climate for mutual collaboration and cooperation. Student attitude and behaviour, however, is complex because there is an array of factors that might influence them, as is apparent in the next section.

7.3.2.3 Student attitude and behaviour

The students' impression was that both the internal and external school contexts (such as poverty and parental abuse) affected some students' attitude and behaviours at school. Their perception was that these students did not know how to cope with their personal problems and often took out their frustrations at school on other students and teachers. Truancy, smoking (including marijuana) and carrying weapons such as knives were some of the challenging behaviours that the students highlighted.

However, this was countered by a student from a challenging home environment who argued that not everybody in those situations reacted negatively. His response rather was to offer support:

There are children who feel that the home is not the place that they want to be. We are at school most of the time and certain children know how others feel because they are in the same boat ... Now we just want to help you if you have problems, how can I say, "Do not be shy we are here".
(Male student, BP8)

On the other hand, peer pressure was recognised as a challenge in relation to the internal school context. This possibly could have had an impact on whether the students had the ability to bring about change when their peers were not supportive of the change. One student explained how the need to fit in with peers often happened at the expense of essential needs:

It's to feel cool and not to feel isolated from the friends. Yes, if I have a Quicksilver [name brand] top today and my friend doesn't, he will insist by his parents that he gets one ... They will rather not buy food for themselves but they want to be dressed the same. (Female student chairperson, School B)

This student went on to narrate how she had the willpower to disassociate herself from peer pressure because it was having a negative impact on her. She realised that she herself had to make the choice to change and become independent, showing her self-efficacy.

It appears that students regarded being involved with HPS as a mechanism for creating a supportive climate for the benefit of all students, which could also have been an important influence on students' readiness for change. However, it is evident that there were external as well as internal factors that influenced the students' attitude and behaviour, which both positively and negatively influenced the school's readiness for change.

7.3.2.4 Challenging school physical environment

The physical school environment could have been another factor in the school context that influenced the school's readiness for change, because it determines whether members of the school will feel that they will be able to bring about change. Different issues were raised about the schools' physical environment. For instance, the teachers and students complained about the confined space within the school grounds in which the students were allowed to spend their break times or play sport. The designated small play area was fenced in by high, thick palings, giving it a sense of being imprisoned:

I think it is nice to come to school at [School B] but my problem is that we do not have access to – we can't play on the field or outside, it is almost like we are in jail, because we just stay in the block. (Student FGD, School B)

The impact of the confined playground was evident in the following quotations:

One of the kids kicked in the windows. You know I wasn't even angry with that child because where must he play! So now they took the ball off him. (Teacher BP16)

Hmm, the space was a little bit small because we now – at the last minute I changed the venue from there [the field] to here [confined playground] but I still felt there is a lot of open spaces on that field and I was scared people will just come in there and drink and how are we going to control it? So the control was much better on this side, it's just the playground was a little bit too small. (Teacher, BP16)

As is evident from the above quotations, although the school had a big field adjacent to the school building, it was not fenced and therefore raised the school management's concerns about security risks and truancy. Moreover, the public used this field as a thoroughfare and therefore it was regarded as unsafe for the students because of the social challenges in the community.

Another concern raised by the principal and teachers was the unhealthy food that was being sold at the school. After the initiation of HPS they were successful in substituting healthier options for some of the foodstuffs, but not in all cases. The dilemma identified by the teachers was that the unhealthy food that was being sold provided an easy way to raise funds for the different clubs and activities at the school - if the food was changed to healthier options, it might not be that popular and sales would drop, compromising the needed funding.

Even though the above issues are negative, HPS can still provide an enabling environment in which the school can feel that they have the ability to address these issues because their concerns can be a trigger for readiness for change.

7.3.3 Positive past experience with external organisations

Even before HPS was initiated, the school was open to external organisations involving students in different projects. Other organisations that the school was involved with dealt with issues such as drug addiction and women's leadership at the school. The school also had visits by nurses from the local clinic who conducted tests for TB and HIV, and with whom students could discuss any health-related issues. The fact that the school had positive past experiences with these external organisations, and was able to sustain projects after an organisation was no longer in the school, may have influenced their amenability to implementing HPS, because they saw it also as bringing about positive change. The principal and HPS teachers that felt they had the efficacy to implement HPS, having had past experience with external organisations doing similar work.

7.3.4 Role of policies, practices and structures in School B's readiness for change

The teachers acknowledged that School B had many policies in place addressing an array of issues. Some policies relevant to HPS were related to HIV, discipline, TB, and being involved in co-curricular activities (teachers and students). For example, one school policy required students to belong to a club or take part in some co-curricular activity such as a sport, for the development of their skills. Most of these activities were seen to fit with the ethos of HPS and suggests that the school's readiness for change was probably higher because of this fit. One teacher believed that the co-curricular activities encouraged school attendance, noting that students who were involved in co-curricular activities attended school not so much because of the schoolwork but rather because they wanted to participate in something other than the formal curriculum. This by implication means that they would be ready to be involved in HPS, which involved not only the formal curriculum but also the co-curriculum.

However, the school's policies did not necessarily take into consideration the students' social and economic circumstances. For example, one reason given for students not participating in co-curricular activities was some students' need to use public transport, which was neither regular nor safe after school hours.

Further evidence of where policy was not sensitive to students' circumstances was the uniform policy, to which the FGD students objected, as it did not consider students' personal economic circumstances. However, if the school was developed as an HPS, then it would mean that the school would take the realities of the situation of the students into consideration and most likely find alternate, more positive ways to accommodate the schools' and students' needs.

Student discipline was deemed important and one activity that the participants highlighted particularly was the cadet sessions which they thought improved discipline in the school. These sessions were incorporated into the LO classes, but the principal encouraged other teachers to integrate it into their subjects as well as he saw the difference that it made with regard to student discipline. It also taught the students leadership skills, as students were chosen as drill masters for their particular grades. Even though these sessions might have empowered these students,

this authoritarian means of discipline did not fit the ethos of HPS of empowerment. Another discipline-related policy, that was in tension with HPS, required students to work in the school garden as a form of punishment. This type of punishment is contrary to the ethos of HPS, as gardening would be seen as something positive in HPS. However, it was another indication that the school was attempting various ways in which students could be developed, indicating the school's readiness for change. On the other hand, there is an indication that some pre-existing policies and practices could have a negative influence on the school's readiness for change because the school might not be willing to change those that they deem to be effective for the school.

However, a number of structures in School B and their functioning had the potential to further positively influence the school's readiness for change as they had a degree of power as a result of their status in the school. One of these structures was the SGB, a body with decision-making powers that included representatives from parents, students and teachers. Its main roles, according to the teachers and students, were perceived to be to address student discipline issues, allocate money to the different clubs and hold them accountable.

In addition, there were student structures such as the prefect body and RCL, the latter to see to the needs of the students. If the students encountered any problems they approached an RCL member, who took up the issue with the relevant teacher or the principal, providing them with a voice and serving an empowering role for the students. According to the principal many of the students in these structures also belonged to other clubs. This suggests that these students also had potential for becoming involved in HPS as they seemed to be motivated.

Having various policies, practices and structures in place suggests that School B could increase its readiness for change. However, these policies and structures would benefit from being aligned to the ethos of HPS by taking the realities of students into account and being implemented in such a way as to be empowering to both students and teachers.

In summary, School B's readiness for change ranged from positive to negative and was determined by seeing the benefits of HPS in the school context – some of which encouraged readiness for change (such as past experience with external organisations) while others

negatively influenced readiness for change (such as existing policies that were not conducive for HPS). Leadership and management was also seen as key to drive the policies and practices for HPS at School B, as is evident in the following section.

7.4 LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT SUPPORT AND PRACTICES

This section describes the principal's leadership in the school and also the role that he played in the implementation of HPS and how that influenced the implementation.

7.4.1 Principal's management and leadership style and characteristics influence on change processes

The students and teachers acknowledged the principal's commitment to the students and the school. The school facilitator confirmed that the principal was aware of the challenging circumstances that the students came from and therefore tried to create a more supportive environment for them at school. For example, students who were involved in the cadet training sessions were given the opportunity to go to a related academy to be assessed, and were granted bursaries if they were successful. In this way he created avenues for the students who would otherwise not have had such opportunities. At the same time he tried to improve the school's academic output. Whether his accountability to the students could be motivated by wanting them to perform well academically for the image of the school or out of genuine concern about students' well-being cannot be known, but it is evident that he was cognizant of their social circumstances:

He also feels you know that in that area where students are very poor, he wants to see to it that they are successful. You know he wants to get good, a good Matric pass rate. (School facilitator, School B)

However, there were also negative perceptions of the principal, mainly from the perspective of the teachers but also from my own observations of his interactions with others in the school. The teachers criticised his leadership style, which was perceived to impact negatively on the attitude of some teachers towards the functioning of the school. They perceived him to be an autocrat who did not consult widely and made decisions unilaterally, albeit for the benefit of the school. The perception was that some of the teachers had resigned themselves to the principal's

autocratic style and therefore made no effort to give input during decision-making processes for the school. They knew that no further discussion would be entertained and sometimes issues were not resolved as result:

... when they have their senior meetings that he has already made up his mind you know “this” is what he wants to do, hmm, so it’s sort of futile, what’s the use of ... (Teacher, BP16)

The teachers were convinced that the principal favoured certain teachers, thereby creating unequal relationships. This they regarded as being unfair and it led to certain teachers having most of the responsibility, while others were indifferent about what needed to be done:

[Principal] mentioned yesterday he needs to see the seniors and then he mentioned [senior teacher’s] name. So somebody said, “is [he] the only people involved in, you know in the senior structure”. So yeah! I feel that we must stop overloading one person and the duty should be spread evenly. It would have – then people would take ownership of the school. So now they feel, “Agh! It’s [principal] and this one and that one running the school, so let them” ... you know that type of attitude. (Teacher, BP16)

The lead teacher, although denying it herself, confirmed the perception amongst the teachers that the principal favoured certain teachers over others:

... but at the school there is the impression that he’s favouring some people, and unfortunately for me I fall under that list. But hmm, it’s not, I, I don’t think it’s the case that he’s favouring certain people ... (Lead teacher, School B)

The implication of this perception is that, if some teachers were committed to change, especially if initiated by the principal, then others who perceived themselves as not being “favoured” might not give their cooperation, which would then be perceived as a negative attitude towards their work.

One teacher’s opinion was that if the principal had a more democratic approach, more teachers would have felt a better sense of belonging and subsequently be more committed to the school, and therefore also to any proposed changes:

So now it just comes down from the top which it should actually be filtering up from the bottom. And, like I said it would be so much better and easier if everybody participated because then you have ownership,

you feel that you are part of the school, part of the structure. (Teacher, BP16)

Although the principal's autocratic style with the teachers was not obvious during the interview, this style was clearly illustrated when he spoke about the way he disciplined the students and also in the way he said he spoke to the parents. He gave an example of how he would react when he confronted students who did not attend extra classes when they were supposed to:

When he tells me "My mother said ... [it's fine not to attend]" then I tell him "Bring that mother! Because I want to see that bad mother and father who tells you that you do not have to come extra classes" ... Then I tell the auntie "I let you come because I want to see the bad mother and father who tell their child to have holiday while we have that thing [extra classes]". (Principal, School B)

Another way that his autocratic style was shown was the way he said he addressed the Grade 11 students:

"Believe me, you will do as I say. The rule is: I say and you do".

The principal claimed that his heavy-handed way of treating students and parents "worked". He said that after their initial encounter with him, he usually had full cooperation from both students and parents. He also admitted that he was not afraid to challenge the district when they approached him with regard to complaints that they had received from parents. These illustrations of his authority and autocratic leadership style highlight the power he has in the school.

On the other hand, the school facilitator was convinced that it was because of the principal's concerted efforts that the school's matriculation pass rate had improved dramatically over the past three years, from the time the project was initiated. Paradoxically, his autocratic style, which most likely contributed negatively to the ORC, did not seem to interfere with his support for HPS. His leadership style was in conflict with the democratic ideology of HPS, but the support he gave was important for a positive HPS implementation climate.

7.4.2 Principal's role in HPS

You know the principal isn't always accommodating when people come here and just ... so he said, "Okay, you listen what she [school facilitator]

has to say and then we will call them [staff] in” ... and then he was taken with the idea and then it went to the staff. (Teacher, BP16)

The above quotation shows that despite the principal’s unsociable personality, he was still open to new ideas.

The principal’s support was evident in the leadership role he took when decisions regarding HPS practices needed to be made, which created a conducive implementation climate. This was the perception of the teachers, students and school facilitator as he facilitated implementation of HPS, even though within certain boundaries:

He is helping us in, in every way he can. And he’s there. If we want to ask him “Can we say something in assembly?” “You can do that; you can do that in assembly”. We say we want to clean up like Tuesday – then he’ll say, “Okay, 10 minutes of the time, you can go after interval”. (Teacher, BP14)

It is apparent that in his capacity as leader and manager the principal was able to garner other teachers’ (those not directly involved with HPS) cooperation for HPS, and he noted that he counted on the teachers’ willingness to do so.

The teachers and school facilitator acknowledged that initially the principal appeared not to be interested in HPS, but once he experienced and understood what HPS was all about, he became more forthright with his support, thereby creating an enabling climate. This is illustrated in the following reflection by the lead teacher:

So I, I sometimes get surprised by our principal, our principal who acts like nothing is important for him on this school except the students, or the results of the Grade 12s, yet ... I would say he is one of the pillars when it comes to – within the school administration, he’s the person that you can depend on ... that will stand for something where the HPS is concerned. (Lead teacher, School B)

In fact, when the UWC team organised a principals’ meeting with the principals of the three schools, he was the only principal out of the two who attended, to stay for the duration of the meeting and actively engage in the discussions, which is evidence of his support for and commitment to HPS.

The lead teacher claimed that he gave his support for HPS as long as someone else was taking

the responsibility, as confirmed by the school facilitator:

He sort of gets put off if he thinks that people will ask him to do something or say something even though he is the principal at the school. He was a strange person ... in a sense he allowed a lot of stuff to happen at the school. He usually said "no" first and then "yes" ... allowed students to do things and to meet and ... a lot of the projects he allowed at the school.
(School facilitator, School B)

Although the school facilitator confirmed the principal's support for HPS and the influence he had in making things happen, she was convinced that more could have been accomplished if he had a more approachable demeanour. The teachers and school facilitator perceived him as someone who did not want to show his emotions, and therefore it took time for them to realise that his indifference was just a façade and that he was actually a kind and caring person who was especially committed to the well-being of the students. The lead teacher reflected that through her work with HPS she had come to know him on a more personal level, and thereby learnt how to look beyond his abruptness and felt comfortable enough to approach him with regard to HPS issues. This shows how being involved with HPS boosted her relationship with the principal.

On the other hand, the students' perception was that the principal was not very supportive of HPS. They felt that this lack of support was because there were many other initiatives competing for his support. Interestingly, the school facilitator's perception concurred with those of the students. Her opinion was that in order not to show favouritism, the principal did not acknowledge one initiative over another. Similarly, according to the lead teacher, the principal appeared not to show interest in her HPS report that she had compiled, which could be a manifestation of his aloof nature, but could also be a reflection of his not wanting to give too much attention to one initiative. However, she conceded that he must have read it because he asked about a certain activity in the report that was planned for, but was not followed through, again suggesting his perceived aloofness.

The lead teacher highlighted another negative perception of the principal when she expressed her frustration for the planned recycling project not materialising, because the principal had failed to intervene when the paper meant for recycling was stolen. As a result of her lack of power (being

too junior) she was not able to stop it, although she felt that he could because of his leadership position, but did not:

... unfortunately, our principal didn't always have the guts to talk to people directly ... I felt that I am wasting my time because the management of the school was supposed to reprimand those people or fine them or something.. Because, as a Level One educator, I didn't have much authority ... (Lead teacher, School B)

The school facilitator acknowledged the dilemma that the principal faced in this situation and gave her perception of his non-interference:

They [HPS teachers] want the principal to actually stop it, but the principal I think is also in a difficult position because he knows that that people, those people, they get an extra income because of that ... he can't make a decision ... but by not doing anything he's actually encouraging it. (School facilitator, School B)

It is evident that, despite the power and influence the principal had as leader, he was not assertive in this situation, thereby reflecting the dilemma that the challenging socio-economic conditions that some in the school community can cause in the school. The implication of the principal's split loyalties for HPS is that the HPS group at School B might not have confidence in his consistent support for implementation practices and processes, which could create a negative implementation climate.

One example of the impact of principal's autocratic leadership and management style on HPS was when he clashed with a teacher who was involved in developing the TB policy for the school with the HPS group. She left the school after this incident, with the result that the policy was not completed. The principal, true to his autocratic nature, subsequently personally accessed a TB policy from another school. This action was contrary to the aim of the UWC team, which was to develop a TB policy in participation with the school community so that they could relate to it. However, this meant that it would have been a long process but the principal wanted a policy in place almost immediately, hence his intervention, albeit autocratic. This action highlights the power this principal exerted in the school, with which he was able to override any decisions or actions taken by others.

In summary, The implication of the principals' autocratic leadership style for HPS was that, although he seemed to understand and accept HPS and made attempts at creating an enabling implementation climate, and even became involved in some practices and processes himself, the way he conducted himself might have been a barrier for the school's readiness for change and the practices and processes of HPS implementation.

7.5 ROLE OF THE HPS CHAMPIONS

As is anticipated with the HPS approach, the idea of using champions to enable progress is an important one. Alongside the lead teacher at School B, two other teachers who had been voluntarily involved in some HPS-related activities prior to the intervention also played leading roles, and served as champions.

The lead teacher summed up the HPS teachers' vision for HPS as follows, showing their understanding of the encompassing nature of the HPS approach:

So our vision is to make the school as healthy as possible with the help of the students and the teachers ... everybody involved in the school, even the janitors and the security, they all contribute towards making the school.
(Lead teacher, School B)

The champion teachers' concern for the school's physical environment and their passion for health promotion were positive attributes that advanced their involvement in HPS, and which they attempted to inculcate in their students. The lead teacher attributed these teachers' engagement with HPS to a desire to make a difference in the school. On the other hand, the principal bemoaned that it was only a certain type of person who made this commitment:

The teachers that start these things, like the Peace Club, these are the people who out of their own, start a club ... but the unfortunate thing is that you will see it is only certain type of people who are involved every time. The people who are involved in the Peace Club are the same people who are involved in HPS. (Principal, School B)

This commitment was apparent in the following quotation by one of the champion teachers:

I'm involved in fund raising, soccer, hmm, first aid, pregnancy prevention, the Hiking Club, hmm ... team building and, I can't remember, I know it's eight or 10 things. (Teacher, BP16)

The champion teachers had good relationships with one another which facilitated the synergy in the way they worked. The lead teacher reported that being able to delegate responsibilities to the other HPS teachers and working as a team contributed to a positive implementation climate:

So the people that are involved there [in HPS] now I know are people I can depend on. I can leave you with the first aid ... you can just tell me what happened or where you've been, but you know you will take full responsibility with it; and unfortunately initially I didn't have people like that. (Lead teacher, School B)

The school facilitator cited these champion teachers' commitment to HPS, and their ability to work together as a team, as characteristics that facilitated HPS:

... they have a way of you know "We gonna get this thing going and we gonna pull it through" ... they've worked together a long time and they know how to work together. (School facilitator, School B)

Another demonstration of the teachers' commitment to HPS was them not being deterred by the lack of funds, which could potentially have been a challenge to School B's readiness to change but instead motivated them to try and find alternate sources of funding. The teachers took the initiative to start raising funds so that they could send the students on the camp when they heard that existing UWC team funding was not going to continue. They saw the value of the camp for the students, and therefore were committed to continue having them.

The lead teacher's commitment to the students was apparent when she expressed her desire to be involved in the student leadership camp, in order to gain expertise in empowering the students:

I would love to know what they do on the camp. Really, I would love to go with, because these kinds of things interest me because whatever I can learn there I can apply in class. (Lead teacher, School B)

Similarly, her commitment was confirmed when she seconded two male students to HPS, whom she had taught for a few years, because she thought they were becoming involved in gangsterism. She saw the potential that HPS had for changing these students' attitude and behavior, and felt that the camp might have a positive influence on them – which it did. This was a departure from the usual practice of recruiting students who had positive leadership potential, showing how forward-thinking the lead teacher was.

Support for HPS students was seen as one of the positive roles of the HPS teachers, which seems to have contributed towards the implementation climate by empowering the students to implement HPS. The students confirmed that the teachers not only supported them in their HPS activities but also provided emotional support by being encouraging and motivating, and acknowledging what the students were doing and also raised funds to support their activities.

The lead teacher particularly appears to have played a major role in empowering the students through her supportive role and dedicated commitment to the students. She highlighted how she “took a back seat” for some activities (such as the HPS drama) but still played a supervisory role. This meant that she recognised the importance of the students working independently, and had the confidence to allow it, although she was available when the students needed her.

However, a tension that could have affected these champion teachers’ contributions was coping with HPS in addition to their other responsibilities. It seems that some of the HPS teachers overcommitted themselves. For instance, two of the HPS teachers (including the lead teacher) were studying part-time as well as being involved with other committees and clubs. Despite these commitments, they were so strongly committed to HPS that they still sacrificed their time, unlike other teachers, who even though they were interested and became involved initially opted out because of their heavy workload:

We’ve got too many things happening at school and in our personal lives, So they [teachers] want to be part of the HPS but they can’t really be there, they can’t really attend the meetings, they can’t work, help with the project. So that became a challenge because then later on it ended up with me and [HPS teacher] doing most of the work. (Lead teacher, School B)

At a stage we wanted to do too many things at one time ... But the type of people that myself and [HPS teachers] are and like when you go to other schools ... they actually just do one thing ... then you realise but, wow!! We thought we were doing nothing, but we were actually doing too much. (Teacher, BP16)

In response to the heavy workload and extra responsibilities, one teacher explained that she worked with a “to-do list” and a diary. In this way she was able to organise her time and fit HPS into her schedule. Another teacher said that she delegated responsibilities to other teachers, considering herself rather as a coordinator of activities. It appears that these teachers found a way

to cope with their roles with regard to HPS in addition to their traditional academic roles and personal commitments. This emphasises their self-efficacy, which probably influenced the HPS implementation climate positively.

A further challenge seemed to be the relationship between the lead teacher and HPS students. The students perceived that their respective relationships with the lead teacher were not as close as that of the student female chairperson, who kept the lead teacher informed about what the HPS students were doing. In addition, the students also felt that because they had short meetings there was not much time for engagement with the lead teacher. The implication of this challenge was that if the relationship between the lead teacher and the students was not good, then the students might feel that they do not have the lead teacher's support, which could compromise their participation in HPS implementation. On the other hand, the students acknowledged that it was difficult for the lead teacher to maintain a good relationship with all the HPS students as new students were continuously becoming involved. In keeping with the students' perceptions, the lead teacher acknowledged that it was not easy to keep abreast of what was happening with regard to HPS, because the student group had expanded since its initiation and she felt that the relationship between them was not as close as it was initially:

At the moment I don't even know most of the HPS students because every day there's like new students coming. And what, what happened like about two years ago, we were a very close-knit group, we were less students and we only four teachers ... and we got to know each other on a personal basis because of the stuff that we did together. (Lead teacher, School B)

The lead teacher suggested that only a small group of core HPS students to be involved with HPS planning and decision making as the big group became too difficult for her to manage. This suggests that she envisioned working intensely with a small group, but with her understanding of HPS her aspiration would be that this group in turn would be able to influence the rest of the students to become involved with HPS practices and processes, in order to develop the whole school as HPS.

In summary, it is clear that the HPS teachers were driven by their passion for and commitment to the students and health broadly, making them excellent champions for HPS. Their positive characteristics and ability to work as a team meant that their readiness for change was high,

which bodes well for HPS implementation. Their support of the students also appeared to have created a positive climate, because the students were empowered to implement HPS. It is evident that the champions as human resources played an essential role in the implementation of HPS.

In addition, there were further human and financial resources that influenced the implementation of HPS in terms of readiness for change and policies and practices.

7.6 RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

7.6.1 Human resources

The human resources that the school could draw on for HPS were the teachers, students, principal, parents, external organisations and university students. Only the external organisations and university students, with their roles in relation to the implementation of HPS, are presented in this section as the other resource have been discussed or will still be discussed later in this chapter.

Different organisations worked in the school (as described in section 7.1 in this chapter) and served as additional resources the school had or could draw on, which facilitated implementation of HPS. Some of these organisations had put systems in place which the HPS group then embraced, as many of the values and purposes were similar.

The OT students were another resource for the school. They were directly involved with HPS since its initiation. They worked with the HPS students only after school or during break times for an academic year. In this way they were seen as not interfering with the normal academic programme but still making a contribution to HPS, especially in empowering the students.

7.6.2 Financial resources

The principal admitted that sporting activities carried many expenses, such as kit needed for specific sports. The students themselves often could not afford these expenses and funding by the school was also not always possible. Another teacher commented that availability of funds “would make life a bit easier” with regard to HPS implementation. Moreover, the school facilitator admitted that the camp was the costliest in the HPS UWC project. Therefore the

sustainability of such a venture after the team withdrew is questionable, because of its reliance on external funding.

Financial resources were seen as a challenge to the school's readiness for change and for HPS practices and processes, which possibly impacted negatively on the implementation climate. This implies that the availability of financial resources was a prerequisite for readiness for change and, if it was not considered, then it could serve as a barrier to implementation.

7.7 PEOPLE AND PRACTICES FOR HPS IMPLEMENTATION AT SCHOOL B

The HPS implementation practices at School B that were evident from the data can be categorised as issues related to the students, other school staff, external support that includes the UWC team, the district, and the parents' involvement. Lastly, the communication methods used are presented. All these factors show the influence on the implementation of HPS, ranging from positive to challenging.

7.7.1 Participation of students

They are like very much involved. (Teacher, BP14)

The HPS students were divided into the different sub-groups (as described in section 1.5.5 in Chapter 1), with each having its own responsibilities and student leader. The student leadership role in the groups was rotated amongst the students to develop their leadership skills: an indication that students were given opportunities to empower themselves.

The HPS student group had a male and a female chairperson. It is not clear what the male chairperson's role entailed, because there was no reference made to it by the participants. However, the female chairperson explained that she took on many leadership roles. She took responsibility for calling meetings with the students; for taking notes at the meetings and checking attendance; and drawing up the roster for the leaders of the different student groups with the lead teacher. In addition, she saw her role as being a motivator to the other students. She was also the link between the students, teachers and others working with the HPS student group such as the OT students.

The teachers recognised the leadership potential that the female chairperson had and as a result delegated some responsibilities to her, reflecting the empowering culture that the teachers had created for the students:

But then we started noticing that [female chairperson] actually likes doing admin work ... And since then, me or [HPS teacher], we don't even have to do admin anymore; [female chairperson] does it for us ... I had to initially show her the ropes ... but after that we just left it in her hands and she flourished. (Lead teacher, School B)

When other people were leaving, [female chairperson] was the constant there, who kept it going. She was also, with the Health Promoting Schools [health] calendar ... So she also looks and sees that it is "this day and that day" and tells the teachers that we have to do something, like the TB Awareness Day. No, she reminds the teacher. (School facilitator, School B)

However, the students' perception of the student leadership role was different to that of the teachers and the school facilitator. The impression given by the students was that the chairpersons were not committed to HPS, but capitalised on their positions without fulfilling their roles adequately. Their resentment was palpable in the following quotations:

It is almost like they are now leaders and therefore they do not have to do anything because we have to do most of the worrying ... she is the leader, she has to tell us what to do. Sometimes we also have to do their work. (Student FGD, School B)

But their names are always there [attendance list], but they don't come [to the meetings]. They took off some children's names because they were not attending anymore, but because they are leaders, nothing gets done to them ... and why is that they stay leaders when they actually are not doing their jobs. (Student FGD, School B)

When asked what they were doing about this lack of commitment from the chairpersons, the students responded that they continued taking responsibility for what needed to be done themselves, because they did not want to jeopardise their HPS work. This showed their ability to work autonomously without leaders as they were able to take initiative, make decisions, and resolve conflict as a team.

However, the students felt that if the chairpersons had too many other responsibilities, they

needed to hand over their leadership roles. The following poignant statement by one of the students in the student FGD, “*Power changes people*”, received strong support from the rest of the students in the FGD demonstrating their dissatisfaction with the student leaders. This response reflected the tension that existed between the students and their chairpersons.

Even though the teachers were aware of this tension, they felt that the students had the ability to sort out the situation themselves and therefore did not become involved:

Just the leadership, hmm, there’s some in-fighting’s there. [Female chairperson] feels threatened because somebody else is doing a better job in something else. So – but that is something they have to sort it out by themselves. (Teacher, BP14)

This shows that the teachers had confidence in the ability of the students to cope with conflict without adult intervention and, in this way seemed to have empowered the students.

The school facilitator confirmed that the female chairperson was “very prescriptive”. However, the female chairperson had a different perception of her relationship with the students, regarding it as open and amicable:

We still get on well because we carry on as normal, I am their friend, we do not let the title “Chairperson” be a barrier. It is just that I am there to teach them and they are there to teach me. We still get on well, no conflict and if there is conflict then we sort it out there and then. (Female chairperson, School B)

This meant that she did not fully realise the tension in her relationship with the HPS students. The implication is that this tension could have been detrimental to the practices of HPS and consequently the implementation climate.

7.7.2 Student characteristics and their interactions with one another

The characteristics of the students who involved themselves in HPS seemed to play an important role in the implementation of HPS. As alluded to earlier, they were committed to creating a supportive environment for other students in need, in keeping with the school culture which influenced their readiness for change.

Commitment was perceived to be an important attribute to have, as is evident in the female chairperson's commitment to HPS, despite feeling overwhelmed at times:

There are times when you feel "shoo!" you are tired of HPS. They talk too much in meetings and everything now just gets too much. But then afterwards I feel "No but you must go to the meetings". (Female chairperson, BP19)

In contrast, the students and a teacher lamented the lack of commitment from some students involved with HPS, noting that even though there were opportunities to be involved with HPS, some students were just not motivated enough to be committed. This was confirmed by the lead teacher who admitted that HPS practices were compromised at times when students did not attend meetings to be informed about plans being made:

And then also sometimes students don't attend the meetings; and you know as it usually goes, you have to repeat yourself, you can't go on with this specific project because today it's four students, next week it's another four students, and so forth ... (Lead teacher, School B)

The lack of consistent commitment from students was also demonstrated when some of them withdrew after realising the hard work and sacrifices that went into being involved with HPS – which they were not prepared for:

... when it comes to the actual work that needs to be done then they wake up and they realise "Oh, but this is not just fun and games, these people actually work, they actually sit for hours going through papers, or they actually go to this workshop after school or on a Saturday or whatever". (Lead teacher, School B)

Certain children now dropped out because we established that only if there are nice times, then they want to come forward and that is wrong. They do not want to work and when we give the work then it looks as if they want to run away. (Male student, BP18)

Other student characteristics that the students perceived were needed for HPS included having a positive attitude, good manners and behaviour, and having the power to withstand peer pressure. In addition, the students highlighted perseverance as another attribute needed for the implementation of HPS:

We continue persevering and we going to ask the principal again just to show that we are here and we care for the school. (Male student, BP18)

The female chairperson was emphatic that HPS students had to be good role models to the rest of the students.

Working in a team and understanding one another was also deemed important for student participation in HPS. The students claimed that they had an open relationship with one another and were not afraid of giving their opinions in the HPS group. They felt that this facilitated teamwork because there was a better understanding between them. The students had the ability to work as a team despite the autocratic nature of the female chairperson. They admitted that although it was tough at times, they worked well together and persevered:

With the project that we launched to market HPS to the school, we decided that two students take the lead and write proposals for the principal. We decided that we would write on a piece of paper to say who we feel should be the leaders. Then she [female student chairperson] herself just nominated two students. We objected but then carried on and did not worry about it. But now we are working together nicely, even when there were tough times we forged ahead.
(Male student, BP18)

The students reported a few challenges with regard to the negative attitude of some students not involved with HPS towards those who were involved and towards HPS. One student felt these students had the perception that the HPS students wanted attention at school, even though the HPS students claimed that this was not their intention.

The students highlighted other negative perceptions of and attitudes towards HPS that some students expressed:

I do it [collecting papers for recycling] after school time because there were times when I had to go around during class sessions to find out who was still involved in recycling, but then it had a negative influence because the children would say they are “dirt buddies” [derogatory].
(Student FGD, School B)

There was also the perception from students that negative peer influence was a challenge for those who were potentially interested in HPS, because they were discouraged from becoming involved by their friends:

You get the others who say “Why do you want to be there? They just want to have meetings and it is after school – when you could have

been with me". They just want to depict the negative aspects. (Male student, BP18)

This suggests that although the HPS students did not seem to be affected by the negative attitude of some students, it could have influenced some students' readiness for change if they were considering becoming involved with HPS.

Furthermore, at times the combination of schoolwork, other responsibilities such as being a prefect and HPS left the students feeling overwhelmed, which is likely to have impacted on the students' level of participation:

Sometimes when we have so much [school] work, then it feels very, very hard to go to the meetings and do your other tasks too. Like now in Grade 11, we can't write out our tasks, it has to be typed out on the computer and that takes time. And that's when I sometimes feel "shoo! I'm tired of HPS". (Female chairperson, School B)

In conclusion, the roles, interactions and positive characteristics of the students can be seen to have influenced the HPS practices that contributed to a positive implementation climate, whereas the lack of commitment from some of the students, including the chairpersons, and challenging contextual factors can be seen as being detrimental to the implementation climate. Furthermore, the breakdown in the relationship between the student chairpersons and the rest of the HPS students could be seen as a challenge for the implementation of HPS. Despite this, the students seemed to have the ability to cope, and continue with their responsibilities. This suggests that an enabling environment was created especially by the HPS teachers as the students felt empowered enough to implement HPS without having to rely on the directive of a student leader or teacher. The teachers' confidence in the students to solve their own problems reflects a school culture that encouraged student independence and thus empowerment, in keeping with the HPS approach, which meant that the implementation climate was conducive for change. The leadership skills and empowerment of students was important for the practices of HPS, as they were significant actors in its implementation.

7.7.3 Support and cooperation of school staff

Despite the negative attitude and behaviour of some teachers described earlier, the support and cooperation from the teachers who were not directly involved with HPS contributed positively to the implementation practices. For example, the lead teacher was pleasantly surprised at their cooperation for an event that the HPS group was planning:

... when we did our preparations for the soccer tournament, I wanted to hand out little postcards or bookmarks with information about HIV and TB. And then I asked the LO people, if we can use the Grades 8s and 9s ... And I was surprised for our Head of Department of LO [is not usually amenable]... And then she said "No, it's fine ..." And the arts and culture people also pitched in to help us do that. (Lead teacher, School B)

The HPS group did not involve a fixed group of teachers (apart from the champion teachers) and drew on various teachers and the school secretary, depending on their expertise. For example, the arts and culture teacher developed posters for HPS activities, and another teacher was responsible for the development of the database. On the other hand, the lead teacher felt that even some teachers who claimed to be involved in HPS did not take full responsibility. She complained that they took credit for her work and that of another HPS teacher without them putting any effort in:

Then later on it ended up with me and [HPS teacher] doing most of the work ...we do all the stuff that needs to be done and people just take a back seat, but when it comes time for recognition ... then everybody would step up. (Lead teacher, School B)

I had people who talked a lot about what they going to do but never came around doing it and things fell apart because of that. So I'm a bit wary of that. (Lead teacher, School B)

This shows that there was tension in the teachers' relationships, even with those directly involved in HPS and also within themselves. For example, despite a teacher being responsible for each student group, the lead teacher felt that she still needed to be aware of what the students were doing, as some of the teachers were not fulfilling their leadership roles. To her this felt like she still had to take full responsibility, despite her need to delegate:

I would want to be, I wouldn't say "in control" but I want to be aware of whatever is going on; and with a bigger group it's difficult for me. And also because – why it became difficult for me... is because each group had a teacher responsible for that group ... and unfortunately those people weren't even pulling their weight. (Lead teacher, School B)

However, the lead teacher admitted that because the teachers who were active in HPS were also involved in several other school activities and clubs, as indicated earlier, it was difficult to be fully productive in everything. She felt that if more teachers were involved, there would be more chance of things being successful. Alternately she suggested that focusing on one thing at a time would have been more realistic in order to achieve their goals. However, the implication of such an approach is that there could be a danger of HPS being seen as doing only discrete activities, without its broader ethos and holistic nature being appreciated.

7.7.4 External support and collaboration

The external support and collaboration in this section is described in relation to the UWC team and school facilitator, the education district, and the parents. The additional external support has been described in this chapter in sections 7.1, 7.3.3 and 7.6.

7.7.4.1 Role of UWC team and school facilitator

The school participants saw the role of the UWC team as one of networking, facilitating, mentoring and supporting the school's HPS group. The team's readiness to assist and their availability whenever needed was acknowledged:

... but help from the university side made things a lot easier ... for example [the school facilitator] always came in and checked up on us on a regular basis and it made life easier for me. At many times I didn't know what to do. (Lead teacher, School B)

To demonstrate the valuable role that the school facilitator played, the lead teacher narrated the advice that the school facilitator gave her regarding the involvement of other teachers in HPS:

And [the school facilitator] told me it's fine if people are not always involved. "Actually you should use the teachers for whatever skills they have ... don't expect people to always be there at every little thing that the HPS does but only, but use them for what they can bring". (Lead teacher, School B)

Another role of the school facilitator that the teachers acknowledged was the capacity building of teachers. For example, the school facilitator shared how she enabled the teachers to successfully negotiate with the district to have a feeding scheme at the school.

The lead teacher expressed her desire for a continued relationship with the UWC team for any advice, even after the team officially withdrew. This shows that she valued the team for being a catalyst for change in creating an enabling implementation climate.

7.7.4.2 Support of the education district

There were mixed feelings about the role of the district in the implementation of HPS at School B. The school facilitator and teachers highlighted the minimal support that they had experienced from the district with regard to HPS. The school facilitator felt that there was little interest shown as they did not respond to invitations that she extended, such as to sign the memorandum of understanding between the school and the district. This was never signed and an HPS charter was instead developed by the UWC team and the HPS group.

However, it was the school facilitator's impression that HPS would only be fully integrated if it was endorsed by the district. She gave the example of the feeding scheme, which was institutionalised because, although initiated by the HPS group, the resources came from the district – which meant that they supported the feeding scheme. On the other hand, the school facilitator said that something like the successful soccer tournament that took place as an HPS initiative would not be institutionalised because it was not endorsed by the district. She claimed the tournament's success was due to the school's "will and commitment" but it would need to be supported by the district or some external body such as an academic institution if it were to be sustained.

The school facilitator was convinced that if the district was more supportive and there was a mandate from them, it would have been easier for HPS to be integrated into the whole school, as structures would have had to be put in place to comply with the district's requirements. Her opinion was that if there was recognition from the district, such as some kind of accreditation for establishing an HPS, then the schools would feel that they had the district's support.

The teachers' perception was that the district needed to play a more proactive role in the implementation of HPS. The lead teacher perceived that the district was already aware of some of the HPS activities in the school but they also had to be convinced of the potential that HPS had for making a difference in the school. This required effective communication:

If we can show them through our actions, through word of mouth, through media attention, then maybe they can sit up and take notice. And people like you doing research and submitting this and the right people, reading this stuff ... then maybe it can make a difference. (Lead teacher, School B)

The teachers and school facilitator suggested ways in which the district could be involved:

If they give us some person that we can liaise with ...and we can give them our programme and they can be at our functions and maybe come to our workshops ... (Teacher, BP14)

I think that if schools get an identity of a health-promoting school, like they have a "Safe School" and the Department endorses that ... and that's supported by the Department, and then ... they [school] can actually set things in place. (School facilitator, School B)

In contrast, the principal did not have the same perception of the district's role. He felt that its involvement would mean additional administration that would be resented by the teachers:

The only problem that I have with the Department's involvement ... then it becomes a lot of writing usually. Now suddenly forms and documents come and then people become resentful. (Principal, School B)

The implication here is that if the principal does not believe in the supportive role that the district can play, then it might be difficult to access the resources needed from the district, which would be detrimental for implementation. The district's role in implementation of HPS therefore seems to be debatable with some seeing it as key role, while the principal regards it as more of a liability for School B.

7.7.4.3 Parent involvement and HPS working in the community

The teachers and principal regarded parents as a resource for the school, not only to substitute for teachers but also to assist the school with fund-raising and networking. However, the principal's frustration was apparent when he explained how difficult it was to get parents to come to school, even to discuss their children:

It is a fight to get that parent here, and that same parent at the end of the year will say that I did not call himyou struggle to get parents to come to school to say that “Your child is this and this and that” – you struggle to get them. (Principal, School B)

The teachers’ and students’ opinion was that the only way parents were actively involved in the school was in the SGB, as alluded to earlier. Although the teachers and school facilitator acknowledged that there was some parent involvement initially in HPS, this involvement diminished over the course of the implementation of HPS.

However, there was one parent who was actively involved in the school and also took responsibility for the feeding scheme:

His [student] mother made the sandwiches at the school. And then she called me because she used to come to the health-promoting schools meetings also ... “We have a problem, there is not enough bread ...and more and more are coming”. I must please write a letter and go with her to Spar [local supermarket]. (School facilitator, School B)

The lead teacher admitted that initially parents attended the HPS workshops, but once their children left HPS and the school then they also (understandably) stopped attending. She also regretted not being able to engage more with the parents of the HPS students because of the large size of the group:

When we had the smaller group, more parental involvement; now we have the bigger group, as I told you I don’t know even half of the students and half of the parents. (Lead teacher, School B)

The students acknowledged that some parents accompanied them to HPS events and participated if they were requested to do so by the teachers. However, the students claimed that there were not many opportunities for parents to become involved with HPS. On the other hand, the parents were not available all at the same time, even if they were asked to be involved, showing the complexity of parent involvement.

Because parents were perceived as a resource for the school, it appears that more needed to be done to actively engage them. One way that this could possibly be done was through raising the awareness of the community of HPS, such as involving other schools in the community. In line with this, another vision that School B had for HPS was expanding HPS into the community. The

lead teacher expressed the HPS group's willingness to mentor primary schools in the area in order to establish HPS at their schools, which the principal confirmed. These were feeder schools to School B and from their experiences (such as lack of hygiene) with the Grade 8 students who came from these schools, the teachers and principal were convinced that these schools could benefit by becoming HPS. This willingness to work beyond the school is in keeping with the HPS approach of moving beyond the school itself and reaching into the community in which the school is situated.

Despite some lack of support, it is apparent that together external resources provided support for the practices and processes that manifested in a conducive implementation climate.

7.7.5 Communication methods

It is evident that the HPS group used a range of communication strategies, depending on the purpose of the communication. This section will specifically cover meetings and marketing strategies for HPS as these emerged as the main sources of communication during implementation.

7.7.5.1 Meetings

The way the HPS group at School B communicated with one another was mainly through meetings. The reasons given for holding meetings were to plan and monitor progress of activities, to be informed as to what was happening with regard to HPS, and to see if anybody had any issues related to HPS that needed to be addressed. Often the students held meetings without the teachers because they were not available and then informed the teachers, usually verbally, or sometimes through notes of the meetings. The HPS meetings were held weekly after school. The students said that they preferred meetings after school to during break because, unless there was something urgent, it gave more time (one hour) for discussion. Urgent meetings were held during break time.

In addition, the UWC team communicated with the HPS group through meetings and workshops. One teacher commended the way these workshops were presented:

You know I'm at that stage after 19 years [of teaching] and if you hear

the word “workshop” then you say, “Arrrrgggh! Not again!” But I actually enjoy the HPS workshops. Maybe it’s just the way that it is presented. (Teacher, BP16)

In addition, the school facilitator reported having held regular meetings (usually monthly) with the HPS school committee to monitor if things were going to plan and also for mentoring, giving advice and facilitating the practices and processes that they were involved in. All this was confirmed by the teachers and students.

7.7.5.2 Marketing HPS

Raising awareness of HPS was a way of marketing HPS to the whole school. This was achieved, for example, by organising a concert for the whole school, which was facilitated by the OT students working in the school at the time. Teachers also raised awareness in class by telling the rest of the students in the school what the HPS students were involved with. There was a suggestion to display photographs of the student camp, and other photographs that the students took at the school, as part of an HPS photovoice project with foreign students. A student suggested that, by displaying them in a public place in the school, visitors to the school would also be aware of what was happening with HPS. However, this did not take place. The HPS photographs and information were posted on the school’s website instead. In fact, HPS was given its own page on the school website, which served as another means of marketing and information flow and showing the school’s ownership of HPS.

One way that the profile of HPS was raised was through students wearing HPS badges and T-shirts when an HPS activity took place. These marketing tools were deemed valuable because they made the students identifiable and gave them status and a sense of belonging:

Yeah, and we made them badges, the HPS badges ... and they totally proud of it. And the sweaters they do wear, when we have something. (Teacher, BP14)

The badges have now opened many children’s eyes that we are here, that HPS is here. (Male student, BP18)

However, the method of communication with teachers was considered not be effective enough to raise the interest of some teachers, implying that a different approach of communicating with them was needed:

I can remember when [school facilitator] came the first time, most of us didn't really pay attention about what she was talking about. And many people just left, ... because it was just facts, and she's reading from the facts, explaining, and that put a lot of people off. (Lead teacher, School B)

Suggestions were made on how to improve communication generally for more effective implementation. The lead teacher suggested that, when HPS was introduced to the school, more innovative means of communication were needed, such as using multimedia or doing role play to hold the interest of the school audience. In addition, the lead teacher highlighted the need for skills on how to, not only communicate effectively with their peers, but also motivate students.

Reporting back at assemblies and also informing the school about what was being planned was important for ensuring the flow of HPS information and was done either by the teachers or students. The lead teacher claimed that others also wanted to participate in HPS when they saw what was being done in this regard which suggests that this marketing strategy seemed to be effective. However, there was still room for improvement.

Apart from the challenges that already emerged for the HPS implementation process, there were additional challenges which are discussed in the following section.

7.7.5.3 Additional benefits to students

HPS also seemed to have influenced the students' approach to their academic performance because they claimed that they were more disciplined about their schoolwork:

Even if I do not feel like it I must because it is for my own good because we learnt on the camp that if you are frustrated then you must go and sit quietly and clear your mind and just focus ... like we young people are now very stressed over schoolwork ... I want to focus on my schoolwork and that is what I'm doing at the moment. (Male student, BP18)

HPS was also perceived to have had the ability to make a difference in the HPS students' lives by giving them status in the school, as demonstrated with this statement from the lead teacher:

It [HPS] puts you almost like on a pedestal, because to be part of the HPS is still something that is to be aspired to, that's why most – still students are asking to be part of the HPS, and now they are even wearing the badges, now it's just as important as the prefects. (Lead teacher, School

B)

The lead teacher also admitted that with this status came expectations of these students which they strove to live up to.

HPS was also seen as creating a supportive and nurturing environment for those students who were not particularly interested in sporting activities or for those too shy to belong to any other group. One student reported that HPS made him feel that he had agency because of the nurturing environment that HPS created. Furthermore, being involved with HPS was perceived as having given the students a sense of belonging:

When we have a meeting or get together, then my other friends get mad because I stay in meetings and then I tell them that they can also join then we do not need to be apart. When they finish with the meeting then they will also feel that is nice because when we get together then it's like one big family, we laugh together. (Students FGD, School B)

The students' impression was that HPS kept them away from negative influences. They gave an example of the changes in certain students (who were not HPS students at the time) who had engaged in negative behaviour before they attended the camp. After attending the camp and joining the HPS group they had changed, reportedly because of the positive influence of HPS, and became involved in HPS activities. In keeping with these claims, one student admitted that being involved with HPS had "rescued" him from negative peer pressure. Another student emphasised that he became a happier person after attending the camp, which his friends noticed too. He attributed this change to how welcoming the camp facilitators had made him feel, making him feel accepted for who he was.

The above shows that the camp seemed to have had a profound effect on the students personally. However, they were also able to put into practice what they had gained from the camp and use that for implementing HPS. The camp can therefore be seen to have created a conducive climate because it amplified the effects of HPS.

Apart from the positive effects on the students, there was also evidence of some positive effects for the lead teacher, discussed in the following section.

7.8 CHALLENGES OF INTEGRATING HPS INTO SCHOOL B

This section presents the challenges to integration in terms of including HPS across the curriculum and in relevant policies, the challenges of academic and work priorities and how understanding and awareness of HPS influenced integration.

The integration of HPS into the school seemed to be influenced by the extent of the teachers' understanding of the HPS concept, which determined whether they were prepared to include it in their teaching and the functioning of the school.

There was a strong feeling amongst the HPS teachers that it should be integrated into the life of the school, and they were emphatic that it was not an add-on:

It should actually be part of our work ... for me, it's part of our work because it's normal for me to tell the kids "Come, let's pick up the papers quickly, clean the bins", now we go on with our work. "Fill the jar with water, there's the water for your hands". So it's part of my daily routine anyway. Yeah! Yeah, it's not an add-on. (Teacher, BP14)

The HPS teachers confirmed that they integrated HPS into their teaching and their classrooms although not all teachers at the school did so. It was these teachers' opinion, however, that all teachers needed to practice HPS. They felt that the rest of the teachers still needed to be convinced that HPS was not an add-on but was something that they were already doing.

One teacher commented that some teachers regarded HPS as the responsibility of the HPS group only. This meant that she had her doubts that HPS was being integrated into the whole school as HPS was regarded as just another "club" because of the lack of understanding of the HPS approach:

But it's still not the priority that it should have. And I hear people on the stoep [veranda] saying, "Agh! That's health promoting's issue" and I want that attitude to change, that everybody should see that they are part of ... it should be everybody's concern ... and when something goes wrong they would say "Where is HPS now?" You know that type of attitude. (Teacher, BP16)

In contrast, the lead teacher was convinced that even though some teachers were not involved in HPS, some of them were practicing HPS but were not actually aware of it. This indicates the importance of making everybody in the school understand what HPS is about, what being

involved means, and what its impact on the school is, for better integration.

Furthermore, the lack of HPS representation at the management level of the school was reported as a challenge for better integration. According to the school facilitator, none of the HPS teachers were on the SMT, which meant that they had no voice at that level, making it difficult to integrate HPS into the functioning of the school. The school facilitator felt strongly that HPS should have representation on the SMT, not only to give the HPS group a voice there, but also as a development process for more junior staff members:

A sort of development initiative at the school ... need to be able to sit in on one of those management meetings where people from the different [structures] come, and they can talk about how, what the needs are or what they can see coming out of the meetings that they have and how it can benefit the school. (School facilitator, School B)

In addition, one teacher felt that if there was better delegation from the leadership and management of the school, with clear guidelines, then there would be more chance of the rest of the school becoming involved with HPS, providing more opportunity for integration. This emphasises not only the important role of the leadership and management for HPS integration for effective HPS implementation, but also the role of policy.

Another challenge for HPS integration was the school's priority for good academic performance. The principal, teachers and school facilitator confirmed that because of the DoE's renewed emphasis on better academic performance, academic output was the school's top priority and everything else was secondary. The principal and the school facilitator highlighted this emphasis:

Now my thing is this ... if the child has to make a choice, the Grade 12 child, then I will always say, "Your choice must be the academic thing. You must be at the mathematics. You will have to put the other things aside for now". (Principal, School B)

So the teachers are committed ... only to the extent that they are able to do things, at that school level where it doesn't clash with anything official or something that needs to happen at the school ... If there's something else happening at the school then they say, "No, we can't do the HPS stuff now because we have to do that stuff". (School facilitator, School B)

There were instances when the focus on academic performance led to negative consequences for HPS. The lead teacher related how a teacher responsible for some HPS activities stepped down from the HPS school committee because of the weak performance of the students for the subject that he taught. This weak performance caused tension between him and the principal:

One of the reasons the recycling project didn't work initially was because the teacher who took charge of it ... the Head of Department for physical science, and I think it was in 2009 only three of the Grade 12 students passed physics. And that showed something about him according to the principal. And they had a huge fight and ... he decided to quit every little thing he was involved with. So he quit the HPS. (Lead teacher, School B)

Inevitably the principal, as leader of the school, wielded his power - the academic programme took priority over HPS, which was not regarded as an approach that could actually facilitate academic performance. This demonstrates the tensions that can occur when different people have different perceptions of what the priorities for the school should be and different understandings of HPS as a whole-school approach.

Linked to academic priority was the issue of time. The teachers admitted that time was a challenge because of their heavy academic workload, not leaving them much time to pursue HPS. They attributed this workload as to why some teachers were not directly involved with HPS and why HPS was not fully integrated.

The work pressures had further implications for HPS integration. The teachers admitted that they were not always aware of what the other HPS teachers were doing, although they emphasised that the lead teacher knew. It seems that because of their work pressures they concentrated on their own HPS responsibilities, and this meant they did not always work with the other HPS teachers. The implication of this is that HPS can become a series of uncoordinated activities with little integration, instead of a whole-school approach, thereby having a negative effect on the holistic implementation of HPS and also its sustainability. However, this did not compromise the collaboration and cooperation amongst the HPS teachers when required as was evident in section 7.5. in this chapter.

Furthermore, there was a perception amongst teachers and students that there was a lack of awareness of HPS at the school generally, despite their efforts to market it in different ways:

... because still after how many years ... some people are not really certain what it is that we are doing ... invitations go out, we've announced it at assembly, we've marketed the HPS ... as from the HPS side we try to make them aware of these things. (Teacher, BP16)

When we talk about HPS and when we ask "Who of you want to belong to HPS?" then there is a girl or guy who will ask "Now what is that?" (Student FGD, School B)

This lack of awareness of HPS could be the result of lack of interest of some teachers when the HPS approach was first introduced to the school, or the marketing strategies used not being as effective as intended.

However, the HPS teachers also did not seem to have the power to get the rest of the teachers actively involved with HPS, even when they were made aware of it. Interestingly, some HPS teachers felt that if an external person were to encourage teachers to become involved, then the teachers would show more interest than if it came from the HPS teachers in the school with whom they interacted daily.

In conclusion, School B faced several challenges in the integration of HPS. Despite these challenges the school was able to integrate HPS into aspects of the school, although not fully as a whole-school approach.

The integration of HPS into the life of the school can also determine its sustainability, which is discussed further in the following section.

7.9 SUSTAINABILITY AND SUGGESTED DIFFERENT APPROACHES

Although there were some doubts initially, all the participants were of the opinion that HPS should and would continue at the school once the UWC team withdrew. The principal was confident that HPS would continue because, as described earlier, the school had the ability and experience of sustaining initiatives once organisations withdrew. The participants had several ideas of how HPS could be sustained. For instance, the lead teacher was convinced that if HPS was profiled regularly, then it would become institutionalised and thus sustainable:

We've got a lot of things that the HPS started that is now annual events. So they know these things are happening in the school ... yeah, if those things keep happening on a regular basis, people are going to become used to this and they are going to associate that with the HPS. (Lead teacher, School B)

However, as noted earlier, the school facilitator admitted that certain things were easier to integrate than others.

The lead teacher was confident that HPS would be sustained independently of her as champion, because it was starting to be integrated into the school processes in some respects, indicating that a conducive implementation climate was created:

Teachers don't necessarily have to be called "HPS teachers" to be HPS teachers. So yeah, there still have to be people in charge or people taking the position of coordinator and so forth but I would think even if I now decide tomorrow to leave [School B] this thing will still go on because it's not a [lead teacher] thing ... it's now becoming a school thing. (Lead teacher, School B)

The school facilitator also suggested that, if university students had prolonged engagement with the school and set up projects (such as running a clinic), HPS could be integrated into the life of the school in this way.

Another suggestion made by various participants was proper planning. The school facilitator suggested that in the planning phase it was important to consider things that the school wanted to implement and institutionalise, as well as whether resources, time and support were available or could be sourced. In this way there would be a better chance of buy-in or readiness for change from the school, increasing the chances of the school sustaining HPS. Similarly, the students suggested that in order for HPS to be sustained, there needed to be clarity about what they wanted to achieve by setting clear and realistic goals. Another suggestion by a teacher was that things should be done at a slower pace to "master" one thing at a time so that it does not become overwhelming. Such a strategy would therefore stand more chance of being sustainable.

In addition, the teachers were confident that the students would be able to sustain HPS if they had developed the necessary capacity to do so, even if the teachers were no longer directly involved:

Like at the moment I'm taking a backseat for this project they doing ... and they pushing forward, they doing it. They getting the necessary skills ... the HPS group will continue, ... if we continue making it the students' and not the teachers' [responsibility]... giving them more responsibility; let them push forward with it. (Lead teacher, School B)

However, the school facilitator questioned the choice of students to implement HPS. She wondered whether the prefects and Grade 12 students were the most appropriate students to implement activities, as they had heavy academic workloads and therefore did not have the time to take on HPS responsibilities too. The implication here is that careful consideration needs to be taken of who in the student population was best to take HPS forward. Her opinion was that, because HPS implementation was a long-term process, for the sake of continuity it should be a combination of junior and senior students so that the juniors could sustain the project when the seniors left the school. She also felt that because there was continuous change in the student population and teachers were more constant, a teacher had to be the champion for HPS and not students. Interestingly, some students expressed their willingness to assist with HPS even after they had left the school in order to sustain it, thus indicating their commitment to HPS.

The female chairperson, after initially saying that HPS would “flop”, emphasised that it could be sustainable if there was continuity in the responsibilities for HPS:

I feel that when we [students] retire [leave school] and others step in they must just take what we have taught them. Those teachers who retire and the other teachers who step in must just take on what those teachers were doing then everything will run smoothly. It must be like a train that does not stop running. (Female student chairperson, School B)

However, there were examples where lack of continuity meant that some HPS activities had not gone ahead as planned. One example was when the teacher who was responsible for HIV and AIDS-related activities was away: the principal confirmed that the activities had to be postponed because there was no one to replace her. Similarly, having worked with one of the teachers on the TB policy for the school, the school facilitator spoke about the lack of continuity once that teacher left as there was no one to replace her. This could be because the other teachers were too busy or because it was not a priority for them.

With regard to the students, the Grade 12 HPS students at the time were involved with developing a database of services in the area. However, once they became involved with examinations and subsequently left the school, nobody took over this role:

And then they had to give it over to the next group but there wasn't the same commitment and passion to that in the next group or maybe they weren't computer literate or what ... that one thing wasn't picked up.
(School facilitator, School B)

The above examples demonstrate how the lack of continuity had a negative impact on HPS practices and, consequently, implementation.

The school facilitator felt that because HPS was voluntary and depended on an individual's interest, drive and commitment, continuity was not guaranteed.

And you volunteer and it's connected to who you are as a person. And then when you leave and then that initiative that's connected to you as a person also leaves ... you can hand the project over but you can't hand over the passion and the will and the commitment. (School facilitator, School B)

This statement will hold true if HPS is regarded as discrete HPS activities. Continuity can therefore be regarded as a key consideration for the implementation, integration and sustainability of HPS.

Despite the many challenges that were experienced at School B, there were also positive effects, manifested in the benefits at the different levels of the school.

7.10 PERCEPTIONS OF POSITIVE CHANGES AT SCHOOL B

Students and teachers had many positive perceptions of their experience of HPS, expressed in the following ways:

“astonished” (at the change in a student) (Lead teacher, School B)

“very excited” (students participating in an HPS workshop) (Teacher, BP16)

“thoroughly enjoy” (students and the camp) (Teacher, BP16)

“we like HPS... it is nice” (Students FGD, School B)

“we enjoy the outings” (Students FGD, School B)

The effectiveness of HPS was characterised by the benefits and gains at an intrapersonal, interpersonal and school level.

7.10.1 Intrapersonal benefits

7.10.1.1 Development of leadership skills

The teachers acknowledged that the students were very excited by HPS and, witnessing their active involvement, were confident that the students would be able to take on many of the responsibilities and face the challenges that came their way. Some of the students already had leadership qualities while others had leadership skills. Others gained these skills by being involved with HPS, which gave them the ability to work independently of the teachers in their practices:

Yes, they decide on stuff ... like they going to have a concert now I believe ... without teachers. They doing their own programme ... They're doing that on their own. (Teacher, BP14)

The teachers' attitude was that they did not need to have control over everything in HPS and therefore they gave the students leeway to take leadership. On the other hand, the HPS students felt that the teachers had many other responsibilities and therefore wanted to ease the burden by trying not to rely on them too heavily. This indicates that they were able to use their leadership skills because they felt empowered by the conducive implementation climate created by the teachers:

Because, hmm, somehow, the students, the occupational therapy students and the workshops and everything the students has done thus far has actually made them steer HPS for us. It's like we take a backseat ... let them push forward with it. (Lead teacher, School B)

It was the school facilitator's opinion that the HPS students had influence with their peers because they drew other students into HPS, highlighting their leadership qualities. Furthermore, the principal and teachers confirmed that many of the students involved in HPS had other leadership responsibilities at the school apart from HPS, such as being prefects. However, in complex change processes, attribution is not easy and therefore the students' leadership skills

cannot be attributed to HPS only, as the students might have developed leadership skills through their other school responsibilities. Nevertheless, it is evident that the students' leadership skills contributed positively to the implementation climate. This might have facilitated the school's readiness for change because they had the efficacy to implement HPS.

7.10.1.2 *Impact of students gaining knowledge and self-confidence*

All the participants, including the principal, duly noted the impact of HPS on the students when they commented on how they used knowledge gained from HPS to encourage a healthier environment in the school, for example, objecting to the selling of unhealthy food and keeping students in check for littering. This indicates that the students were empowered because their capacity was built to contribute positively to practices of HPS.

The teachers acknowledged the self-confidence that many of the students displayed as a result of being involved with HPS. They said that the students were not afraid to voice their opinions with one other, although they admitted that some of these students already had this attribute before they were involved with HPS. However, it seems that HPS boosted their confidence further. Their self-confidence also manifested in the way they could work independently of the teachers, as alluded to earlier. The lead teacher gave an example of how one student who was particularly shy gained self-confidence on the camp (which her parents noticed too) and subsequently took a leadership role in one of the HPS activities:

I can see what difference HPS is making in the lives of the students at school. ... I had a problem getting that child up and speaking in class ... Today [student] is the spokesperson for the project that they are busy with ... and I am astonished when I look at that child and I see the difference that one camp had on her ... Her true nature came out.
(Lead teacher, School B)

A student confirmed the lead teacher's observations when he claimed that he used to be too shy to express himself in a group, but after attending the camp became much more confident and was able to express himself freely:

I was nervous because it was like talking in front of the class doing an oral and "shoo!" it was nerve wracking ... I was very nervous. Then one of the school facilitators said that I must just be calm, speak from my heart and then I began to speak. (Male student, BP18)

One teacher commented on how even those HPS students who were not in leadership positions had the confidence to report back on their activities to the whole school:

Because like I say it's not your normal child [those who do not have leadership qualities] that would be part of it [HPS], those 50% or 60% that are already in leadership. But then you would find the child that reports back is not the one that's that's usually standing there in front of the school. (Teacher, BP16)

Much of the students' leadership qualities were built on the camps that they had attended, as the camp facilitators created an especially supportive environment in which the students were able to build their confidence. These gains could easily have been achieved on any leadership camp that the students could attend, but the difference with the HPS leadership camp was that their capacity was built to further the implementation of HPS as well.

7.10.1.3 Introspection by lead teacher

The lead teacher said that she learnt important lessons while being involved with HPS. Firstly, she came to realise the importance of self-care:

Because you can't take care of other people or give to other people that you don't have. And the camp really brought back into focus for me because, I was trying to do a million things at once and I was forgetting about [myself]. (Lead teacher, School B)

Secondly, she learnt to stop judging people as she was pleasantly surprised at her colleagues' unexpectedly positive response to HPS. She had assumed that they would not be able to work together as a team, but a culture of collaboration and cooperation was evident:

People have proven to me that if you, for example, see them as "something" they will prove you wrong. They will "show" you that they can work together as staff for example. Because I always thought that our staff will never come together as a staff speaks from one mouth, and then with certain things at the school where HPS is involved then they stand together, they speak with one voice. (Lead teacher, School B)

7.10.2 Interpersonal level benefits

It is evident that different relationships had developed during the implementation of HPS. The students and teachers highlighted the friendships that had developed between the HPS students

within the school, as well as with students from the three schools, and how well they worked together because of this relationship. The students referred to this relationship as being like a big family, and it is notable that this did not exist before HPS. The students insisted that no rivalry existed between the students from the different schools; they shared a passion for HPS and shared ideas, even though they differed at times:

Yes, because you hear how their ideas are different to yours and how our ideas together can develop a bigger and better idea. It is also nice to see other people sharing the same passion, having something in common with you. I know that everybody that is involved now likes HPS. (Male student, BP18)

Another relationship described was that between the OT students and the school students. The teachers acknowledged the value of the work that the OT students did, in developing the students. The lead teacher expressed her appreciation for the manner in which they engaged with the students and her surprise at the students' response to this engagement:

I've got a group of second-year OT students who are now working with – what is being labelled as the worst class in the school, my own class ... for the first time I saw them playing like kids. And I was astonished ... And they were laughing, almost a pure laugh, not a laugh with all that cynicism that children of their age already have. And all that grown-up demeanour and stuff they have was gone and they were just kids. And I told them, "Wow! I've been teaching them the whole year up to now, and I've never seen them behave like this. So whatever you doing, keep on doing it". (Lead teacher, School B)

The students and school facilitator confirmed the good relationship that had been built with these OT students and how empowering it was for the school students. The school facilitator suggested that students from disciplines such as nursing and sports science could also be involved with HPS-related activities. This would benefit the school students as well as the university students, who need to do community training, thereby increasing the pool of resources for HPS implementation.

The teachers and students commented on how the HPS approach also had the potential to make a difference at home, because what they had learnt and practiced at school could also be applied at home. The students were prepared to apply the skills and knowledge that they had gained, not

only to their personal lives, but also in the community. When asked what they wanted to achieve with HPS, one of the students in the student FGD responded enthusiastically:

That is a lovely question! What I want to achieve is to take forward whatever I am working for such as the skills that I have now. I will not stop once I am done with school. Perhaps where I work I want to positively influence people's lives if they are negative. Even in the community, you can share with the youth and in the end they will feel that if it can be done at school then it can be done in the street too ... we can start picking up papers, We do not need a Mandela Day,¹⁶ but we can still do things for fun. We can even do something that we not like and make it fun. (Student FGD, School B)

Moreover, HPS and specifically the student leadership camp was regarded as having given the students new exposure to the outside world – away from the negativity that they experienced regularly in their own environments:

And it's nice for them to see that there's a different world out there. At home it's always just poverty and negative stuff. The environment is not so good in our area ... and they [the camp] always go to nice places. And they learn a lot, they get lots of skills, and they always very loving when they come back [giggles]. And they always say the food was nice. (Teacher, BP14)

The different relationships that had formed, and the positive experiences of students as a group and teachers as a team can be seen as contributing to a positive implementation climate that resulted in implementation effectiveness as well as being a positive situation in its own right.

7.10.3 School-level benefits

The main benefits at school level that were attributed to the implementation of HPS were the feeding scheme, establishment of a sick bay, raised awareness of health issues, and a cleaner school environment.

The feeding scheme benefitted many students by providing them with school meals, as many

¹⁶ International Mandela Day (21 July) was launched after a decision by the United Nations in recognition of Nelson Mandela's birthday, not only to honour his life and legacy but also to continue his life's work of addressing social injustices by engaging in some act that will bring about change for the better.

students reportedly started the school day without having had anything to eat. In addition, a sick bay was built at the request of the HPS group after consultation with all relevant stakeholders, including parents, showing a participatory process in decision-making, in keeping with the HPS ethos. The sick bay was also used as the first aid room, where some students received training in first aid. They were subsequently requested to provide first aid to the school sports teams and were able to provide the service independently of the teacher in charge of first aid. This meant that not only was an enabling environment created with the provision of a sick bay but students were also empowered in gaining first aid skills, and providing a service to and for the school.

The participants highlighted how HPS helped raise awareness and the importance of health issues in the school and how this facilitated healthier behaviour in the school generally:

Because in one class there's maybe one HPS kid; but everybody is drinking water and everybody is picking up papers. When they get into the class I say, "Right class, let's just clean up quickly". And then everybody is aware of cleanliness. (Teacher, BP14)

The mere fact that there is a HPS pushes the issue of health to the fore. And also the fact that we have quite a lot of students that have TB and they get their medication at school ... I know about three students that are HIV positive in our school. And these issues come to him [the principal] ... and now these things are becoming more and more important for him, yeah, for the school. (Teacher, BP15)

With regard to the school's physical environment, the students were involved in cleaning the school grounds and classrooms. They confirmed that cleaning the school environment was not only the janitor's responsibility but also theirs. This sense of responsibility meant that they took ownership of the school, in keeping with the HPS approach.

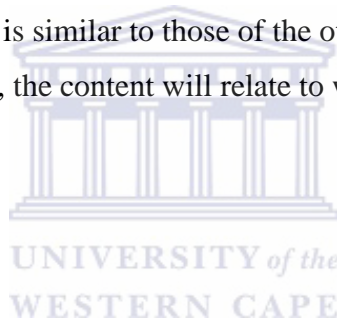
Another benefit of HPS at the school level that was highlighted was the fact that the school's involvement in HPS was used to show that they were achieving their performance areas of the IQMS:

And they were then assessed; and they were very proud that they could show that they doing like the community stuff and ... trying to enhance the school. (School facilitator, School B)

In addition, the lead teacher admitted that she was sceptical initially about HPS being effective in secondary schools, as she had assumed that the students had different priorities and interests from the ideology of HPS, implying that this might be because of their stage of development. She was pleasantly surprised when she observed how well the students participated in HPS, and was subsequently convinced that HPS was possible in secondary schools. This shows the positive role that the students in secondary schools can play in implementing HPS.

In conclusion, the data show that there were several positive effects that were attributed to HPS at School B, at different levels within the school system. These benefits came about through the efforts of the different actors, in keeping with the settings approach and HPS, which created a conducive implementation climate for change.

The next chapter is a description of Case 3 which is referred to as School C in this thesis. Although the format of the chapter is similar to those of the other two cases and follows the adapted framework where possible, the content will relate to what emerged from the data of School C specifically.



8 FINDINGS - CASE 3

8.1 SCHOOL C PROFILE¹⁷

School C was the oldest of the three schools, and was 47 years old in 2011. In 1964 the original School C was moved across the railway line (because of the Group Areas Act), with teachers and students having to help carry furniture to the new premises 5 km away, because the original school was situated in an area that was allocated for “White” people only. In the “Coloured” area where the school now stands, people were poorer, crime was widespread and the school became a target for burglaries and vandalism. Despite these difficulties the teachers were committed to teaching and learning, and to giving students opportunities to overcome their challenging circumstances, by equipping them with a good education. The school excelled academically and many of the students went on to tertiary education, graduating as professionals in various fields such as medicine, law, education and theology. Some eventually took up positions in government (information from former principal, Mr Pick).

This situation changed after the onset of the democratic government in 1994, and residents of the area were free to move to other suburbs in Cape Town. Many parents who were able to do so moved to “better” areas, and School C lost some academically stronger students. School C was faced with new challenges, to survive in a community with increased unemployment, gangsterism, drug and alcohol abuse, teenage pregnancy and TB, and school fees were not paid regularly, if at all (Preiser et al., 2014). As a result, the school’s academic performance started declining. Up to 2011, School C had been performing poorly academically, with low literacy and numeracy skills (Western Cape DoE, 2011). However, School C had made the most significant progress of the three schools since 2010, with dramatic improvement in their matriculation results: 42.9% passed in 2010; 72.4% in 2011; and 86.4% in 2012. The average for the district was 85% in 2012 which meant that School C, like the other two study schools, achieved better than the district average.

¹⁷ The school’s vision statement is not included here like I did with the other two cases as I could not access it despite numerous calls to the school secretary and lead teacher.

School C was the smallest of the three schools and had 512 students in 2011, with 222 males and 290 females. From my own observation and as confirmed by the school facilitator, School C appeared to be the least resourced of the three schools. It was clean and tidy but badly in need of repair: floors were worn out, walls needed painting and some windows were broken. There were no school accolades displayed visibly, as was the case at the other two schools. There seemed to be no reception area and therefore at my first visit I did not know where to find the school secretary or the teachers. Many parts of the building were quite dark and starkly cold.

The following quotations from the lead teacher sum up the changes over the years, and also the community context:

When I started here [29 years ago] it was one of the best schools ... education-wise and on the sporting front. But as the years went by, the students started to move away to [even] better schools. It is also my opinion the principal's attitude, the principal who has just retired. As a result, the students do not pay school fees and the circumstances also... the parents, most of them are single parents, many of whom I have taught before, who had dropped out of school in Grades 8 or 9 due to pregnancy and it's those children that are now here. I am teaching three generations already ... We do not have a governing body [SGB] post¹⁸ because we do not have the money to pay the people. (Lead teacher, School C)

I can show them the dangers of drugs etc. and some of them even started smoking less, but I realised that I won't be able to [change their behaviour] because one boy said to me "How can I stop when my stepfather does it [smoke marijuana] at home every day?". So it does not matter what you do here, the children go back to their circumstances [in the community], it's a social problem. (Lead teacher, School C)

There seemed to be a certain amount of disorganisation in the school, such as not having a functioning SGB, and assemblies hardly taking place because management had not implemented them. However, another reason for not having regular assemblies was that they had to take place in the open as there was no school hall, and were therefore weather dependent. There also

¹⁸ Apart from teachers employed by the DoE, the SGB can employ additional teachers if deemed necessary, who they have to fund themselves.

seemed to be lack of communication at the school, for example, the SMT did not acknowledge staff for the good work that they do, such as raising funds for the school.

There was no evidence of other co-curricular activities apart from netball and soccer. The school had some networks with external partners and services that were offered. One corporate company, Sanlam, was involved with the school and made donations towards tidying up the garden and providing computers, and had pledged annual funding for sporting activities. The school called on a social services organisation, Badisa, to provide professional services such as child protection and youth development, family care and adoption, substance dependency, community development, poverty relief and HIV counselling. They also had help from Tehillah, another community collaborative organisation, which did similar work.

One university ran a community peace project in the school, which focused on violence. The school was also part of a high school project run by another university, which held workshops off the school premises and addressed cultural diversity, substance abuse and HIV. Furthermore, foreign university students were placed at the school and worked with the students on HIV-related matters.

Students who were identified as having substance abuse problems by the teachers were referred to rehabilitation centres for counselling. The school also worked with the Trauma Centre, an organisation that supports and provides psychosocial services for survivors of social crime, political violence, torture and other cruel inhumane and degrading treatment. In schools the organisation undertakes awareness campaigns focusing on sexual violence, substance abuse and gang violence.

A feeding scheme was instituted by the acting principal through his external networks, once a week which was voluntary for students. The school secretary and one community member (but no students) were involved in organising the feeding scheme. According to the student participants, they were apprehensive about going to the feeding scheme because of the stigma attached to it. However, once the senior students started going, the younger students felt encouraged to go as well. The students nonetheless complained about the lack of discipline

amongst certain students when food was being served, which discouraged some other students from going.

The limited data collected from School C has resulted in a reduced breadth of description of this school as compared to the other two schools but still added depth to the study. Where possible the same format following the adapted framework has been used as in the other two cases.

8.2 HPS VALUES-FIT WITH VALUES OF SCHOOL C

Unfortunately I was not able to obtain the schools' vision statement but it is apparent from the data that it was because of the HPS values that the school decided to become involved with HPS. According to the school facilitator, the VP at the time and the lead teacher were very keen to implement HPS from the time that it was first introduced to the school. They identified with the values of HPS and realised that much of what they were doing in terms of student well-being could be regarded as HPS already. The culture in the school, of caring for students, was another value that fitted with those of HPS. The students confirmed that some teachers also encouraged them to be involved in the upliftment of the community, which was in keeping with the values of HPS. This meant that they were building the students' sense of social responsibility, which can positively influence their readiness for change. The school's readiness for change is presented next.

8.3 ORGANISATIONAL READINESS FOR CHANGE

8.3.1 Seeing the potential and benefits of HPS and reasons for involvement

The lead teacher acknowledged the benefits and potential that HPS had for School C. She claimed that they wanted to create a healthier environment at school, especially because of the challenging social circumstances that the students faced in the community. There were not many positive role models to look up to in the community and many of the students were either from single-parent homes or resided with a grandmother who did not have much control over them. She saw the potential of HPS for creating that enabling environment.

One of the factors that can influence ORC is its members' motivations to become involved in the change process. Apart from the lead teacher, there were only two other teachers involved in HPS at School C. However, it was the school facilitator's perception that these two teachers became involved mainly because they were friends with the lead teacher, and not because they were genuinely interested or committed to HPS, which made their involvement questionable:

So there was no passion from them about it, it was all about "our friend is doing it, okay, we will do it with her". (School facilitator, School C)

The rest of the teachers did not show any interest in wanting to become involved when it was introduced to them. This can be a reflection of their lack of motivation towards their school work in general, and suggests that apart from the lead teacher and VP there was low readiness for change as far as the rest of the teachers were concerned.

On the other hand, there seemed to be more motivation for student involvement. According to the lead teacher, school facilitator and students, one of the main reasons that the students became involved was because it gave them something to do that was different to what they normally did. Furthermore, it gave them a sense of belonging:

They're bored! If you ask them what they do at home, there's one or two who do sport; but the others say "nothing" or they say things like sleep or MXit or TV; they do nothing ... there's nothing outside of school. So this was something for them to belong to, for them to do. (School facilitator, School C)

Another reason for student involvement reported was the incentive of food at the HPS meetings or events and the student camp. The students reported that when they called a meeting very few students came, but when the school facilitator called a meeting there was much better attendance and they admitted that it was because of the food that was offered at these meetings. This could be a reflection of the poor socio-economic context that students came from. On the other hand, although the students admitted that food was an incentive, when they were asked what would happen if there was no food offered, they said that they would still continue to be involved. This suggests that once they became actively involved with HPS, the other benefits of HPS outweighed the incentive of food. Another incentive was going on the student leadership camp.

The students claimed that once they knew that there was going to be a camp for those involved with HPS, they also became involved.

On the other hand, it was the students' perception that other students had not become involved with HPS because they felt that they already had enough school work and therefore did not see a reason to be involved in something extra. This suggests that their readiness for change was low because they saw HPS as an add-on, and not as something that could be integrated into what they were already doing in the school.

The data show that there were varying levels of readiness for change of the teachers as well as the students, depending on how they understood the potential and benefits of HPS. Another factor that influenced School C's readiness for change was its internal context.

8.3.2 Organisational context of School C

This section describes the school context of School C in relation to its culture of caring for students; the challenging relationship between the teachers and their level of commitment to the school; their relationship with the students; the school's past experience with external organisations; and the various policies, practices and structures in place at the school.

8.3.2.1 School culture of caring for students

The teachers and principals were aware of the challenging community context that the students and their families faced, and therefore felt accountable to the students and tried to ease the burden for the students. For example, to address some of the socio-economic challenges, the students who matriculated were asked to donate their school uniforms to the school for other students in need. In addition, when the acting principal came into office, he started a feeding scheme to address the needs of some students. This culture of caring can also be regarded as contributing to ORC and also as fitting the values of HPS.

8.3.2.2 Levels of teacher commitment to school and challenges in teachers' relationships

A culture of collaboration, cooperation and commitment was not highly prevalent in School C. One of the likely reasons could be because of the heavy responsibilities and multiple roles that the teachers had to play, resulting in them feeling overwhelmed. The school facilitator reported that because of the many problems, especially the social problems that the students faced, the teachers had to play roles such as being a parent or social worker in addition to their normal teaching load. In addition they had to be role models to the students because of the lack of role models in the community, as indicated before.

Although the lead teacher was emphatic that the school was part of her life (having been there for 29 years), she felt overwhelmed with some of the challenging situations at the school, especially because the teachers had so many different responsibilities as a result of limited staff:

Because we are a small school [with few staff]... you are involved everywhere and that means that we do not have the energy or the motivation for it anymore. Like for example, I am with HPS and [key HPS student] came to ask me this morning "Miss, is the HPS now dead?" I simply do not have the chance. (Lead teacher, School C)

Another negative factor in the school context was the lack of some teachers' commitment to their work, as apparent in this statement made by the lead teacher:

And you can see how some of them work and some of them stay absent. The same people every time stay absent. (Lead teacher, School C)

This was further confirmed by the students when they said that some of the teachers were demoralised and wanted to leave as they did not feel committed to the school anymore. The teachers dogmatically did what they had to do in the school, without any passion or drive. However, the lead teacher admitted that the lack of resources at the school meant that the teachers could not effectively do what they needed to do, making them feel despondent and helpless. This resulted in low motivation and commitment towards their work, confirmed by the school facilitator:

They would say things like "Our school ... yeah, well they didn't have money". Often their telephone line was cut because they didn't pay the phone bill ... you try to fax and they can't fax, they can't check emails

because the phone bill hasn't been paid. They couldn't make photocopies because there was no paper and the photocopy machine didn't work. You know, basic things like that. (School facilitator, School C)

The school facilitator further summed up the apparent lack of motivation of some of the teachers for their work when she said:

The feeling I got about the teachers was that "You know this is just our job" and there was no passion about teaching about anything really. They were just exhausted and demotivated. (School facilitator, School C)

Further evidence of lack of motivation was noted when even though the school needed more funds, it seems that the teachers did not feel motivated to raise funds. This lack of motivation was also obvious in their reluctance to initiate anything new, and they also did not motivate students to do so:

There isn't that culture of "start this", "stop X" – like I don't know of any clubs that they have ... at [School C] that doesn't seem to happen but that's it, things don't happen, and so the kids don't initiate. Like they won't say to the teachers "What's happening, when are we having a HPS meeting?" They will ask me, or wait. (School facilitator, School C)

Moreover, the lack of motivation in some teachers was perceived to be one of the reasons for the poor academic performance of the students. The school facilitator claimed that some teachers were demotivated because they did not have the capacity to teach some of the subjects that were allocated to them.

Interestingly, it was the school facilitator's perception that because all the teachers were over 40 years old and been at the school for many years, they were burnt out and therefore lacked interest, passion and commitment to their work. She claimed that if the teachers felt this way then it is unlikely that they would feel committed to HPS or collaborate and cooperate with others for HPS implementation, because they might not be ready for change. She felt that they needed motivation and stimulation to overcome these negative feelings.

Furthermore, the ability of the teachers to work together was reported as a challenge. The school facilitator observed that the teachers had formed cliques and did not bother to include other

teachers, which suggests that they would find it difficult to cooperate or collaborate with others outside their particular group. One of the reasons for not being able to work together could be because there was not much opportunity to come together, such as at assemblies or staff meetings, because these were hardly held. The school facilitator confirmed the lack of cooperation and coordination which she observed at a workshop that she had with the teachers, after being made aware of it by the HPS teachers.

However, the lead teacher claimed that she had “good relationships” with the other teachers in the school – but admitted that she spent most of her time with the students at break times. Paradoxically, this suggests that as she spends most of her time with the students, this does not leave much time for building relationships with the rest of the staff.

8.3.2.3 Relationship between teachers and students

The relationship between the teachers and students was another factor that determined the school context. The students claimed that not all teachers had a negative attitude or lacked commitment towards their work or the students. They acknowledged that some teachers were willing to assist and support the students even after school hours.

However, the negative attitude of some of the teachers affected the students’ self-confidence and self-efficacy. The students felt that these teachers undermined their abilities and were even derogatory at times. They claimed that some students could withstand this kind of attitude but others, who did not have enough self-esteem, were not that resilient. The negative attitude of these teachers even made the students feel despondent about attending school. The following quotations illustrate the students’ perceptions of these teachers’ negative attitude towards them:

There is one particular teacher who keeps saying we are “gam”¹⁹ and he will tell us like we will never make it in matric and we should rather leave school now already. (Student FGD, School C)

If he gives us papers [notes] then he like tell us that we are all getting it despite not all of us paying school fees. (Student FGD, School C)

¹⁹ Derogatory South African term for “Coloured” people.

They tell children who perhaps did not do their work “Go and be with those people outside, with the gang members. Just become one of them”. (Student FGD, School C)

On the other hand, the students admitted that the teachers' attitude in class was sometimes determined by the students' behaviour. Some of the students' bad behaviours including using illegal drugs and being members of gangs (although this did not happen openly in the school), negatively influenced the relationship between teachers and students. However, the students acknowledged that, despite some students' bad attitude and behaviour, many teachers were still patient with them. Interestingly, the lead teacher admitted that the bad attitude and behaviour of some of the students was because they needed some love and attention, implying that they did not have this at home, an example of the external context impacting on the school context.

8.3.3 Past experience with external agents

As noted in section 8.1 in this chapter, there was involvement by external agents, albeit minimal. The school had links with some outside organisations that they could draw on when needed, such as when they had discipline- or drug-related issues with students. There were also volunteer American students who delivered an HIV programme. The fact that the school was open to external organisations providing services or resources, especially those of benefit to student upliftment, was probably one of the reasons that they were amenable to the UWC team introducing HPS to the school, which was one of the positive reasons for readiness for change.

8.3.4 Existence of policies, practices and structures at School C

The existence or non-existence of policies, practices and structures also influenced School C's readiness for change. The school facilitator confirmed that there was no RCL structure at the school at the time that HPS was introduced. This was subsequently established after the acting principal was appointed. However, the HPS students appeared not to have much confidence in the RCL, as it was perceived to have no power and was not visibly active. The other existing student structure was the prefect body. These student structures had the potential to influence HPS implementation because of the important role that students could play in the process.

However, even though some HPS students were part of these structures very little attempt was made to work with these structures for implementation of HPS.

The policy of discipline was regarded as important at school because of the poor behaviour of some students. The lead teacher reported that a group of people including the principal²⁰ met once a week to hold disciplinary hearings. In some cases discipline was practised in a negative way, with students having to clean classrooms after school as punishment, which goes against the ethos of HPS, in which creating a healthy environment is a positive notion. The only other policy mentioned was the late-coming policy, which also had negative connotations because of the related punishment.

There did not appear to be any other structures such as clubs, apart from a couple of sporting activities, as reported in section 8.1 in this chapter. The limited policies and structures in place in the school suggest a lack of commitment and general apathy within the school, but could also be because of a lack of resources. This means that the school's readiness for change was most probably compromised, making the implementation of HPS more challenging, as school policies and structures should be able to support and facilitate implementation.

In summary, it is evident that the external and internal contexts were challenging for School C and, as a result, compromised its readiness for change for HPS. There were several factors, ranging from positive to negative, in the school context that influenced the level of ORC. The culture and climate of the school, where there did not seem to be much interaction between staff members and the relationship between the teachers and students ranged from positive to negative, most likely negatively influenced the school's readiness for change. The lack of motivation, commitment to the school and collaboration amongst many of the teachers further aggravated the challenging school context. In such circumstances it might be difficult to raise the school's readiness for change.

²⁰ It was not apparent if this was meant to be the SGB.

8.4 LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT SUPPORT

Leadership and management at School C seemed to be particularly challenging for HPS implementation. The school had a change of three principals for the duration of the project. (Data were collected just when the third principal took office.) It is evident that the change in principals and their related leadership styles, roles played in HPS and the level of support influenced the HPS practices and consequent implementation climate.

The first principal's attitude towards the staff, students and others seemed to have been influenced by his personal characteristics, which in turn most likely influenced his leadership style. All the participants including the school facilitator claimed that he had an unsociable demeanour. He was aloof and anti-social towards almost everybody in the school – staff and students alike – as well as toward visitors, which the school facilitator confirmed with her reported difficulties in securing a meeting with this principal.

It is evident that the first principal's anti-social behaviour had a negative impact on his relationship with the rest of the school members. This was demonstrated when the school facilitator reflected on how, from the time she first started working with the school, the teachers and the principal himself gleefully counted off the days to his imminent retirement. The absence of a farewell event for him when he retired after long service to the school was a reflection of the poor relationship with others in the school:

It was more in the body language or the sort of sarcastic remarks made. From the time that I started with the project everyone was counting off the number of days he had left before he retired. That was my introduction to him; that is all he would ever say to them was, "I've got so many months left before I retire". Yes, they were counting with him. I mean just to explain to you, I think the entire picture was painted – apparently he went to that school as a child. He then was a principal for many, many years at the same school, and when he retired they didn't even have a farewell. There was nothing! He didn't do anything, the school didn't do anything, he just left. So that I think it tells you the whole story. (School facilitator, School C)

The first principal was perceived to have had an autocratic leadership style. He made decisions autonomously, which he relayed to the VP who then informed the rest of the staff. A practical illustration of his autocratic style, which was confirmed by the school facilitator, was when he

compiled the school's HIV policy on his own and then left it to the VP to communicate it to the school. This is a clear demonstration of a top-down approach to leadership and management, which goes against the ideology of HPS. As a result of this leadership style, the lead teacher cited lack of communication between the principal and the staff as a challenge. The school did not have assemblies or staff meetings in which to discuss pertinent issues during this principal's term, an indication of his poor leadership style.

In addition, the students described this principal's negative attitude towards them as well, conceding that he was not very empathetic towards them and was even rather cynical at times. For instance, they claimed that he did not seem to care about the dangers of the unsafe community environment (e.g. gangsterism) when he sent them back home for arriving late at school. It was also their perception that he treated the students the way he perceived them to be. For example, if he suspected that a student was a member of a gang then he would treat that student with disdain, whether it was true or not.

Furthermore, the school facilitator's observation was that his distant attitude paradoxically seemed to contradict his caring for the school's physical environment. It appears that he had his own agenda for the school, which seemed to be more about the image that he wanted to portray, to the exclusion of everybody else, reflecting his personality:

And the reason why nobody likes the principal is that he wants to be seen. If you do something then you must do it from your heart and not to show others. (Student FGD, School C)

When the first principal was approached by the UWC team for the initiation of HPS, he unilaterally agreed but the teachers were just told that they had to take it on. However, it is not clear from the data why he actually agreed to have HPS implemented at the school. One possibility could be that it would be good for the image of the school, and the other could be in keeping with the school's caring culture towards the students.

Although this principal did not stop anything from happening, he showed no interest at all, even when he was made aware of what was happening with regard to HPS. This meant that it was difficult for the HPS group to approach him about doing anything:

I mean it's difficult to embrace HPS if that's the sort of person you are

where you want to work on your own, do things on your own. ... I remember when we went to sign the MOU – it was in his office, and he signed it there, there was no “Let’s do it in the staff room with all the staff” It was in his office – and he was very happy to sign it.
(School facilitator, School C)

While the project was in progress the first principal retired and was replaced with an acting principal. The acting principal made some changes such as conducting staff meetings and introducing a feeding scheme. However, the school facilitator reported that the teachers were sceptical about his motives for making changes. They felt he was doing so because he was vying for the post of principal. This is an indication of the deep mistrust that had likely built up in the school, reflecting the negative culture that was prevalent. The change in leadership still did not mean inclusivity for the teachers as he came up with his own ideas, which were important to him. He then told everybody what needed to be done without consulting them about it, once again demonstrating an autocratic leadership style. In fact, when the school facilitator questioned the teachers’ attitude towards the acting principal, because she was under the impression that they wanted him to become principal, the following response summed up their feelings towards him:

“Well, sometimes it’s better the devil you know than the devil you don’t know”.

According to the school facilitator it was difficult for the acting principal to become fully integrated into the functioning of the school, and also for the teachers to fully accept him in his new position, because of the temporary nature of his role. Such a situation can be a challenge for HPS implementation. An example was his motivation for putting structures into place, as noted earlier. However, according to the participants, the acting principal was more supportive and interested in HPS than the first principal:

The [acting principal] is very interested but he’s also very busy. For example, last Wednesday two students and I had to go to the university to tell them about the HPS work [medical] students were doing in the school. The [acting] principal would have taken the students but then he had something else on. The next day he asked me “How did it go, how did our students do?”. (Lead teacher, School C)

It was the students’ opinion that as long as somebody had something to offer the school, the acting principal was supportive and therefore he was not a barrier to HPS. They highlighted

some of his positive actions, such as the feeding scheme. The students confirmed that he showed interest in what they were doing when he popped into some of their HPS meetings. He also showed an interest in teacher well-being and supported and attended the teacher well-being event that was organised by the school facilitator. According to the notes of this event, the principal expressed the need to increase teacher morale at School C. However, there was no evidence that this had subsequently happened.

The school facilitator summed up her perception of the role of leadership and management for implementation of HPS as follows:

I think the whole ethos and culture of the school is very often dependent on a principal's ethos. If you've got a principal or a school management team that can embrace HPS, it's going to work. ... if you've got a principal that's just saying, "Yeah, okay, go ahead, its great" and then supporting from far off, it's easier than having a principal who is blocking it. (School facilitator, School C)

The important role that that the principal could have potentially played in the implementation of HPS was highlighted in the lead teacher's perception: if the principal had been more supportive and actively involved with HPS, more teachers would have shown an interest and as a result more students too because these teachers would have encouraged more students, implying that there would have been better integration of HPS.

In summary, the level of principal support ranged from minimal support (the first principal, with his top-down approach in that he allowed for some HPS activities) to more support (acting principal, in that he showed an active interest and seemed to be more committed). The school therefore was more ready for change during the term of the acting principal than that of the former principal. This had implications for the implementation climate, because the HPS practices were influenced by the personal characteristics of the principals, their leadership styles and relationships with school members, and the consequent levels of support that they received from the principal.

8.5 CHAMPION'S ROLE AND CHARACTERISTICS

The lead teacher was seen as the champion in HPS implementation because of her commitment, drive and passion, which influenced the role that she played in implementation of HPS at School C. The students acknowledged that she always provided support and guidance, thereby contributing towards a conducive implementation climate for the implementation of HPS:

She is always there for support ... she is actually the one who guides us. (Student FGD, School C)

Similarly, the school facilitator confirmed the lead teacher's commitment to HPS and the pivotal role she played:

I think the fact that [lead teacher] is passionate about it [HPS], I think it would have just died a horrible death early on already if she didn't keep pushing, even though she was exhausted and busy. (School facilitator, School C)

The personal characteristics of the lead teacher were seen to have influenced her involvement in HPS. She attributed her involvement to being committed to the students and also to her willingness to take on new challenges. She sacrificed her own time (such as break times) for the students and went beyond the call of duty to assist students with their problems:

Last year I went to work by SANCA [drug rehabilitation centre] so for five hours, just to see what they do. I then identified about 15 students because I teach LO and I get all the stories there. I identified 15 who smoked dagga and some also used tik [methamphetamine]. I worked with them for three to four weeks. (Lead teacher, School C)

The lead teacher admitted that it was because of her observation of the positive impact of HPS on the students that she continued to be involved in HPS, despite her own busy schedule and personal commitments. She admitted that she took on extra responsibilities at school because of the type of person she was, often to her own detriment:

What I learnt through HPS, even though we do it already, was to live healthy and you must not only be healthy physically you must also be healthy emotionally ... But I don't always have time for myself, so much so that I landed up in hospital last year. (Lead teacher, School C)

It's only this year that [lead teacher] is not studying, but the years before she was studying so it was very difficult. She struggled to study

and keep all of this going. (School facilitator, School C)

The lead teacher confirmed that because “teaching is my life”, if other teachers did not fulfil their responsibilities in the school she took over these responsibilities. It seems that she had resigned herself to the negative attitude and lack of commitment of some of the teachers, but did not let that interfere with the implementation of HPS even when it was challenging for her to do so.

She also had the ability to network and access the needed resources when necessary, or she provided resources herself. For example, for the TB march that all three schools organised together, she was able use her networks to organise a band that was required for the march.

In conclusion, the lead teacher was the main source of support for the students. It was her personal characteristics of caring for the students and her commitment to not only teaching but her passion for the students’ well-being that made her persevere, despite some of the challenges that she faced. This made her readiness for change high. Her role as champion influenced the HPS implementation practices through her support, contributing towards a supportive implementation climate, albeit to a limited degree.

8.6 RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

The key resources that influenced the implementation of HPS at School C emerged as being human and financial. The staff and students were the main human resources available for HPS. The lead teacher was described in the previous section, and the staff and students are described in sections 8.7.1 and 8.7.2. Apart from the external resource support described here, there were other external resources available for HPS such as the UWC team, parents and the district, which is described in section 8.7.3.

Medical students who were linked to the project organised HPS-related activities, such as first aid training with the learners, as part of their community training. In addition, there was an NGO that worked with students who had behavioural problems. There was no further evidence of involvement by external organisations.

According to the lead teacher the lack of human resources at district level was a challenge for the students' well-being and therefore a challenge for the HPS, as there was limited support:

Like our school psychologist, there is one school psychologist for 30 schools. So I sent off things in April already, but nothing yet – children haven't been seen yet. There are no resources, like services in place.
(Lead teacher, School C)

With regard to financial resources, one of the main perceived challenges for HPS implementation in School C was the lack of funding within the school. This can be seen as a reflection of the poor socio-economic conditions in the community, as well as the lack of attempts at fund-raising by the school. Apart from the funding from the UWC team, the HPS group at the schools relied on external funding when available to accomplish what they wanted to do:

When we had our TB day, luckily we had two volunteers from America working here and they bought posters [paper] for us. They bought other things [pens, etc.] which they [students] used to make the posters because the school does not have a budget ... where other schools have LO budgets, sport budgets – we do not. (Lead teacher, School C)

Interestingly, the school facilitator, because of her experience with working in HPS primary schools (beyond the project), questioned whether poverty was actually a challenge. She claimed that despite a lack of funding, many schools in resource-poor settings were still able to sustain HPS:

... actually I don't like to say things like poverty ... are challenges because I've seen so many HPS schools in impoverished communities worse than [name of area] and it doesn't end up being a challenge, but I think they [School C HPS group] saw it as a challenge. (School facilitator, School C)

However, this statement was made from her experience with primary schools and might not hold true for secondary schools in similar settings because of the differences apparent in primary and secondary school contexts, where different types of resources might be needed.

Another resource challenge was the lack of infrastructure. For instance, the students bemoaned the fact that they could not use their sports field due to safety concerns because there was no fence surrounding it:

The fence here is stolen. Now we can't play soccer at the back on the soccer field. (Student FGD, School C)

The above quotation is a demonstration of how the community context impacted on the school context and, by implication, on the HPS climate.

In conclusion, the limited resources meant that the needs of the school for HPS implementation were not being met. This could mean that the school's readiness for change was low as they had limited resources. On the other hand, it might have been one of the reasons that the school agreed to become involved as it saw HPS as a mechanism for overcoming some of their challenges by providing resources. However, in order to access these resources the support of the leadership and management was needed. Making resources available or encouraging teachers to give of their time towards HPS implementation was crucial. In this case that support was limited and consequently this was a challenge for implementation.

8.7 PEOPLE AND PRACTICES IMPLEMENTATION AT HPS AT SCHOOL C

The HPS implementation people and practices at School C are categorised as factors related to the students, other school staff, the role of the UWC team and the school facilitator and external support. All these factors show influences on the implementation of HPS, ranging from positive to challenging.

8.7.1 Student participation

This section discusses the nature of the HPS students' participation as influenced by the roles they played in the implementation of HPS at School C and their personal characteristics.

At the leadership camp the students were given different responsibilities within the student HPS group, such as note-taker and time-keeper. However, the school facilitator claimed that the students needed to be consistently reminded of their responsibilities, and even then did not always fulfil them adequately – if at all. Furthermore, if the lead teacher or school facilitator did not initiate something, then the students did not do anything, especially once the senior students who had been involved in HPS had left the school. Even the students with leadership qualities did not initiate anything themselves or follow through on plans that were made. The school

facilitator's perception was that this was because they had not been given opportunities in the school to be leaders and therefore did not feel empowered to take responsibility, which seemed to have created a negative implementation climate. Their apparent lack of leadership initiative could also be because they lacked certain personal characteristics, such as self-confidence, which could have increased their self-efficacy and consequently their readiness for change, thus influencing the nature of their participation in HPS implementation.

Student commitment was another factor that influenced student participation. Although the students acknowledged that they wanted to be involved in something different, this did not always reflect in some of the students' commitment to HPS. For instance, the students cited non-attendance at meetings as an example of the lack of commitment of some students.

Furthermore, there was lack of cooperation and teamwork within the student HPS group, which the school facilitator maintained emulated the poor relationship amongst the staff:

... they [students] didn't form a team and bond ... yeah, they almost mirrored the teachers, because at the camps, you'd see the group of 10 from School A and that – there was bonding – but that didn't happen with the School C students. Some of them would bond with some at School A. (School facilitator, School C)

The school facilitator described an incident in which the students were involved on the camp, which reflected the poor group dynamics between the students:

... and the one student had been at the camp the previous year, and the second year when they did it they all just sat back even though we already had things about working as a team. The other just let him tell them what to do and I'm thinking that's exactly how their school runs ... And there was chaos... and there were ones that had ideas, who weren't listened to. And others that just sort of just sat there and waited for things to happen. And a little group that went and did a whole, like one part on their own and then in the end the whole thing didn't even happen because the main guy felt it wasn't right. (School facilitator, School C)

Peer pressure was another factor that impacted negatively on student participation. The school facilitator discovered that some students who were selected to go on the camp did not attend, as they did not feel that they had suitable clothes in keeping with what their peers would most likely be wearing. This was something that had not occurred to the UWC team, because everything else

was provided, including toiletries and T-shirts. Apart from negative peer pressure, this also demonstrates how the socio-economic context impacted on some students.

Furthermore, the school facilitator perceived that there was no sense of pride in belonging to the school amongst the students, which could have affected their readiness for change:

... there wasn't this, "We [School C] and we stick together and we the best school," there isn't that feeling. (School facilitator, School C)

It seems that some students' lack of commitment and teamwork, and their attitude towards the school resulted in practices not being put in place, thus creating a negative implementation climate that was aggravated by the school's negative culture and climate.

8.7.2 Role of school staff

Apart from the lead teacher, two teachers and the school secretary, no other staff members were involved in HPS in any way. The lead teacher admitted that even though the rest of the teachers agreed in principle to HPS being implemented due to the principal's decision, it became her responsibility together with the two other teachers.

Even the other two teachers involved in HPS did not seem to play much of a meaningful role, except for one of them being responsible for the successful inter-school soccer tournament. This was in itself an achievement, because it was successful despite the limited support emanating from the principal and other staff members. It was the school facilitator's perception that the two teachers needed encouragement to initiate anything on their own, although she was convinced that they were capable of doing the HPS activities themselves. This meant that they lacked self-confidence and a sense of self-efficacy, which was important for readiness for change:

[HPS teacher] was the "march person" [responsible for organising the TB march] and she was very, very worried about being the person who has to do this ... and I think she was very surprised at the end of it all that it worked. And then of course people immediately said, "Well done [lead teacher]," and I had to point out, "but actually [HPS teacher] did this." (School facilitator, School C)

The above quotation also demonstrates that others in the school perceived that only the lead teacher was capable of doing things, which could be a reflection of her being a driven person and

taking the initiative. However, there was an over-reliance by the other two teachers on the lead teacher for decision-making with regard to HPS:

So, so they wouldn't say, "Look, I will do this" if [lead teacher] wasn't there. It was always "[lead teacher] would do it," and the first couple of years, it's only this year that [lead teacher] is not studying, but the years before she was studying so it was very difficult. She struggled to study and keep all of this going. Hmm, and if she didn't do anything the other teachers didn't do anything. So, I think that was a definite, a barrier. (School facilitator, School C)

On the other hand, what was positive was that the school secretary was also active in HPS, in keeping with the HPS ethos of involving others in the school community. According to the school facilitator, she took the initiative to organise HPS-related activities, thus positively contributing to the implementation climate:

So yeah, I think [school secretary] actually plays a very important role. I think she could bring them altogether because she organised a whole, I don't know what day, I don't know if it's Women's Day. Even before the new principal was there she organised that the kids could come in "civvies", she organised on her own ... So she's a driver. (School facilitator, School C)

However, the students complained about the secretary's undemocratic way of dealing with HPS issues. She made decisions without regard for the students' designated roles and responsibilities within the HPS group. This meant that, even if there was a practice of working together in principle, in reality it was not necessarily done in a participatory manner.

8.7.3 External support and collaboration

It has already been established that there were some external organisations and institutions that the school could draw on for support with HPS. This section discusses these factors with regard to support and collaboration from the UWC team, and involvement by the education district and the parents.

8.7.3.1 Role of UWC team including school facilitator

The lead teacher and students saw the nature of the role of the school facilitator as one of mentoring, guiding and supporting:

She [school facilitator] always checked up on us and then we had forgotten but she would call us to remind us about a meeting. I think that is what kept us going. (Lead teacher, School C)

The school facilitator confirmed that the meetings of the HPS group at School C would not have taken place if she had not reminded them about them, and if she had not been there personally. The role of the school facilitator therefore seemed crucial to the survival of HPS at this school. Without her support and motivation the students would not have been very active, even though it may have seemed authoritarian, especially when the lead teacher was not available.

There also seemed to be an over-reliance on the UWC team by the teachers. According to the school facilitator, the teachers admitted that once the UWC team withdrew from the school, HPS would not continue. On the other hand, they confirmed that they would continue with the activities that had been in place before HPS was initiated. The school facilitator thus questioned their understanding of the HPS approach, which they seemed to perceive as a series of discrete events:

The one teacher said, “If you guys [UWC team] don’t come, we’ll stop doing this”, but ... in the same breath she also said “But we are doing HPS things, and we will continue to do that” ... “If you don’t come we not going to organise a TB march. We not going to do things like that, you know these events”. She seems to think that to be an HPS school you need to have these events. (School facilitator, School C)

The role of the UWC team and especially that of the school facilitator in creating an enabling environment meant that they had to provide constant support and guidance. On the other hand, the HPS group’s over-reliance on the UWC team posed challenges as they were not able to work independently of the school facilitator, which is not conducive for a positive implementation climate and sustainability.

8.7.3.2 Challenges in the role of the district

The district was seen as having played no role in HPS at School C, which had a negative impact on the implementation climate. For instance, the lead teacher felt that the district could have provided resources such as counsellors, which she felt were desperately needed. She also felt that they could include HPS in the LO curriculum, a subject that all students had to take, and it would therefore benefit them. However, she emphasised that HPS had to be a directive from the district,

through to the principal, and then to the teachers, which would result in more teachers becoming involved, otherwise it would not be effective or sustainable.

8.7.3.3 Parent involvement in HPS

The data indicate that parent involvement was limited to their approval of HPS. According to the lead teacher and the students some of the parents of the HPS students showed interest in what their children were doing. The students acknowledged that their parents' approval and encouragement made it easier for them to be involved with HPS. However it was the lead teacher's perception that most parents were not interested in becoming involved in anything at the school, even if they approved in principle of what the students were doing with regard to HPS. Her perception was that they were not prepared to become actively involved as they had other responsibilities and therefore did not have time to be involved in the school too. According to the lead teacher parents had previously volunteered when the school needed them, but now they wanted to be reimbursed, which the school could not afford. This is a reflection of the socio-economic challenges that the community faced, but also could be a lack of commitment to the school.

It seems that, on the one hand, the parents' approval was conducive for the implementation climate to a certain degree as it supported the students' participation. On the other hand, they could have been a useful resource for HPS implementation, especially in light of the overburdened teachers, if they had been more involved in HPS implementation.

In summary, it is clear that the different actors contributed to the nature of the practices for HPS at School C which influenced the implementation climate across a broad spectrum and in different ways. This resulted in mixed contributions ranging from the positive (such as the UWC team's contribution) to the negative (such as limited district support).

8.8 CHALLENGES OF INTEGRATING HPS INTO SCHOOL C

Apart from the challenges for HPS implementation already discussed in this chapter, the challenges that emerged from the data of School C are related mainly to a heavy workload and

academic responsibilities, limited integration into the curriculum, and limited support from the principal.

One of the main reasons for lack of HPS integration into the functioning of School C was the teachers' heavy workloads and academic responsibilities. The teachers carried heavy workloads because of the shortage of teachers, as described in section 8.1. This shortage was as a result of not having SGB posts for teachers, because the school could not afford to pay for additional teachers. The lead teacher claimed that they felt overburdened and therefore it was difficult to become involved in anything else, implying that HPS was regarded as an add-on. However, even though the lead teacher regarded HPS as an add-on to her workload, her personal characteristics and culture of caring encouraged her not only to integrate HPS into the curriculum, but also to attempt to integrate it at school level.

According to the school facilitator, HPS was not being integrated into the curriculum, even after giving teachers examples of how this could be done. The exception was the lead teacher and one of the other HPS teachers, who incorporated it into her computer class. This suggests that the rest of the teachers most likely could not see how HPS could enhance the curriculum, and/or they did not have an adequate understanding of the HPS concept. The school facilitator's perception was that HPS was regarded as an add-on by the teachers, thus making integration difficult.

Another issue that was related to integration was the principal's limited support of activities that were outside of the formal curriculum:

It really felt like an add-on for them – an add-on that wasn't being acknowledged and not supported [by leadership and management].
(School facilitator, School C)

The limited integration of HPS at School C was most likely a manifestation of the difficult school context, which had negative implications for HPS implementation and sustainability.

8.9 SUSTAINABILITY AND SUGGESTED DIFFERENT APPROACHES

The experiences of those involved in the implementation of HPS at School C engendered ideas as to how HPS could be sustained, and what could be done differently to make HPS more effective. The lead teacher felt that all teachers needed to be involved so that the responsibility

did not fall only on her, which was the case currently. Her opinion was that a school policy on HPS needed to be developed and put in place in order to facilitate integration and sustainability of HPS at the school. This suggests that she thought a top-down approach would have facilitated HPS. Like the lead teacher, the school facilitator's perception was that the school needed a team, and not only one lead teacher, to drive the process and delegate responsibilities evenly. This would make HPS more sustainable as it would take the load off the lead teacher, who would then not feel so overwhelmed and despondent, and enable her to be more able to fulfil her role as HPS champion.

The school facilitator acknowledged the over-reliance on the UWC team, and suggested that in order to avoid this, the capacity of the teachers had to be built so as to integrate and sustain HPS:

....yeah, more workshops for them. I don't think the teachers were empowered enough to make it. You know especially the ones that felt ... that didn't have the confidence. And to get [lead teacher] to a point where she realised "I need to delegate. The others can." (School facilitator, School C)

Her opinion was that the teachers needed much more motivation, guidance and self-confidence. This suggests that they needed an external person/s to facilitate until they had the capacity and confidence to do it on their own, integrate it and sustain it and also emphasised that time was needed to build their capacity.

... they needed a lot more input ... that's not sustainable because what happens if I go – but I feel that they needed a lot more motivation. They just needed more and I think maybe one could have walked away then and they carry on ... and if I had more time there I would have spent more time with teachers around self-care because – like I said, those teachers are burnt out and demotivated, and they weren't even interested in their actual jobs of teaching – HPS was just like "this other thing". (School facilitator, School C)

Interestingly, no one from School C attended the HPS short course that the UWC team offered to them, which would have built their capacity to some extent.

The school facilitator felt that more time with the students was also needed to build their capacity. Once this was accomplished they would have more confidence to work autonomously from the teachers and school facilitator:

The students ... again more time to get them to a point to see “We can go with this; we don’t have to wait for our teachers, that we have the skills to do this.” So I think for me the biggest thing would have been “more time”. (School facilitator, School C)

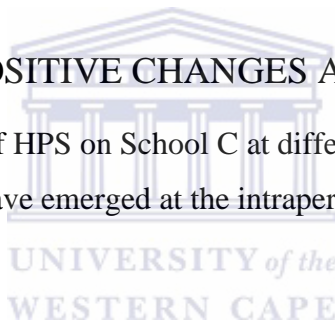
In addition, it was the students’ perception that if HPS had been marketed more vigorously more students would have become interested and involved, which would have meant more chance of sustainability.

It is evident that in order to integrate and sustain HPS, the understanding and capacity of those involved in HPS at School C has to be built further, so that they would have the confidence and efficacy to sustain it.

However, despite the many challenges faced at School C there were some positive effects, which are included in the next section.

8.10 PERCEPTIONS OF POSITIVE CHANGES AT SCHOOL C

This section describes the effects of HPS on School C at different levels of the school system. Benefits of HPS implementation have emerged at the intrapersonal, interpersonal and school levels.



8.10.1 Intrapersonal benefits to students

HPS effectiveness was most pronounced in the intrapersonal benefits to students. According to the school facilitator (one of the facilitators at the camp) the impact of the camp on the students was profound:

Well the camp itself, firstly just making them want to be part of HPS, but the camp itself ... just it was empowering for them ... At the camp reunions we had parents saying they can’t believe it is the same child. And even being at the camp seeing them just grow ... for leadership and empowerment I think they [camps] were brilliant. (School facilitator, School C)

The students developed leadership skills that were recognised by the school, as some of them were selected to be prefects and on the RCL team:

I think HPS was very good for individual people in the school,

definitely one of the HPS people ended up being the head boy. Hmm, and a lot of them were prefects as well. (School facilitator School C)

Apart from leadership skills, the students highlighted gaining skills such as mediation, team building, communicating with others more effectively, as well as gaining more knowledge on HIV and other health-related issues.

The lead teacher confirmed the positive impact that HPS had on individual students. She perceived that the students were deterred from bad behaviour as they had now become aware that the way they had been behaving was wrong. They had also developed more self-confidence. She claimed that it was because of these positive changes in the students that she persevered with HPS, despite the challenges that she faced:

And like when we do group work in class, they are the leaders. So really it helped them and I could see how they developed into young men and women. And so actually ... I kept on through the students' sake. (Lead teacher, School C)

Furthermore, the students admitted that HPS was more interesting than the school work. Their impression was that it was more about gaining life skills voluntarily and not something that they were compelled to learn. They felt that it was a fun way of learning and therefore easy to learn and understand. This suggests that HPS was seen as facilitating a different way of learning:

Yes, a person becomes more aware of what is happening around you with people. ... at school it is about you have to learn and here [in HPS] you do it at least because you want to do it. You try to take it in. At school you only take it in halfway. You don't have to concentrate hard [in HPS]. (Student FGD, School C)

It is clear that the students had gained certain skills and knowledge through HPS but, despite this, there is little evidence that they felt empowered to put these skills into practice and implement HPS. This means that their sense of self-efficacy was low, and therefore their ability to implement HPS was also impeded.

8.10.2 Interpersonal effects

HPS impacted positively on the different relationships that the students had developed. According to the lead teacher the relationship between her and the students had improved as they

became more expressive about their feelings. She claimed that the students also communicated better with each other. The students reported on how other students in the school assisted them when they had a clean-up, and also with recycling, showing how, on occasion, they had the cooperation of other students who were not directly involved with HPS. The students also acknowledged the friendships that had developed from their interaction with students from the other two HPSs. The school facilitator confirmed this relationship and explained how it sustained their involvement in HPS:

So any opportunity to see the other kids they jumped. So I think that helped a lot. I think if [School C] was just left alone and if we had just had [School C] and not the other schools, I think the students would have been less interested ... But I think they couldn't wait for any inter-school events, they loved that. (School facilitator, School C)

The students believed that being involved with HPS also improved their relationships at home, as whatever they had learnt through HPS could also be applied there and in the community. They endorsed that being involved with HPS meant that they were also serving the community, referring to the TB march.

With regard to interpersonal effects amongst staff, according to the school facilitator, the secretary introduced an initiative as part of HPS wherein the staff came together before classes for a brief motivational session. However, there was little evidence of the teachers' relationships having improved. Even when the school facilitator managed to meet with staff members, such as when she organised a wellness day, they would attend reluctantly if at all but would feel energised by the end of the meeting:

Every time we had staff, we had meetings with all the staff and we got them there. You know they'd start off looking like, "Oh no, do we have to be at this meeting?", but at the end they ... "Yes, no, we must all do this". (School facilitator, School C)

However, that is where their enthusiasm seemed to end, as nothing materialised and the relationships between staff members did not improve.

The school facilitator acknowledged how the week-long teachers' camp had a positive influence, as they felt motivated and inspired again to continue with HPS:

So yeah, camp was definitely a facilitator ... because at that camp

there was so much – I remember [School C HPS teachers] leaving saying “We going to” what did they say? “... revive HPS at our school when we go back”. (School facilitator, School C)

Despite this eagerness, a teachers’ strike followed soon after, thus erasing any positive gains from the teachers’ camp and negatively impacting on the HPS implementation climate.

8.10.3 School-level benefits

The positive effects that were reported at school level at School C after HPS was implemented were related mostly to the physical environment. The school had acquired a recycling bin, the school grounds were cleaner, and the girls’ toilets were enhanced with plants. They also put posters in the toilets about hand-washing. The lead teacher acknowledged that these activities had a good impact on the school, as they had improved the physical environment. One possibility for this change in the physical environment was that it might have been easier and more acceptable, as it was related to the principal’s priority with regard to the physical environment and image of the school.

It is evident that there were some benefits at different levels of the school system at school C. However, School C’s readiness for change, HPS practices, and HPS implementation climate were all influenced by several challenges. The overall impression of HPS effectiveness at School C was that it was difficult to achieve. Just accomplishing the mentioned activities at School C can be seen as an achievement in a school that faced several challenges. The leadership support was minimal, cooperation and collaboration between teachers was a challenge, and the lack of resources could all have negatively influenced the school’s readiness for change and the practices for HPS implementation. The HPS ethos might not have been adopted by the whole school, but these small steps could be the beginning of becoming an HPS. However, there will be a need for consistent commitment and support from all actors and, specifically, from the leadership and management of the school.

The following chapter is a discussion of the key findings from this study that emerged and draws mainly on the cross case analysis of the findings.

9 DISCUSSION

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of this study was to explore and understand the factors influencing the implementation process of HPS in secondary schools, specifically in a resource-limited area in Cape Town. I explored three secondary schools as individual cases and also undertook a cross-case analysis to gain a better understanding of the HPS implementation process in these schools. The main themes that emerged applied to all three schools, although the degree of implementation effectiveness was different in all three schools.

The findings in this study reveal that the factors influencing the effective implementation of an HPS are complex. In this study, my focus has been on contextual factors and intervention elements as catalysts or agents for change. The contextual factors have included the external social as well as the internal school factors, pre-existing policies and practices, different levels of support for HPS, and the dynamics of the different relationships between the different actors (both internal and external). The wide-ranging factors are intertwined and influence one another in various and multiple ways, revealing the complexity of the implementation process of HPS in secondary schools. The contextual factors are also inevitably influenced by the broader education system as noted by previous research. The authority that the education system has over schools will impact on how or whether HPS can be implemented given the colonial history of the education system in SA.

In discussing the findings, I explore these catalysts for change and their individual and collective roles, including leadership and management, the HPS champion, the students, the UWC team, the education district and other actors, and how, through their engagement with HPS, they have influenced the policies, practices and processes for HPS implementation in the three schools. These factors, in combination with the schools' readiness for change, manifested in the implementation climate either as barriers or as enablers, influencing the schools' ability to effectively implement, integrate and sustain HPS. The main focus of this chapter is the intra-and inter-school factors, because that is where most of the data were centred. The external factors, which are discussed in the next section, are covered in less detail. That section is followed by a

detailed discussion on the various factors that influenced the integration of HPS. The factors influencing student participation is discussed next, followed by the role of the UWC team as external catalysts for change. The final two sections discuss the participants' perceptions of HPS sustainability and the limitations of the study.

9.2 EXTERNAL CONTEXTUAL FACTORS INFLUENCING HPS IMPLEMENTATION

There is significant literature demonstrating that contextual factors internal and external to a school influences its readiness for change and the climate for HPS implementation (Clarke, O'Sullivan & Barry, 2010; Deschesnes, Trudeau, & Kébé, 2010; Ringeisen, Henderson & Hoagwood, 2003). According to de Jong (2000, p. 340) in terms of quality education taking place "... many schools in SA are adverse environments. They are often characterised by low educator morale, poor resources and facilities, mismanagement, social problems such as gangsterism and substance abuse, and disillusioned learners". Clarke et al. (2010) stress the importance of understanding the complex relationships in a whole school context, especially in resource-limited settings, and the various challenges that this setting brings for the school community in implementing HPS. Bloch (2009) sees youth at schools in such contexts as being poorly equipped to deal with the many challenges that they face in the community. All these factors emphasise the important role that HPS can play in building the capacity of youth in such contexts to overcome the challenges facing them. Berry et al. (2014) posit that it is difficult to work towards empowerment if disenfranchised people did not have any hope that the changes they would like will actually occur. In countries where there was years of colonisation, or "systematic oppression" (Berry et al., 2014:40), it is difficult to change the mindset of people from a feeling of hopelessness and lack of confidence to make them believe that they had the power to bring about structural change at a community level (Berry et al., 2014).

In this section the influence of external factors on implementation of HPS in schools, including the influence of community and social context, parental involvement and the influence of the education system, specifically the district, is discussed.

9.2.1 Influence of community and social context

According to Earls and Carlson (2001, p. 147), young people are simultaneously: "... influenced by relationships and resources beyond the family and household...". In this study the influence of the community context was characterised by gangsterism, and students expressed their feelings of being unsafe outside the school grounds even in their own communities, consistent with other studies conducted in similar socio-economic areas in Western Cape (Plüddemann et al., 2010; Standing, 2005). Masitsa (2011) has found secondary schools in townships in the Free State Province to be unsafe despite SA's Constitution and other laws purporting to protect students and teachers in schools. This situation highlights the value and importance of HPS in creating safe spaces in adverse community and family contexts (Ebersohn, 2007). The participants in the current study considered the threat of students being drawn into gangsterism to be very real, especially because of the sense of belonging created by being part of a gang, in contrast to the lack of family cohesion they were experiencing at home. In addition, the promise of material resources was attractive for those young people who came from a context of poverty and deprivation.

The findings in this study reveal the relationship between poverty and youth functioning or behaviour consistent with other studies (Ebersohn, 2007; Kwon & Wickrama, 2014; O'Brien & Caughy et al., 2012; Themane & Osher, 2014). The kinds of social aggressive behaviour and poor social competence displayed by some students in this study can be compared to the kinds of poor behaviour displayed by young people in other studies in low socio-economic contexts (O'Brien & Caughy et al., 2012; Themane & Osher, 2014). This behaviour in turn both lowered the morale of some teachers and impacted on student relationships in the current study. The implication of this is that, if the relationships between teachers and students and between students themselves are negative, it poses a threat to effective HPS implementation as the ability to work together and collaborate is compromised.

Within the adverse community context, the schools in this study seemed to feel responsible and accountable for their students, and were genuinely attempting to create safe and supportive environments. Teachers, by virtue of their profession and the law, are obliged to maintain

discipline, perform a caring and supervisory role, and act *in loco parentis* (Masitsa, 2011; Prinsloo, 2005). In this study, although the teachers attempted to serve as positive role models, some of them found this overwhelming, resulting in low morale and low levels of commitment to HPS implementation. Studies have found that, often, there is a lack of capability on the part of school staff to address the needs of students, who come from adverse contexts characterised by poverty and trauma, and therefore teachers tend to be reactive rather than proactive in addressing these problems (Themane & Osher, 2014). In contrast, the findings in this study indicate that it is precisely because of the adverse community context that the schools were ready to implement HPS because they could see the potential benefits in creating a more supportive environment for the students, as well as being a means for teachers to fulfil their obligatory roles.

What was encouraging in this study was the various organisations and institutions in the community that the schools could, or did, draw on as resources. These bodies can therefore be regarded as assets in the community for the implementation of HPS. One potential resource that the schools could draw on was that of the parents or carers of the students.

9.2.2 Extent of parental involvement in HPS implementation

The findings in this study reveal that there was minimal parental involvement with HPS, despite attempts to involve them. This study concludes that expectations of parental involvement with, and support for, HPS should not be high as a lack and/or quality of parental involvement is one area of HPS and general school improvement that studies have consistently found challenging (Cassity & Harris, 2000; Clarke et al, 2010; Garcia-Dominic et al., 2010; Inchley et al., 2007). For example, the findings of the present study highlight how the idea of meetings appeared to discourage parents. School meetings seem to have negative connotations for them because being called to a meeting could imply that their child needed discipline. The reluctance of the parents to attend meetings can also be related to the scheduling and duration of, as well as the manner of delivery of those conducting such meetings (Cassity & Harris, 2000; Garcia-Dominic et al., 2010). In this context the positive attitude of school staff can create a welcoming school environment by making parents feel comfortable about being involved with a school. The parents in this study who attended the HPS meetings and workshops enjoyed the interactive nature of the

meetings that the UWC team facilitated. This could be as a result of them feeling empowered by being regarded as equals through their active participation, instead of being passive recipients of information (Garcia-Dominic et al., 2010). However it clear that parent non-involvement was not only about staff attitude.

As far as scheduling of meetings was concerned, even when the UWC team organised meetings or workshops in consultation with students and teachers, at a time that was found to be convenient for most parents, they did not attend. This shows that there were other contextual issues that affected parental involvement. Some of this study's findings relate to constraints as a result of the socio-economic context that is experienced by parents, such as lack of transport, competing demands and lack of childcare facilities, in keeping with the findings of Garcia-Dominic et al. (2010).

In spite of the efforts of the UWC team, it is evident that parental involvement remained limited. This raises the question: Were the UWC team's expectations too high, knowing the history of parental involvement in schools generally and schools in resource-limited areas in particular, and should it have tried harder to involve parents? For example, seeing that this study was conducted in a resource limited community, should incentives such as childcare and transportation, as suggested by Garcia-Dominic et al. (2010) and Hahn, Simpson and Kidd (1996), have been considered in order to encourage and stimulate parental involvement?

Apart from the community and social contexts external to the school, the other external context that impacted on HPS implementation and its integration was found to be the education system.

9.2.3 Influence of the education system

It is stated that policy makers and practitioners within the education system need to be made aware of the benefits of HPS for academic performance (Mohammadi et al., 2010). However, even if the leadership and management of a school clearly see the value of HPS, as this study show, the findings also indicate that a tension can arise between fulfilling the needs of the schools with regard to the welfare of their students, and the demands of the education system. As is evident in this study, these needs and demands are not always aligned, and, given the colonial

history of the education system in SA, integration of HPS might not be a reality. The often unrealistic expectations of the education system as highlighted by the report of Christie et al. (2007) puts pressure on teachers in the poorer schools to deliver at the same level as their counterparts in more privileged schools despite the diversity that exists between schools. The continued effects of the historical colonial education system that persisted post-apartheid thus appears to be failing the development needs of the majority of the nation's children. The implication for HPS is that the status quo makes it difficult for it to be implemented holistically within the current education system in South Africa.

The findings of this study reveal that the hierarchical education system does not lend itself to a whole school approach but focuses on numeracy and literacy skills rather than ensuring that the school as an organisation is geared to develop the students holistically as meaningful citizens even though this was the vision of the schools. In California, it was found that where education policies were prescriptive and tightly controlled, it did not allow teachers to experiment with diversification and alternate forms of instruction (Achinstein & Ogawa, 2006). The authors raised concerns about "... the negative impact of educational reforms that are guided by technical and moralistic control" (Achinstein & Ogawa, 2006). This highlights the typical top down approach within education systems even in developed countries, restricting how HPS can be implemented. On the other hand, it has been found in Denmark that even if teachers attempted to employ participatory and critical learning methods, students were so used to the didactic way of teaching that it was too much effort for students to change to a different way of learning (Nordin, 2016). This can be a reflection of the consequences of the long exposure to the prescriptive policies alluded to by Achinstein & Ogawa (2006). Given that there are similar challenges in South Africa, the implication for HPS is that the likelihood of implementing HPS as whole school approach will also be challenging, even with committed teachers and students.

The current study found limited shared commitment and understanding between the health and education sectors, and consequently inadequate support for HPS. Gugglberger and Inchley (2014), in their study on the effectiveness of HPS in Scotland, found that a factor militating against the integration of HPS was that the education and health sectors had their own way of doing things and each had different terminology for health. HPS literature highlights the

challenge of integrating a health initiative into an education setting, underscored by the difficulty that the education and health sectors have in working together – even though this has been conceded by researchers as important for HPS (Bruce et al., 2012; Deschesnes et al., 2010; St Leger & Nutbeam, 2000; St Leger, Young & Blanchard, 2012; St. Leger, 1998).

The difficulty of working in partnership and with full participation of different partners in a school setting has been emphasised in this study. The findings indicate that in school settings the voice of the education sector is more dominant than of those attempting to implement HPS from the health sector, even though they are meant to work together. They might have a similar goal of the healthy development of students, but their strategies usually differ because they come from different perspectives. Extensive work needs to take place to reach consensus on reaching the goal (Deschesnes et al., 2010; Stokes & Mukerjee, 2000). This often takes a long time and therefore might be not realistic given the time constraints of teachers and others tasked with implementing HPS.

In SA it is the responsibility of the health sector to implement HPS in schools, which means working in a different setting to their own sector, which in itself can be a challenge as indicated in the study by Mohlabi, Van Aswegen and Mokoena (2010) in the context of SA. That study found that resistance to school health services was due to the limited knowledge of both health and education sectors of the HPS concept, which was meant to be a vehicle for school health service delivery. With the South African DoH's introduction of school health as one of the priority areas for its recent Re-engineering of Primary Health Care initiative, a better understanding of the school health policy and, by implication, HPS, has the potential to reduce the resistance of schools to initiatives that improve health. In contrast to the current study, Hoyle et al. (2008) found that HPS implementation and sustainability in the Pueblo, Colorado, school district, was possible because of the support from the district. There was a shared vision, understanding of HPS, and commitment on the part of both the health and education sectors.

The UWC team had included plans of working with the education district as one aspect of the implementation process and integration of HPS, as advocated in the settings approach (Gleddie & Hobin, 2011). Even though the team knew who the individuals who had power and influence

in the district were and used language familiar to them, as suggested by Richardson (2007), it still proved to be difficult for the team to involve the district strategically in HPS. The district seemed to have a “let it happen” attitude as described by Deschesnes et al. (2010), whereas the team had the viewpoint of “make it happen”, which meant active involvement. These different viewpoints imply a tension in the implementation process which impacted on HPS implementation, integration and sustainability.

Gleddie and Hobin (2011, p. 39) assert that communicating evidence of the positive influence of HPS to the district can “... operate as a catalyst for embedding health promoting policy and practices within the school and division [district] culture”. Although attempts were made by the UWC team to do this, there was little evidence of continued support from the education district in terms of embedding it into policy. Some of the participants in this study argued that if HPS was mandated by the DoE, the district and schools would have to comply and facilitate the integration of HPS. In keeping with this argument, Hoyle et al. (2008, p. 6) maintain that in HPS: “... policies often provide the top-down support and reinforcement that is needed to encourage behaviour change of the system as well as individuals within the system”, highlighting the important role that policy emanating from the education sector can play in the implementation, integration and sustainability of HPS. Despite the minimal involvement and support, the findings of this current study indicate that the support of the district was still deemed important especially in terms of financial support and human resources.

In summary, the findings with regard to the external context supports systems thinking, which posits that what happens in one part of the system, (the community and the district) will influence what happens in another part of the system (the school). It is evident that the adverse community context and social norms that the students and schools were exposed to influenced the school context through negative student attitudes and behaviour, and limited parental involvement. This in turn influenced other factors, such as the level of student and teacher participation in HPS implementation. In addition, the limited support from the district hindered the implementation climate of HPS in this study and thus its integration because the limited support has implications for the complexity of the implementation of HPS. In keeping with the

settings approach, HPS relies on the multiple levels of the education system as well as on the health sector amongst others for successful integration adding to its complexity (Gleddie, 2012).

The main factors influencing integration of HPS are discussed further in the following section.

9.3 INTEGRATION OF HPS AS A WHOLE-SCHOOL APPROACH

Integration of innovations in schools is defined as the extent to which an innovation is or becomes part of the school operations as a result of how widespread and enthusiastically it is adopted (Payne, Gottfredson & Gottfredson, 2006) and the extent to which it manifests itself in the routines, structures and practices of the school (Berson, Nemanich, Waldman, Galvin & Keller, 2006). However, the findings in the current study indicate that the nature and extent of HPS integration seems to have been dependent on various contextual factors, such as the external influences, discussed in the previous section. However, the main findings in this study are related to the internal school contextual factors that influenced integration of HPS and explored how the complexity of these factors impacted differently on the three schools. The main factors that emerged included the various actors' understanding of the HPS approach, the role and support of leadership and management, including the championing of HPS, and the availability of resources, which is similar to the findings of Adamowitsch, Gugglberger and Dür (2014). As the level of integration was found to be an important element in this study, a more detailed discussion of the different factors influencing integration follows.

9.3.1 Understanding and perceptions of the HPS concept

The HPS concept needs to be understood within the limits of the broader education system context, so that schools can make a judgement about whether it will be realistic or not for them to implement. When applying Atun, de Jongh, Secci, Ohiri and Adeyi's (2010) conceptual framework of the integration of targeted health interventions into health systems to the school system, the perceived benefits, values and complexity of health innovations (the schools' readiness for change and the values-innovations fit) will influence the speed and extent of integration into the school system. The perceptions of an organisation's key actors will differ and are influenced by how the innovation is presented to them, how it fits with the values of the

organisation, and its compatibility and adaptability with the organisation's aims (Durlak & DuPre, 2008), its personal benefits and the "legitimacy" of the innovation (Atun et al., 2010, p. 108). In the integration of the HPS process into the normal functioning of a school, these perceptions can be influenced by how the various actors understand the HPS concept. In this study one of the important roles of the UWC team, as the initiator of the HPS concept, was to see that the concept was understood and implemented in a way that best suited the school and the implementers (mainly teachers and students in this study). The reason for this is that, as mentioned above, the health and education sectors do not always have a common understanding of what the concept means (Deschesnes et al., 2010; Mohammadi et al., 2010; St Leger, 1998; Testa, 2012). The lack of common understanding between the two sectors is one of the reasons that these sectors might find it difficult to work together.

This study reveals how the team assisted the actors at the different levels of the school system to identify the link between what the schools were already doing and the HPS approach. It was found that, where links to existing practices and processes were perceived, it was easier to integrate new initiatives such as HPS (Inchley et al., 2007). In the current study, seeing the links increased the schools' readiness for change, although this understanding was not sufficient for the schools to achieve full integration of HPS. The indication here is that, while some in the schools were starting to identify specific activities that they linked with HPS, not everybody at the different levels of the school system seemed to fully understand HPS in terms of a whole-school approach, which had implications for the integration of HPS. For example, how the principals view and understand HPS, and the extent to which they take responsibility for it, are likely to influence both the school's readiness for change and the implementation climate, which, in turn, can influence the nature of HPS integration. This responsibility, however, could mean an additional load for principals if they do not fully understand the HPS approach and its benefits, or the ways in which it can be integrated into the normal functioning of the school.

One factor that poses a challenge for the integration of HPS is the complex nature of HPS (Kremser (2011), as confirmed by Deschesnes et al. (2014, p. 209):

Because of its multifaceted, integrated and concerted nature, the HS [Healthy Schools] approach is inherently complex from a practical

point of view and is a challenge with regard to its absorption within the core business of schools.

According to Atun et al. (2010, p. 107), innovations that are “less complex” are perceived to be easier to standardise and replicate than “complex” innovations. Therefore, if HPS is perceived by the various actors as being complex, it might be more difficult to integrate into schools that are already overburdened with delivering the curriculum and performance demands, as well as other demands from the education sector for continuous changes, as was the case in this study.

It can be concluded from the findings of this study that a more concerted effort should have been made with the school community and the district to increase their understanding of the HPS approach, and its benefits, given these actors’ potential roles in the integration of HPS as a whole-school approach. However, the findings indicate that even if there is understanding of HPS and its benefits, there are internal contextual factors that also influence integration. One of these factors is the collaboration and cooperation in the school.

9.3.2 Collaboration and cooperation in the school

Axelsson and Axelsson (2006) argue that the organisational context influences the integration of initiatives and that for integration to be effective, a high degree of collaboration with and cooperation from various actors in that organisation is required. Secondary schools “can be fragmented organizations with social divisions” (Bond et al., 2001, p. 378) that are characterised by vast differentiations with different subject teachers and departments, each with their own heads (May, 2007; Rowling, 1996). This usually leads to a delineation of roles and responsibilities, which can hinder an initiative such as HPS which, with its focus on collaboration and cooperation, needs to be integrated into the routine functioning of the school. In the implementation of innovations, shared decision-making can facilitate integration, which is made easier if there is collaboration and cooperation from the various actors in the process (Durlak & DuPre, 2008).

In the current study, in the schools where there was a culture of collaboration, cooperation and commitment in the schools, integration was possible to some extent. While the HPS teachers were able to draw on their peers and also on students during HPS implementation, the extent to

which this was possible depended on the existing relationships and also on those that were built in the process. Inchley et al. (2007) found that where relationships were built during the implementation of HPS, there was better integration, especially in developing a sense of common purpose. This was most apparent at School B, where the teachers worked as a team to implement HPS, which most likely led to better integration. Studies such as that by Bond et al. (2001) recommend that, in addition to education on how to implement HPS activities just as the UWC team did, the capacity of the teachers also has to be built to be able to encourage and gain support from, and work in collaboration with, their peers and other actors to cope with the dynamics of relationships. However, the current study revealed that capacity building of the teachers in this regard happened only to a limited degree. This suggests that if more capacity building had taken place, especially in the context of the inherently poor relationship dynamics in School C, there might have been a chance of improved relationships amongst teachers, which could have meant better support for the lead teacher and the HPS group at the school, and thus better integration.

The findings in an HPS study conducted by Wyllie et al., (2000) indicate that where there was a school ethos consistent with HPS, such as a culture of collaboration and consultation, the principal was not only supportive but was also directly involved. In the current study there was a culture of collaboration and cooperation amongst some of the teachers in all three schools to some extent, especially those who were directly involved with HPS. In addition, at School A the principal's relationship with the teachers was characterised by openness and regular communication with the staff. This openness likely resulted in their cooperation and collaboration, even amongst those who were not directly involved, as it pervaded the culture of the school. It seems that where there was a culture of collegiality it was strong enough to overcome the principal's lack of involvement at an operational level, which helped to create a conducive implementation climate at the school.

The teachers directly involved with HPS at School B were able to implement HPS as a team because there was strong peer support and cohesion amongst them (even if this was not forthcoming from other staff members) as well as a history of working together, despite the autocratic leadership style of the principal. This illustrates the power that peers can exercise in

supporting one another, despite difficulties brought about by the leadership style of the principal. However, where there is a combination of an autocratic leadership style of the principal and a lack of interest and commitment by many of the teachers, as in School C, the challenge to achieve integration is greater because of the resultant limited collaboration and cooperation, as borne out by the findings of a study conducted in Norway by Tjomsland et al. (2009).

9.3.3 Leadership and management influence on integration

Based on the findings of this study and on the literature, I argue that the principals in their role as leaders and managers of the schools are in a strategic position to facilitate the implementation, integration and sustainability of HPS. The findings of the current study clearly reveal that, even if there is some progress in the implementation and integration process as a result of others in the school supporting HPS, if the principal is not supportive, implementation will be challenging. What can be achieved is specifically linked to HPS being a whole-school approach and therefore requiring support from all levels of the school system, including school leadership and management (Wyllie et al., 2000). The principals, through their leadership and management strategies, will be able to influence the different organisational factors and the way these interact, and this could impact on the implementation climate and the subsequent effectiveness of HPS implementation.

However, considering the history of SA and the inequities that continue to exist within the education system, the principal's role needs to be viewed in relation to the specific context in which they have to work (Christie, 2010). The historical and socio-economic contexts can be a determining factor in the leadership style, and also in what they have the capacity to do through their leadership and management strategies (Larsen & Samdal, 2008), which will in turn determine the school's readiness for change. Thus, different contexts require different strategies for effective implementation of HPS. This section is categorised as follows: influence of the principal on the school context; principals' role in supporting policy for HPS implementation; influence of principals' leadership style on their role in HPS implementation; principals' role in building relationships for HPS integration; and influence of school management structures on integration.

9.3.3.1 Influence of the principal on the school context

When looking at HPS integration from a systems perspective, the findings reveal that there were external and internal contextual factors, as noted before, which influenced the nature of the principals' support for HPS in this study. Furthermore, because schools as organisations are complex by nature, with their own subsystems (Keshavarz et al., 2010), the principals relationship with these subsystems, together with their personal characteristics and leadership style, influenced the level of HPS integration within the school as a whole-school approach.

None of the principals in this study played a major role in the integration of HPS into their schools despite their status, which carries with it taking responsibility for change processes and transformation within their schools. Education, leadership and HPS literature emphasise the principals' role as that of communicating a shared vision over time and giving direction for any change processes in the school (Larsen & Samdal, 2008; Fullan, 2001; Berson et al., 2006) as well as being "proactive in the pursuit of that vision" (Masitsa, 2005, p. 213), thus implying the active role that principals need to play. Hoyle et al. (2008) suggest that, in a hierarchal system such as in a school, leaders need to encourage and facilitate building the capabilities of staff and those who are targeted for the initiative in order for them to be empowered and to take ownership of the change process. Furthermore, leaders can facilitate the transformation of an organisational context that encourages and nurtures creativity of its members. Building on Fullan's (2001) argument, Berson et al. (2006, p. 585) suggest that the leader can do so by:

... loosening leader control and creating a safe and supportive environment where people feel that they can take risks, make mistakes, create dialogue and be supported in a manner that is necessary for learning to occur.

Studies have found that in order for teachers to be committed to initiatives such as HPS, the principal has to play a supportive role – not only providing direction, but also being proactive in integrating the programme into the formal policies and processes of the school (Berson et al., 2006; Larsen & Samdal, 2008; Payne et al., 2006). In this way, as implementation progresses and builds momentum, teachers and the rest of school management can feel greater ownership and believe that their efforts will lead to positive change in the long term (Inchley et al., 2007). In doing so, a positive implementation climate for HPS can be created, leading to a better chance of

it being integrated because of the likelihood of it manifesting as implementation effectiveness. Alternately, if effectiveness is evident then there is more potential for integration because it will serve as encouragement for others to also become involved (Berson et al., 2006).

The findings in the current study indicate that, in certain instances, leadership and management influenced policies, practices and structures that supported HPS. For example, the policy stipulating that students must participate in, and teachers must take responsibility for, a particular co-curricular activity. However, this does not necessarily mean that HPS was integrated as a whole-school approach; rather, it acted as support for certain discrete co-curricular activities which were regarded as health promoting activities. The findings reveal that none of the principals took on the responsibility of seeing that HPS was integrated as a whole-school approach. If HPS is seen by the principals in terms of a whole-school approach, they will take more responsibility for ensuring that it is integrated into the policies and formal curriculum (Berson et al., 2006). However, this responsibility involves creating a culture for change, which takes time and is an on-going process (Berson et al., 2006). Studies have shown that where there is lack of ownership by the school leadership, there is lack of support for HPS implementation (Berson et al., 2006), which can impact negatively on integration. This was pronounced in School C in this study which in turn can be linked to lack of understanding of the HPS approach.

9.3.3.2 Principals' role in supporting policy for HPS implementation

One possible way of creating a culture of change is by having a specific HPS policy, as was suggested in this study. However, none of the principals participating in the current study deemed it necessary to have a specific HPS policy, thus making it difficult for HPS implementation and integration as a whole-school approach. Having a specific HPS policy would make it mandatory for all teachers to participate in the implementation of HPS which would enhance integration at the whole-school level, as was found to be the case in a study conducted in Norway by Larsen and Samdal (2008). This would mean the involvement of the rest of the teachers and not only those who volunteered out of interest or conviction, as was the case in this study. This voluntary participation model can be compared to the “passive model” of health promotion as defined by Whitelaw et al. (2001, p. 343):

... the setting is seen as a neutral and passive vehicle that simply offers access to populations and favourable circumstances to undertake a range of individually focussed health promotion activities

This model does not encourage integration as a whole-school approach but rather encourages discrete activities. The findings of the current study show that there was no universal buy-in because HPS was regarded as just an additional “club” with discrete activities that not everybody saw the need to belong to. This attitude reflects a limited understanding of the HPS approach on the part of teachers, and also suggests a lack of leadership direction. If HPS is seen as another club, or discrete activity, the commitment of teachers towards HPS might not be high, as it would be seen as the sole responsibility of the teacher in charge of the club to oversee it and acquire resources with little need for collaboration. Regarding HPS as a club can be seen as contrary to the holistic HPS ethos and is adverse to its full integration. In this study, the school participants often referred to a list of activities as being HPS, which suggests that they did not truly regard it as whole-school approach and reflects their limited understanding of HPS.

The findings of the current study indicate that the principals across the schools failed to fulfil their strategic roles adequately. None of them appeared to be providing direction or encouraging the sharing of ideas on how HPS could be implemented and integrated, or had a sustained focus on HPS – all of which would have been realised if an HPS policy had existed and was being implemented. Thus HPS did not become part of the schools’ formal agendas or an integral part of the functioning of the schools. On the other hand, Larsen and Samdal's (2008) study of a programme promoting social competence and preventing violence in school children in primary schools in Norway, found that even if an HPS policy did exist, it was not sufficient to integrate and sustain HPS as support from the principal, follow-up, and an on-going focus on HPS were also necessary. All this ensured that HPS became part of the formal curriculum and school policy, and thus was mandatory for all teachers. None of this was found to be the case in any of the schools in the current study, highlighting the adverse context for full HPS integration and indicating how indispensable the principal’s support is for the integration and sustainability of HPS.

9.3.3.3 Influence of principals' leadership style on their role in HPS implementation

The principals' different leadership styles in the current study appeared to have influenced the nature of integration of HPS as a manifestation of the HPS implementation climate. Goleman (2000) describes six leadership styles ranging from coercive ("Do what I tell you") to coaching ("Try this"). The author, however, argues that in order to create a positive organisational climate, the leader needs to be flexible enough to be able to move between these different leadership styles, depending on the situation. Thus, according to this argument the organisational context can be seen as a reflection of the leadership style within the organisation at any given time.

Each of the principals in the current study showed a different leadership style. The principal at School A gave moral support to his staff but played no part at an operational level to implement HPS. He had a distributed and democratic leadership style (Goleman, 2000) which made the teachers feel empowered with a degree of autonomy in their decision-making. This style of leadership, in terms of the HPS implementation process, was a combination of bottom-up and top-down approaches, with the teachers being involved at an operational level with some decision-making powers, while the principal's role was more strategic given his power and influence over resources, structures and policies. This contributed an enabling implementation climate for HPS integration. This combination of top-down and bottom-up approaches is recommended by Larsen and Samdal (2008) for effective HPS implementation and integration.

Goleman (2000), in his discussion on effective organisational leadership styles, sees a bottom-up approach on its own as posing some adversity, as there might not be enough support or "clout" to facilitate implementation. This was the case at School C where the lead teacher on her own had difficulty in integrating HPS because of the lack of support from leadership and management. Goleman (2000) also sees the use of a top-down approach on its own (which is a predominantly coercive style of leadership), as was the case in School B, as not being feasible, as it tends to create a negative implementation climate, which has implications for integration. Therefore, ideally, a combination of the two approaches is needed for effective implementation (Larsen & Samdal, 2008). By implication, HPS implementation will therefore require consistent

commitment and communication from the principals in their strategic position, and also the commitment of teachers and students at the operational level.

To support this combined approach, in a study on a principals' role in restoring a learning culture in township secondary schools in Free State, SA, it was found that principals of effective schools had participatory management styles, whereby they delegated responsibility and gave, or shared power with, others in the school (Masitsa, 2005). At School A, although there was some level of support from the principal, the HPS group was left very much to its own devices although the principal was always kept informed about the HPS plans and what the HPS group had accomplished. This information sharing implies accountability, and is a reflection of Masitsa's (2005) participatory management style. This situation could be the result of his democratic leadership style and also the fact that he had confidence in the lead teacher's ability to carry out the tasks without his direction. Alternately, it could simply be that his focus was on the academic programme because of pressure from the DoE. Despite his democratic leadership style and receptiveness to new ideas, this principal always prioritised the school's academic needs and the safety of students over the needs of the HPS group. This priority can be seen as health promoting in its own right and, if HPS was regarded as a whole-school approach, it would not be a challenge. However, the principal possibly saw HPS as posing a threat because, like the other principals in this study, it was mostly perceived as an "add-on" which could take attention and time away from the "normal" functioning of the school.

The only time that the principal of School A seemed to be actively or directly engaged was when he did not approve of something that was planned by the HPS group. This shows the positional power that he had in the school, which could override any decision made by others (Leithwood & Riehl, 2005). Principals' decisions can be influenced by their sense of responsibility and accountability towards the school, which can mean that even if there is a democratic leadership style in the school, they still have the final decision-making power. This is indicative of the power they have in the school due to its hierarchical power structure. It is important to note that where principals use their power to override decision-making, it can be demoralising for staff members and create a negative implementation climate, as was the case when the principal at School A refused permission for the talent contest planned by the HPS group. The principal's

leadership style in this situation would lean towards the coercive leadership style (Goleman, 2008) showing how the principal of School A moved between democratic and coercive leadership styles.

A coercive leadership style was also evident in Schools B and C, where the principals' autocratic leadership styles clearly had a negative impact on some teachers' levels of commitment to their work generally, which in turn negatively influenced their relationships with the other teachers and with the students. This situation mirrored Kremser's (2011) Austrian study findings that were related to organisational influences on HPS implementation. Those findings indicated that where there were low levels of trust, cooperation and support from staff including from leadership, HPS efforts also suffered. Furthermore, previous studies on HPS implementation have found an autocratic leadership style to be a challenge for HPS integration as it does not encourage buy-in from, ownership of, or the empowerment of others in the school. In the context of a whole-school approach this reduces HPS effectiveness (Huang, Yeh, Tseng, Chen, Hwu & Dah-shyong, 2009; Kremser, 2011; Wyllie et al., 2000).

What is interesting about the current study is that, although the leadership style of the principal of School B could be described as autocratic, he played a more active role than the principals of the other two schools as implementation progressed. He did this by not only supporting the HPS group in terms of giving time for HPS to take place during school hours, but also personally initiated activities and interventions related to HPS. However, he did so in many instances without consulting the HPS group, which indicated his tendency to act as an autocratic leader rather than being a team player, which did not encourage relationship building (Huang et al., 2009) and caused some teachers to feel disempowered and demoralised about their HPS work. This suggests that the conflict between the principal and some of the teachers, which existed before HPS was initiated in School B, was not conducive to the school's readiness for change. Some teachers were not motivated to become involved, or lacked sense of ownership unless there were other contributing factors, such as strong commitment to the students (as was the case in all three schools) and/or good support from peers (as was the case in Schools A and B, albeit to varying degrees).

The findings of the current study indicate that many of the participants wanted their principals to be more actively involved, claiming this would have given HPS more status and would have encouraged involvement from more staff members, thereby positively influencing the HPS integration process. This view echoes those of participants in another study that was conducted in Norway, who felt that principals should lead the HPS programme because of their responsibility for school structures and resources, which could be directed towards HPS-related activities. That study found that even though the principal might not be involved at an operational level, he or she was in a position as leader to motivate and get staff involved and thus accord HPS more status (Viig et al., 2012). In the current study the principal at School B used his influence as leader to ask some teachers to assist with HPS when needed, which contributed to a positive implementation climate.

However, the findings of the present study reveal that none of the principals were active members of the HPS groups at their respective schools even where the leadership style was meant to be more democratic. In line with the top-down/bottom-up approach of the settings approach, various studies recommend that instead of merely being an individual at the head of a school, a principal should be part of a team made up of members of the school community, be flexible in terms of their needs, and acknowledge the roles that others can play in the life of the school (Anderson & Ronson, 2005; Wyllie et al., 2000). Anderson and Ronson (2005, p. 31) argue that the role of the principal:

... in an empowering school is as facilitator rather than a despot, the leader of a team of staff rather than the apex of a rigid hierarchy, a team that genuinely collaborates with pupils and parents in the running of the school, is responsive to their needs and wants, and attempts to create a sense of common ownership of the school's processes, policies and decisions.

Thus, according to the above view, the principal should be a democratic leader and actively participate in the HPS group to provide support, guidance and encouragement (Payne et al., 2006). Nonetheless, in the current study, the lack of participation of the principals in the HPS groups at their schools is not necessarily a reflection of their leadership style and lack of commitment to or support of HPS, but could be a result of the DoE's demands for academic

performance, which would override any other commitment that the principal might have. However, this also suggests that they did not have a full understanding of the potential that the HPS approach has - for example, facilitating the learning process of students by creating an enabling environment and in this way increasing the school's academic performance.

9.3.3.4 Principals' role in building relationships for HPS integration

The principals' leadership style will be reflected in the relationships that they have, not only with those internal to the school but also with external agents, because a principal is perceived to have networks with external actors and agencies that can serve as additional support for effective implementation and integration (Wyllie et al., 2000). According to the settings approach, and as evident from the findings of the current study, positive interactions and good communication between the different actors in a system are necessary for integrating HPS. As indicated earlier, this suggests that the principal has to establish shared understanding of the process and commitment through open communication across the school system. Fullan's (2001, p. 5) assertion that "leaders must be relationship builders with diverse people and groups" confirms that principals, in their capacity as leaders, should be able to develop networks and build relationships with both external and internal actors, and that this is essential for HPS implementation, especially in terms of the acquisition of resources. However, the nature of the relationships at the three schools in this study determined to what extent open communication and shared understanding of HPS occurred, which was clearly not the case at School C, applied to a limited degree at Schools A and B in terms of HPS. The current study shows that even if teachers and principal have been at the school for a long period of time, it does not necessarily mean that they work well together and have good relationships. This was evident from the findings at School C where, even though the principal and majority of teachers had been at the school for many years, the school climate and culture was characterised by a lack of teamwork, both amongst the teachers and students, and shown by the principal's ineffective communication with the staff and students. There was no sense of cohesive working amongst most teachers; they did only what was strictly required of them. This was an indication that they were not prepared to be involved in anything outside of their assigned roles. This way of working indicates a lack of communication, no shared decision-making, and minimal cooperation and collaboration between

the principal, teachers and students, all of which are important for HPS integration and implementation effectiveness.

The literature shows that school principals' relationship with others can be influenced by their personal characteristics, which in turn can influence change processes that are necessary for the development of schools (Fullan, 2001) and HPS (Lahiff, 2000). In line with the findings of Berson et al. (2006) and Anderson & Ronson (2005), the current study reveals how the principals' personal characteristics, particularly their social skills, influenced their ability to communicate with the teachers and students and build relationships - a crucial factor in the facilitation of change processes in schools. In comparison to School A, the principals of Schools B and C displayed few social skills. The principal of School B seemed more comfortable communicating with his senior than his junior teachers. His perceived non-caring façade can also be seen as a reflection of his relatively weak social skills. However, although a challenging process, trust was slowly built between the HPS teachers and the principal at this school because the principal saw the changes and benefits that HPS was bringing about. As this trust was built, the teachers were able to gain his support for further HPS practices and processes. In contrast, at School C the first principal's limited social skills manifested in the school facilitator's difficulty in securing a meeting with him, and also in his lack of communication with his staff members. This meant that the implementation climate at School C was challenging. On the other hand, the second (acting) principal at School C might have been more supportive, but the teachers' lack of trust in him suggests that the implementation climate remained uncondusive. This shows the importance of open communication and transparency in order for trust to be built and relationships to be improved – crucial to an implementation and integration climate.

In addition, relationship building is important for the participatory practices and processes of HPS. Deschesnes et al. (2014) argue that, as leader, the principal should have the ability to mobilise staff in change efforts for HPS. Similarly, Fullan (2001) posits that the principal should be able to mobilise school members not only to do specific activities, but also to commit to the change processes that are necessary for integration. Although the principal of School A had the ability to mobilise staff, he left it to the lead teacher to do, which suggests that either he did not take responsibility for HPS or, being a democratic leader, he had confidence in the lead teacher

to take full responsibility for HPS implementation. This delegation of responsibility could be as a result of the principal's numerous responsibilities in the school and his accountability to the DoE. However, if HPS was more effectively integrated, responsibility for it would have been distributed more equally. At School B the principal engaged in mobilising teachers once he started seeing the benefits of HPS, indicating that he was starting to take some responsibility for HPS. On the other hand, the first principal at School C did not mobilise the staff at all – probably due to his limited social skills. This inability to mobilise staff was detrimental to the school's readiness for change as, apart from the three HPS teachers and the secretary, the rest of the staff members showed no interest in HPS.

Furthermore, at all three schools the principals' inclusivity of the students in change processes in the school was not as evident as it should have been in order to comply with the settings approach. This could be because of the hierarchical nature of the school system, with the principals interacting only with the teachers and the teachers in turn interacting with the students. Studies such as that done by Bryan et al. (2007) in urban schools have shown that the hierarchical, bureaucratic structures of the public school system make it difficult for organisational change that can sustain an innovation.

Because leadership in a culture of change is difficult (Fullan, 2001), the wisdom of a principal being the main focus of knowledge and having power as leader has been disputed (Wright, 2009). Fullan (2001) argues that the placement of this responsibility on and having high expectations of a principal as leader and manager can place the principal in an untenable position. The findings in this study indicate that despite the strategic role that principals can play in, and the influence they can have on, the implementation of HPS, if everything else is in place for integration this process does not have to be totally reliant on the principal. There are other school management structures that can also influence HPS integration.

9.3.3.5 Influence of school management structures on integration

Apart from the principal, school management structures at the schools in the current study influenced HPS integration. It is evident from the findings that due to its decision-making powers, the teachers saw the SMT as a management structure capable of positively influencing

the integration of HPS. A situation in which the HPS group has little or no influence on the SMT highlights the hierarchical power structure within the school system, and how the different levels of the system can influence one another – although, in the case of the current study, in a unidirectional way. Therefore, even if teachers and students are committed to HPS implementation, they will find it challenging if they do not have support from those in the higher echelons of leadership and management structures. These structures have power and influence in the school system and are responsible for the allocation of resources and the infrastructure of the schools - all important for the implementation and integration of HPS.

At Schools A and C the HPS group was represented on the SMT, which suggests that they could have some influence at management level. On the other hand, at School B there was no HPS representation because the teachers involved were all junior, making it difficult to convey information or put HPS issues on the school agenda. This meant that the HPS group had limited influence with the SMT. However, as the implementation of HPS progressed the HPS teachers at School B developed a more amenable relationship with the principal, which meant being able to have more influence with him being a member of the SMT. In contrast, the lead teacher at School C, although being Head of Department for LO and a member of the SMT, and thus being the means for HPS to be represented on the SMT, did not seem to have much influence at that level. This could have been due to the low level of leadership and management support for HPS at the school. If HPS had been accorded status it would have been on the regular agenda of the SMT.

Despite minimal or no representation on the SMT, some infrastructure improvements, such as the upgrade of toilets, were effected at all three schools as a result of the efforts of the HPS groups. This suggests that these groups were able to influence management structures to some extent and through some means or the other. One of these efforts was through the role that the lead teachers played in HPS implementation and integration.

9.3.4 Lead teachers as champions and internal catalysts for change

The lead teachers can also be considered for leadership in HPS. While the principal is the organisational leader, the champion of HPS will have a different role - that of operational leader,

and will therefore be regarded as having an equal, if not more important, role than the principal in the implementation of HPS. This suggests that a champion can be the internal catalyst for change. The important role of the champion is highlighted in a study in Canada by Wright (2009) which found that, even where the principal showed weak leadership, the champion was able to compensate, mainly because she or he had been the HPS champion for several years.

The findings in this study highlight the importance of the lead teachers as champions for HPS integration at the respective schools, and support the findings of Inchley et al. (2007), Bryan et al. (2007), Lucarelli et al. (2014) and Wyllie et al. (2000), who found that champion teachers are key to HPS implementation. Markham and Aiman-Smith (2001) see the role of champions in implementing a change process as key for effective implementation as they can create a supportive climate for integration, with their vision, passion, commitment and motivation.

The main findings that emerged from the current study relating to the lead teachers as champions are categorised into: the school contextual factors that influenced their champion roles; the influence of their characteristics and capabilities on the implementation and integration process; and the influence of their leadership styles on their relationships with the HPS students.

9.3.4.1 School contextual factors influencing champion leadership

It has been noted in the literature that the effects of charismatic leadership can be positively or negatively influenced by the organisational context (Choi, 2006; Pawar & Eastman, 1997; Shamir & Howell, 1999). It is evident from the current study, that although the lead teacher in School A was given sufficient freedom by the principal to plan, make decisions and influence the students and teachers, she was constrained because of her accountability to the principal.

Although all organisations need some form of accountability to leadership and management structures so that they can function effectively, this does suggest that certain conditions imposed by the leadership can challenge the role of the champion. This was found in School A when the plan for the talent show that had been organised by the lead teacher and the HPS students was overturned by the principal. This finding is supported by Choi (2006), who highlights the extent to which the organisational system influences how much leeway the charismatic leaders as champions can have to influence their followers.

As has been noted in the current study's findings, the reality of academic priorities also pose a challenge in terms of what the champion is able to do and achieve for HPS implementation including integration. In their study of rural schools in a US state, Winnail, Bartee and Kaste (2005) found that the teachers who also served as school health coordinators (and by implication, champions) spent most of their time on their primary teaching responsibilities rather than on coordinating the school's health programme. This highlights the paradox that the champion teachers in the present study faced when trying to address the well-being of students and at the same time seeing that they performed well academically. While both of these functions are important for HPS, they often appear to be at odds. The challenge facing the HPS champion, in terms of implementation and integration, is therefore to ensure a balance between the needs of the students and those of the education system, as well as the need to be flexible. The findings of both the current study and that of Winnail et al. (2005) indicate that this would have been more effectively achieved if a whole school approach had been adopted, as more effort would have been made to integrate HPS into the way the schools functioned.

Another factor in the school context that emerged from the current study is the nature of the relationships that the champions had with their peers. The lead teachers had the ability to network with others in the school, in order to obtain assistance or access resources. However, the level of cooperation and collaboration for the integration of HPS implementation was determined by, amongst other factors, the kinds of relationships that the lead teachers had with their peers. One way of demonstrating cooperation and collaboration is through the sharing of responsibilities for HPS (Inchley et al., 2007; Wylie et al., 2000). The findings of the current study reveal that this approach was most successful in School B, where the lead teacher was able to work effectively with a core group of teachers on HPS, because the responsibilities were distributed relatively evenly. This is in keeping with a study on champions in which the authors argue that this is only possible in organisations where established relationships already exist (Damschroder et al., 2009).

In the current study, relationships with peers seemed to have been influenced by the leadership style of the lead teachers. The findings indicated that the lead teacher at School A had a directive leadership style, even when other teachers cooperated, which seemed to be because they were

asked or told to so by the lead teacher. This directive leadership style can be indicative of her personal characteristics and possibly her age (she was older than many of the other teachers) rather than the school climate and culture, which was conducive to partnerships working. Even though this lead teacher at School A was able to gain the cooperation of some of the teachers, she had difficulty in delegating responsibilities for HPS to them. This implies that she needed to be the one in control - a factor that could have led to the teachers feeling disempowered, which had negative implications for integration. A recent study conducted in Sweden by Ingemarson et al. (2014) on teachers' and principals' perceptions of organisational capacity in implementing a school-wide prevention programme, found that teachers can be reluctant to be led by their peers because of the hierarchical nature of the school system. As these teachers saw themselves as equals and not as subordinates, they did not want to be forced into depending on the lead teacher - a situation that can be created by charismatic leadership (Barbuto, 1997). This could have been one of the reasons that more teachers did not want to be directly involved with HPS at School A.

Charismatic leadership is characterised by the leader requiring and having subordinates or followers rather than equals, and therefore it might have been easier for the lead teachers in this study to be charismatic leaders with the students than with their teachers and peers. Students on the whole are used to being subordinate to their teachers in the school system's hierarchical nature (Damschroder et al., 2009; Sankowsky, 1995) Therefore, in working with peers, a coaching leadership style for the lead teachers, one which is characterised by mutual trust and open communication with exchange of ideas (Ingemarson et al., 2014; Goleman, 2000), such as at School B, might have been a better option to enhance integration. However, this was difficult to achieve at the other two schools because of several other factors that influenced how the lead teachers were able to champion the implementation process.

The findings in this study reveal that the lead teacher at School C in particular felt more overburdened than the lead teachers at the other two schools during the HPS implementation process which was not conducive for integration. Damschroder et al. (2009) argue that in organisations where there are no functional relations, the champions will find it challenging to implement initiatives that they have to carry out alone, because they can feel overburdened, as was evident in School C. The necessity and value of sharing responsibilities for HPS has been

highlighted in the literature (Inchley et al., 2007), not only in order to prevent burnout of the champion but also in the interests of integration and sustainability should the champion have to leave. In the current study the participants showed concern for the sustainability of HPS should the lead teacher leave, reflecting an over-reliance on the lead teacher. There was an indication that some who were involved in the implementation of HPS did not feel that they had the self-efficacy to integrate and sustain HPS without the champion's leadership. In an evaluation of a pilot HPS in New Zealand, the continuity of school principals and staff was seen to be important as, when key people left the school, it negatively influenced the integration and progress of HPS (Wyllie et al., 2000). However, principals in their role as leader and manager should be able to take responsibility for ensuring the continuity for HPS, as was indicated by the VP and lead teacher of School A. Furthermore, if HPS was better integrated, then the lead teacher would not have all the responsibility for HPS and for delegating, as this would routinely be part of everyone's roles, thereby reducing the burden on the lead teacher and vice versa.

9.3.4.2 Influence of lead teachers' characteristics and capabilities on the integration of HPS

In the current study, the findings revealed that the characteristics of the lead teachers seemed to have had an influence on their role as champions. As noted before, the literature argues that a champion needs to have the drive, passion and commitment for an innovation to be effective (McIsaac et al., 2013), especially given the time demands of effective and sustainable HPS integration (Damschroder et al., 2009; Wyllie et al., 2000). In reflecting on the lead teachers as champions of HPS implementation in the current study, it is obvious that, initially, across the schools, they had what Fullan (2001, p. 7) describe as the "energy-enthusiasm-hopefulness constellation", because their readiness for change was high. They voluntarily took responsibility for driving the implementation of HPS and were able to multi-task, a further indication of their readiness for change. However, as time progressed, this seemed to change at the different schools. At Schools A and B the champions were able to maintain their energy-enthusiasm-hopefulness, whereas at School C the lead teacher found her enthusiasm progressively more difficult to maintain due to several factors, including a lack of leadership, management and staff support, as well as work and personal demands on her time. Given these factors, her dedication

and commitment did not seem to be sufficient to maintain her focus on HPS implementation which had negative implications for integration.

The resilience of the lead teachers was influenced by a combination of the different levels and degrees of support that they received from leadership and management, their own characteristics, their personal commitments, and the different relationships that they had with peers and students in their respective schools. This is in keeping with the study by Gu and Day (2007), who examined the role of resilience in teachers' interactions between work and life. Their findings confirmed the "*Interaction* [italics in original] between the internal assets of the individual and the external environment in which the individual lives and grows (or does not grow)" (Gu & Day, 2007, p. 1314). The manifestation of resilience therefore varies from individual to individual, depending on the specific context and how he or she is able to manage the contextual factors in going about his or her work. At School A the on-going resilience of the lead teacher can be attributed to her having previous experience with HPS, having a positive school climate and culture, enjoying support from leadership and peers, and also having good relationships with them and also the students. She had the ability to take control when necessary and was confident in her own abilities, which is characteristic of resilience (Gu & Day, 2007), and which she attributed to her previous management experience. At School B the lead teacher's ability to delegate tasks to peers could have contributed to her resilience. At School C, the main reason for the lead teacher's resilience was her feeling of being encouraged by the positive personal changes that she had seen in the students.

However, even the most resilient individual can succumb to pressures (Gu & Day, 2007), such as with the lead teacher of School C, who lost much of her momentum as a result of unfavourable contextual factors. It is therefore evident that these lead teachers' resilience was not only influenced by their personal characteristics and experience, but also by their context.

9.3.4.3 Influence of the leadership style of the champion teachers on the students and teacher/student relationship

As alluded to in the literature review, a champion is often defined as a charismatic leader who "...has the ability to generate great symbolic power with which to identify. Followers idealise

the leader and develop strong emotional attachments” (Barbuto, 1997, pp. 689-690). The findings of the current study reveal that this definition can apply to the relationships between the champion teachers and the HPS students, because the students across the schools developed special bonds with the lead teachers and looked up to them as leaders. However, it has been posited in the literature that charismatic leaders’ relationships with their followers, although inspirational, are characterised by the blind obedience of their followers and the leader’s dependence on them to work towards a vision and situation where the leader is idolised (Barbuto, 1997; Gu & Day, 2007). This seemed to have been the case in School A. This definition of charismatic leadership can be compared to Howell’s (2005) definition of personalised charismatic leadership. On the other hand, Barbuto (1997) sees transformational leaders as mentors who empower their followers to work independently of them and to work together towards organisational goals. This style of leadership seemed to be more likely in the case of School B and is similar to Howell’s (2005) definition of socialised charismatic leadership. Barbuto (1997) makes a distinction between these two types of leadership, but admits that empirically it is hard to distinguish between them.

The findings of the current study confirm this blurring of the two types of leadership as characterised by the lead teachers, because the champions seemed to move between the two styles depending on the context at the time, as suggested by Goleman (2000). For example, the lead teacher of School A displayed a personalised leadership style because the students were highly dependent on her, idolised her, and did not show much initiative on their own. However, when looking at the lead teachers’ leadership role in terms of motivation of students, which can be characterised by envisioning, empathy and empowerment, the lead teachers of all three schools displayed socialised leadership (Choi, 2006).

The findings indicate that all three lead teachers’ readiness for change was influenced by the vision of improving the health and well-being of their students, which would in turn result in school improvement. This was obvious by the high degree of empathy that they showed towards the students and their social contexts. This finding aligns with one of Choi’s (2006) three core components of motivational theory of charismatic leadership. The empathy component is theorised as “The ability to understand another person’s motives, values, and emotions ...”. Choi

(2006, p. 27) posits that, in displaying empathetic behaviour, charismatic leaders are able to generate trust in their followers, thus building affiliation to the leader and resulting in cooperation and cohesiveness amongst her or his followers as a group (Goleman, 2000). This affiliation was evident all three schools in this study, with regard to the lead teacher/student relationships and what they were able to do as result of these relationships.

However, the findings reveal that there were variations in the influences of the different champions on the students, as was evidenced by the level of empowerment of the students. As indicated earlier, the students at Schools A and C did not take much initiative, suggesting that they did not feel empowered because they lacked self-efficacy and confidence or motivation, which could be as a result of their over-reliance on the lead teacher. This suggests that the charismatic leadership of the HPS champion teachers in this study did not always lead to the empowerment of their students (Sankowsky, 1995). This situation has implications for HPS integration and sustainability if the lead teacher were to leave. The reasons for students not feeling empowered were different for Schools A and C. At School A the directive leadership style of the lead teacher and her wanting or needing to be in control suggests that the students were less empowered to make decisions autonomously, a situation that could hinder HPS implementation. On the other hand, at School C the feeling of student disempowerment could mainly be due to the lead teacher not being able to empower them due to the various contextual factors already described. These findings demonstrate how very different contexts can have similar impacts.

On the other hand, the champion teachers at School B could be regarded as transformative or socialised leaders as the students were able to work independently of them, which suggests that the students were empowered. Choi (2006) posits that being empowered enables students to be active rather than passive participants in the implementation of HPS. Socialised leadership has more potential for better integration and sustainability than personalised leadership, because even if the lead teacher leaves, the students would be motivated to continue, as they have been empowered and motivated to do so. Socialised leadership of the champion in the HPS implementation process can therefore be regarded as developmental by nature (Choi, 2006; Howell, 2005) because it develops the students' self-efficacy and confidence. This enables them

to become activists for change, which in turn is empowering because a conducive implementation climate has been created.

According to Choi (2006), one way of enhancing followers' self-efficacy is through role modelling, where the followers gain confidence by observing the leader. This was evident in this study, when some students wanted to emulate the lead teacher (School A) and the students at School B appeared to be imitating the positive behaviour of the HPS teachers, who worked well together as a team. However, the findings reveal that when teachers have to act as role models for students, it can also be burdensome for the teachers and in turn can negatively influencing the teacher/student relationship. The teachers' motivation and readiness for change can be compromised because of the perception that being involved with HPS would mean more responsibility for them, which they feel may not be manageable. On the other hand, the students who are involved in HPS are likely to benefit much more than the teachers in their HPS collaboration. The findings of this study are evidence of the many inter- and intrapersonal benefits that the students experienced and gained, more so than the teachers.

In summary, it is evident from these findings that contextual factors, especially in the form of support from the different levels of the school system, influenced the extent to which the lead teachers were able to fulfil their roles as champions of HPS, even when they possessed the characteristics of a champion. The nature of the champion's characteristics and leadership styles influenced whether the students felt empowered to implement HPS – depending on whether the champions were directive (School A), collaborative (School B) or simply overwhelmed (School C). The findings further reveal that the power imbalance between the lead teacher and the students played out differently in each school. This can be attributed to the different leadership styles of the lead teachers. Therefore, even though HPS champions can be regarded as internal catalysts for change, as they have the ability to influence the students and bring about change, their scope for doing so varied depending on the internal contexts of the respective schools. This reveals the complexity of implementing HPS in a context where all of the influencing factors are interlinked and can impact on the level and nature of integration.

9.3.5 Resources support for HPS

The findings in this study show that human resources, time and financial resources were necessary for the integration of HPS (although not all equally), in keeping with many other studies (Huang et al., 2009; Leurs, Bessems, Schaalma & de Vries, 2007; Rosas, Case & Tholstrup, 2009; Viig et al., 2010; Weiler et al., 2003). El Ansari and Phillips (2001), in discussing partnerships in communities, see the various resources and skills that the different actors bring to a partnership as being one of its strongest assets. Furthermore, the settings approach advocates that resources at all levels of the setting should be drawn on to facilitate health promotion (Dooris, 2013; Whitelaw et al., 2001). This argument, when applied to the school system, implies that resources at the different levels of can be reorganised according to the needs of a school innovation.

One major difficulty for integration of HPS as identified in the current study, and supported by several other studies, was the issue of time (Flaspohler, Meehan, Maras, & Keller, 2012; Green & Tones, 2000; Hoyle et al., 2008; Inchley et al., 2007; Larsen & Samdal, 2008). At all three schools the teachers did not have sufficient time to dedicate to HPS. However, the fact that two of the principals allowed feedback on HPS to be given at assemblies (Schools A and B) suggests that they were giving some time for HPS. In addition, allowing teachers to be involved in HPS was an indication of the principal making human resources available. However, even though teachers were allowed to be involved, not all of the principals followed this up with further resource support, such as giving the teachers extra time to dedicate to HPS. The findings suggest that where this did not happen, effective HPS integration and implementation was more challenging.

A study by Deschesnes et al. (2010) posits that, if additional resources such as time were not allocated for HPS, teachers would be overloaded and the result would be a negative implementation climate and poor integration. These findings can be an indication not only of what schools see as their priorities, but also of the level of a principal's commitment to enabling the implementation and integration of HPS. However, where academic achievement is the main goal of leadership and management, the reallocation of resources, especially time, could be

problematic if there is a perception that it draws resources away from that goal (Rosas et al., 2009). On the other hand, if HPS is integrated into formal documents, as suggested by Rosas et al. (2009), such as the mandatory SIPs in SA, resources can be distributed more adequately and efficiently, which can avoid duplication and ensure the integration of HPS. Although this inclusion was suggested in this study, and taken up to some extent by some of the lead teachers, because of the negative attitude of some schools to such documents it was not pursued further, which seems like a missed opportunity. However, even when HPS was included in the SIPs, there was no further acknowledgement by or support from the district, which might have been reason not to pursue the matter further. This highlights the challenge of working with the complexity of the SA school system and its multiple levels of influence and different priorities.

In the current study, apart from some teachers integrating aspects of HPS into their curriculum, only the principal at School B allowed HPS activities to be conducted as part of the schedule during school time – an initiative that the teachers appreciated. This kind of initiative suggests a greater likelihood of HPS being integrated into the life of the school and not being treated as an “add-on”. Similarly, Viig et al. (2012) found in their Norwegian study on leading and supporting HPS, that schools where the principal identified activities as health promoting, they allocated resources, including time to incorporate the HPS work within their schedules, thereby improving the implementation and integration climate. Unlike the situation at School B, at Schools A and C, even though the teachers claimed that they were already involved in activities that could be regarded as HPS initiatives, they were not given extra time or resources for these activities. This could be because the principal may have perceived that many of the activities were already integrated into the school timetable and there was therefore no need for extra resources for HPS. This scenario is consistent with the findings of Markham and Aveyard (2003) and Viig et al. (2012).

Another resource challenge that emerged from the current study was the focus of the funders of the UWC HPS project. External funding often comes with prerequisites and conditions that can restrict the integration of innovations. For example, the funders of the HPS project that this research drew on, stipulated that the focus must be on capacity building for the prevention of HIV and TB, which posed a challenge as not all stakeholders at the schools were interested in

HIV and TB. This meant that at each school it was difficult to capture the whole school's interest in HPS, which had negative implications for HPS integration due to the lack of involvement by all staff members. This highlights the constraints for schools that rely on external funders for the implementation of HPS.

The findings of the current study reveal that although the UWC team was pivotal in the provision of some resources for the implementation of HPS, this support was compromised by the limitations of the stipulation of what the funding could be used for. This negatively influenced the practices and processes for HPS because implementation did not always take place as intended by the UWC team or the HPS groups at the schools. Practicing a whole-school approach instead of discrete activities was made difficult because of the narrow funding focus on TB and HIV. Schools are often exposed to a range of health initiatives from external organisations which are usually prescribed interventions that hold individuals responsible for their own behaviour. However, the HPS approach relies on creating a supportive environment in order to enable change with the intention of making it a collective responsibility. Considering much of the past literature (e.g. Lister- Sharpe, Chapman, Steward-Brown, & Sowden, 1999) up to the present literature on HPS (e.g. Moynihan et al., 2016), it is apparent that many of the HPS initiatives have focused mainly on behaviour modification of some sort or discrete health activities despite the rhetoric of a whole school approach. This indicates the complexity of HPS integration where the different systems at play can detrimentally influence the process.

On the other hand, the UWC team, as an external catalyst for change, was able to provide some human, financial and material resources for HPS implementation at the three schools, which is likely to have contributed to the creation of a conducive implementation climate. This is consistent with the findings of others such as Preiser et al. (2014) and Milbourne et al. (2003), who showed that professionals working in schools not only drew on their own expertise but also on their own networks for resources. However, as indicated earlier, this reliance on external resources can hinder integration. A problem arose when the schools were unable to raise funds for the last student leadership camp themselves - funds that the UWC team had previously provided. Gugglberger's (2011) study found that one of the constraints of HPS integration was

that HPS could only be supported for a limited period due to its resource-intensive nature, which aligns with the findings of the current study.

However, as implementation progressed it became evident that funding was not a major concern in cases where HPS was starting to be integrated into the functioning of the school, such as at School B. This finding is supported by the findings of Gugglberger and Dür (2011) who, in their study done in Austria, found that in schools where integration had already taken place it was easier to use and draw on existing resources without having to add major resources into keeping HPS going. In fact it can be concluded that if HPS is integrated into a school's normal programme, some resources will most likely be needed for certain activities but not for the overall HPS ethos, which is more about an approach and not simply about implementing discrete activities. However, the findings in this study suggest that given that HPS was a new initiative in these schools, the benefits of extra time and reallocation of resources by the principals in the initial stages would most likely have created an implementation climate conducive for integration. In addition, the capacity of the various actors should be built so that they are able to apply for, and garner resources from, a range of sources including external organisations and the district (Gugglberger & Dür, 2011; Turunen, Tossavainen & Vertio, 2004). For example, in this study successfully applying to the district for a feeding scheme, and learning how to gain their peers' support, illustrates how the capacities of the teachers at Schools A and B had been built to enable them to draw on existing resources, in turn creating a climate conducive to HPS implementation and integration.

The current study's findings on HPS integration with regard to resources suggest that HPS could be integrated with resource support, including human, financial and time, from both the district and also from the National DoE. However, HPS might not continue in the way it has done with the external resource support of the UWC team. Ideally, if a school formally adopts the HPS approach and principles it could use the status accorded to HPS by this action to better integrate the process of its implementation in ways suitable for the needs of the school, and within the limits of available resources (Weiler et al., 2003).

Another important resource for the implementation of HPS is student participation, as discussed in the following section.

9.4 FACTORS INFLUENCING STUDENT PARTICIPATION

One of the key values implicit in the settings approach is the participation of those who are affected or targeted by health promotion initiatives. Based on this value, student participation in the implementation of HPS has been identified as an important means for bringing about change in schools (Griebler et al., 2014; Jensen & Simovska, 2005; Samdal & Rowling, 2011; Simovska, 2007; Simovska & Carlsson, 2012). In addition, students have been found to be change agents for HPS as a result of a supportive and enabling environment (Cargo, Grams, Ottoson, Ward & Green, 2003; Kostenius, 2013; Simovska & Carlsson, 2012). However, there is a range of factors that have the potential to influence the nature of student participation (Hart, 1992; Jensen & Simovska, 2005; Shier, 2001; Simovska, 2012).

Although the participation of all actors is important for integration of HPS, the findings in this study indicate that the students did not influence integration (which was influenced more at higher levels in the schools) as much as they did the implementation process. This section will therefore focus on their involvement in the implementation process.

This section discusses the various themes that emerged in the current study in relation to student participation in HPS implementation. Firstly the discussion focuses on the reasons for student involvement and how these influenced their readiness for change, then on school contextual factors that influenced students' readiness for change and the implementation climate in the three schools. These factors are further explored in the sections on support for students from teachers and peers. The final section deals with the capacity building of students for HPS.

9.4.1 Students' reasons for involvement

Knowing the reasons that students have for their involvement in HPS can facilitate the school's readiness for change, because these are an indication of student motivation. The findings of the current study indicate that, across the three schools, the students had both varying and similar reasons for becoming involved with HPS. These ranged from wanting to be involved in

something different and being positively influenced by their peers, to a perception of gaining personal benefits and being able to make a difference in their schools. Furthermore, the students in this study came from a social context where there seemed to be little positive stimulation, and therefore being involved in something different (such as HPS) was regarded by them as an opportunity to be involved in something that was stimulating, interesting and meaningful in terms of their own immediate issues. This is in keeping with Simovska's (2012) findings of student participation in HPS and the findings of Cargo et al. (2003) on the empowerment of youth. This motivation is in opposition to their didactic learning environment, which they seemed to find mundane and remote from their own lives.


In addition to personal benefits, many of the students expressed a wish to change their schools for the better because, from their own personal experience, they understood and identified with the challenging social context that most of their fellow students came from. In his analysis of adolescent risk behaviour, Jessor (1991) has suggested that in adverse social contexts youth are more likely to engage in risky behaviour, because there will be fewer protective factors to influence them compared to those in less adverse contexts. This observation highlights the importance of adopting a socio-ecological approach when working with youth, as is the case with HPS. The findings of the current study indicate that students saw the potential that HPS had for creating an environment that was conducive to positive change for the school and particularly for the students, indicating their understanding of purpose of HPS, a positive sign of the schools' readiness for change. This caring culture of the students can be seen as a reflection of the caring school culture where it existed and also the students' feeling of school connectedness (which is further discussed in this chapter in section 9.4.2).

Cargo et al. (2006) found that incentives also stimulated students' readiness for change. In keeping with this finding, the findings of the current study show that it is likely that, because of the challenging social context, having the incentive of food in addition to the opportunity to develop themselves through the student leadership camps was a motivator for students to become involved. Findings across the three schools showed that incentives can act as an enabler as well as representing a challenge to students. Incentives can either influence the reason why some students became involved (presence of incentives) or alternatively be responsible for students'

loss of interest (absence of incentives). This reflects a typical phase of adolescent development, who need to be stimulated constantly, as is evident from the risky behaviour associated with this age group (Chinman & Linney, 1998).

A further reason motivating students to become involved in HPS was seeing their peers involved with HPS and noting the positive difference that it had made to them (such as building of self-esteem and self-confidence), thus influencing their readiness for change. (Peer influence is further discussed in section 9.4.4 in this chapter). They therefore saw the potential of positive personal change in addition to the changes that they could anticipate in the school. The findings in this study indicate that the students saw HPS as a platform for becoming involved in something positive in an affirmative school context. They also saw it as a means to being resilient to negative external influences rather than being exposed to the negative stimuli that they were exposed to on a daily basis in the community.

9.4.2 School contextual factors influencing student participation in HPS implementation



The greater a collaborative effort, the greater the possibility exists to create the relationships of support, and the development of trust and mutual obligations ... which remain the building blocks of connectedness in the school community (Rowe et al., 2007, p. 534)

The above quotation highlights how the school context influences school connectedness. Studies by Chinman and Linney (1998) and Rowe et al. (2007) found that, in accordance with critical social theory for positive youth development, school connectedness was crucial. One factor that can influence school connectedness for students is their sense of belonging to the school. The need to belong can be a manifestation of a lack of family stability or social cohesion in the community. The findings for Schools A and B indicate that the reasons for student involvement were also influenced by the students' sense of belonging to their schools. In both schools, students had a positive attitude towards their school which manifested in their wanting to make a difference in the school. In contrast, in School C the students felt little sense of belonging and this might explain why they did not express much desire to make a difference in their school, indicating how the school context can negatively influence student attitude and participation with

regard to their readiness for change. There was an indication that the more the students felt connected to the school, the more motivated they were to make a difference and to become involved in HPS, which bodes well for integration.

School connectedness has been shown to be "... a significant protective factor for several health, academic and social outcomes" and can positively influence adolescent health and development (Rowe et al., 2007, p. 525). The literature shows that school connectedness plays a major role in students' decisions to participate actively in school activities (Rowe et al., 2007). Moreover, teachers are seen as having the most interactions with students, interactions that are regarded as important mechanisms for school connectedness and encouraging student engagement (McNeely & Falci, 2004). School connectedness therefore can be characterised by positive relationships between teachers and students, which can be linked to school readiness for change. If students perceive that they have the care and support of their teachers, they will feel more connected to the school and therefore more willing to participate in initiatives such as HPS, which will also facilitate integration. However, if students' perceptions of both their relationships with teachers and culture of collaborative working are negative, the level of school readiness for change might be low. This is an indication of the crucial role that teachers can play in encouraging student participation in HPS implementation.

As already noted, the opportunity for student empowerment at School B in this study was likely to lead to the most effective outcome, because of the school connectedness that the students felt and their positive relationships with supportive teachers. The teachers also allowed the students to have some degree of autonomy, thus building their empowerment (McNeely & Falci, 2004). However, at School C there seemed to be limited student commitment and poor group dynamics amongst the students, reflecting the overall climate and culture of the school, where students felt disconnected from the school.

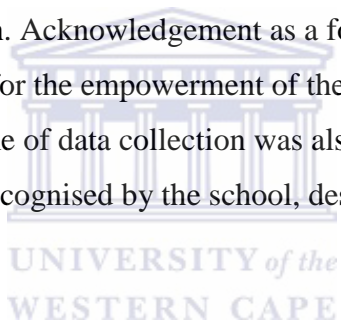
Alternately, HPS has been posited by researchers as facilitating school connectedness, with its emphasis on participation, inclusiveness and democracy (Rowe et al., 2007). The findings in this study reveal that the teachers had attempted to include students in planning and implementing HPS, although with varying degrees of success in the different schools. Through these

democratic processes positive relationships were developed between teachers and students, which appear to have resulted in the students feeling a stronger sense of school connectedness. School connectedness therefore can also be linked to the implementation climate. A positive implementation climate for HPS has the potential to facilitate school connectedness, because HPS can build relationships and encourage democracy, inclusiveness, empowerment and participation, all characteristic of the settings approach and all also important for HPS integration.

However, despite such positive relationships, the hierarchy in the schools seemed to have a negative impact on the students. Because of this hierarchy, where the culture of not involving students in change processes is common (Wilson, 2009), students are “are more or less subordinated to the authority and power of adults” (Bjerke, 2011, p.101). Therefore equal power relations are not likely to happen in most schools, which suggests that genuine student participation as advocated for in HPS (Simovska, 2007) can be a challenge. Even where there were indications of the principals’ support, students across the schools did not feel fully supported by the principal as the leader in the school hierarchy. The findings in this study indicate that communication from the level of the principal down to the students was not very effective, as there was limited direct communication between them. This might have led to the students’ perception, however distorted, of limited or no support. The findings in this study suggest that if channels of communication are not open at all levels, especially from the top, then misunderstandings can be created, even if the intentions of those at the top are good. At School C, where communication from the top was poor and the working relationship amongst the staff was not strong, the students were also not able to work together as a team. This illustrates how communication as a feature and manifestation of the school climate and culture affects whether students feel able to implement HPS or not, thus influencing the implementation climate. Open and effective communication throughout the different levels of the hierarchy would therefore seem to be imperative for effective integration.

One method of meaningful and effective communication, as revealed by the findings, is the schools’ public acknowledgement of their students. Griebler et al. (2014) see this as being a

crucial part of a conducive implementation climate, through which students are acknowledged for their achievements. The lead teachers in this study commended the students for their HPS work. At Schools A and B this acknowledgement was relayed to the principal. In Schools A and B further acknowledgement was given to students at assemblies or events where the school, and sometimes also parents, came together and celebrated such achievements. In contrast, there was little evidence that such events took place at School C, and therefore opportunities for student acknowledgments did not occur. Recognition of their achievements and of the skills they have attained is important for building the students' self-esteem and confidence, and can motivate them to continue with HPS (Griebler et al., 2014). An example of this recognition was when many of the HPS students at Schools A and B were selected to become prefects, including the head boy and girl. Their selection could have been based on their showing natural leadership attributes, but it could also be because they had developed these attributes during involvement with HPS, or a combination of both. Acknowledgement as a form of positive communication therefore can be a facilitating tool for the empowerment of the students. It should be noted that the head boy of School C at the time of data collection was also an HPS student, which suggests that his leadership qualities were recognised by the school, despite these not being publicly acknowledged or affirmed.



In a study based in a secondary school, looking at students as radical agents of change, Fielding (2001) found that that the school had a culture of student involvement. The students themselves had power and control, resulting in positive structural changes at the school. In contrast, in the current study, before HPS was initiated, there was not much student involvement in the functioning of the school generally, apart from their being represented on the SGB, the RCL and the prefect body, the authenticity of their involvement in these structures being questionable. For example, the students did not regard the RCL as representing the student body's needs as they felt that they had little control over the decisions that affected them. Therefore, although working with established structures in the school can be beneficial because of the related status and resources, it can also mean that others, such as students, who are not formally part of these structures, can be excluded from decision making (El Ansari & Phillips, 2001). Similarly, Scriven and Stiddard (2003) claim from their study on empowering schools in England that

empowering some in a community might have the effect of disempowering others. This suggests that students who are not formally part of the school structures might not feel a sense of ownership and commitment because of the lack of shared decision-making. This in turn could impact negatively on the students' readiness for change. Some students might not see any reason for becoming involved in HPS if they perceive that genuine participation was not likely to happen.

The findings in this study reveal that how students related to one another and supported one another during HPS implementation was a reflection of the school culture and climate (relationship between teachers, between teachers and students, and with the principal). Where respect, trust and good-quality relationships existed in the school generally, as in School A, this was manifested in how well the HPS students related to their peers and how they worked together during implementing HPS.

9.4.3 Teacher support for students

In keeping with studies from other countries, and as indicated earlier, the findings of this study highlight the strong influence that teachers had on student school connectedness and consequently on their school's readiness for change. This in turn influenced the HPS implementation climate because it encouraged and facilitated the students' participation in the implementation of HPS. In participating in HPS, students were working collaboratively with teachers whom they felt they could trust, who respected them for who they were, and who listened to them if they had ideas of their own. This was often not the case at home and at times at school. This demonstrates the powerful role that teachers can play in giving students opportunities to participate meaningfully in a process and to realise their potential, an opportunity that might not often come their way because of the community context and the school culture of excluding them from decision-making (El Ansari & Phillips, 2001).

The findings in the current study indicate that at all three schools the students regarded working with teachers as important to them because they needed the teachers' support and guidance, and perceived that it would be difficult for them to maintain HPS without this. Fielding (2001, p.130) advocates for:

‘radical collegiality’ ... [with] the move towards a more dialogic form of democracy. In this way, teachers learn not only with and from each other, from parents and from their community, but also, and more particularly, from their students.

The quotation is in keeping with the HPS approach, in which all actors are regarded as important collaborators in the process. However, in the current study students were not often regarded as equal partners before HPS was initiated. The teachers were not used to the students having a say in their normal schooling apart from through the formal student structures, where their participation was in question. In order for radical collegiality to take place, the mind-set in the school itself, and that of teachers in particular, has to change. The teachers’ capacity will have to be built for them to be able to work in a democratic way as advocated for in the HPS approach. The school system needs to adjust to accommodate radical collegiality, especially with regard to genuine student participation. In this context El Ansari and Phillips (2001, p. 129) argue that: “... attention to the structural parameters and operational dimensions that underpin the partnership concept becomes of critical importance”.

For genuine student participation in HPS to occur, there has to be acknowledgement of the differences between the different actors, in particular between the teachers and students, as they are the most likely collaborators to effectively implement HPS in secondary schools. According to Osborn and Hunt (2007, p. 322) “as one moves up the organisational hierarchy, one finds increasing task complexity by domain and echelon”. If this complexity is acknowledged and addressed, there can be a shared understanding and a realistic expectation of the different roles that each actor can play, the benefits for each of them, and of the kind of joint action to take place. This process would be facilitated without a false sense of consensus but instead a sense of reciprocity on the part of all involved (Fielding, 2001).

Student empowerment carries with it the understanding that, while they have a sense of agency, they need some support and guidance from the teachers in order to facilitate the implementation climate. Bjerke (2011, p.101) found that student agency was not necessarily in opposition to dependency but was rather:

... an inevitable part of the interconnected nature of relationships between children and adults, where children can express their

agency, yet also continue to be dependent on nurturance, support or regulation from adults.

The findings in this study confirm that the students had the potential to bring about change in the schools if the adults, particularly the champions, acted as catalysts for change (Cargo et al., 2003; Kostenius, 2013; Simovska, 2012). The findings suggest that differences existed in the roles of the lead teachers with regard to developing student empowerment and influencing the level of student participation, despite the students' readiness for change and their commitment to HPS. However, Hart (1992, p.6) emphasises that: "Young people's participation cannot be discussed without considering power relations". For example, the issue of democracy and empowerment as being intrinsic to the HPS implementation process and for integration as advocated for by Simovska (2007), was questionable in the case where the lead teacher had an autocratic leadership style. At School A the students rarely initiated anything on their own, but waited for the lead teacher's instructions, which they then followed diligently and efficiently. This situation can be seen as disempowering for the students because, despite their skills and positive characteristics and support from the lead teacher, they were given very little opportunity to take initiative themselves. Despite the lead teacher's role in inspiring the students, which can be regarded as facilitating the implementation climate, her role as major decision-maker also seemed to disempower the students. This can be seen as paradoxical in terms of the creation of an implementation climate. Her role was one of leading more than guiding (Gordon & Turner, 2004), which can create a tension within a democratic HPS process and partnerships, according to the settings approach. At School C little space was afforded to the kind of participation, inclusiveness and democracy specified by the settings approach. This was probably due to the negative school context, making it challenging for the lead teacher to fully support and empower the students in their HPS efforts.

Where a more teacher distributed leadership style existed, such as that at School B, the teachers showed trust in their students' abilities. This trust seemed to have built the students' self-confidence and empowered them to take charge of HPS activities, thus giving them a sense of ownership and creating a climate conducive for HPS implementation. The students could realise their own potential, indicating the creation of climate where these students were empowered to bring about change. Trust has been found to be an important aspect in creating a supportive

social environment, especially with regard to students and teachers' relationships (St Leger & Nutbeam, 2000; Rowe et al., 2007) and effective partnership for facilitating participation and empowerment in HPS (Rowling & Samdal, 2011). It is therefore important that the different partners in a collaboration for health promotion develop skills for building trust in their relationships (Jones & Barry, 2011). The findings in this study indicate that, in situations where students feel that they can trust the teacher and one another, it appears that they can also work well together (Pridmore, 2000; Phillip, 2012). On the other hand, even though the students at School A seemed to put their full trust in the lead teacher, it was to the detriment of their own empowerment because of their over-reliance on her.

It is evident from this study's findings that, where the students had specific, clearly defined roles to fulfil in HPS, they had a sense of purpose and felt valued because they were attempting to make a meaningful difference. If young people are seen as resources or assets rather than problems that need to be fixed, the likelihood exists that they will be empowered as they will have acquired the skills and knowledge to bring about change for themselves (Jones & Barry, 2011). In this way they will feel ownership of a project, which will increase their self-efficacy and motivation to bring about change, as was evident in the Shape Up project in schools in Europe (Pridmore, 2000; Simovska, 2012).

However, in the current study it was questionable whether students were being empowered if they had to wait for the lead teacher to make decisions or for a teacher to intervene on their behalf to gain the principal's permission to initiate something at the school, as was the case in School A. Even though the students might have been empowered at a personal level and as a collective, they were disempowered by the broader school context. The danger of this situation is that the students might not feel valued because their voices are not heard and consequently will become disengaged from HPS (Harrist, 2012). The argument here is that a feeling of disempowerment can impact on the students' sense of ownership. Thus the question is: would they continue to be dedicated or committed if they did not have decision-making powers or the power to take initiative themselves if they are perceived as unequal partners? The settings approach emphasises equal partnership but gives rise to the question of whether this is possible

in a hierarchical school system. In such context, Kostenius (2013, p. 409) suggests that, for this empowerment to take place, “Adults acting as advocates can help children and youth verbalise their opinions and thus facilitate the empowering process for these young people”. This statement highlights the important role that teachers need to play in student participation for effective implementation of HPS. However, in this study the benefits of HPS involvement for the teachers were not clearly evident. This could be because the HPS teachers’ involvement in HPS carries more responsibilities for them than for the students and the rest of the staff. The benefits for the teachers cannot be perceived to be the same as for the students, who only seemed to gain from their involvement whereas for some teachers it possibly was an additional load to carry.

9.4.4 Peer support and influence

In this study peer support amongst the students was highlighted as an important mechanism for continued engagement with HPS, with potential to create a positive implementation climate and for integration. Peer support was evident in Schools A and B from the way that the students were able to work together as a team. Moreover, the power of positive peer support was clearly evident in School B, especially where the lead students were not taking responsibility. The rest of the students in the HPS group were still able to carry out the activities, because they all made a decision that HPS was too important for them not to take action – a clear indication that they had taken ownership of HPS, thereby improving the implementation climate.

Peer influence is a key factor in the adolescent stage of development (Blum, McNeely & Nonnemaker, 2002) and can influence their behaviour. Peer influence, including peer support, has been found to be a protective factor in adolescent behaviour (Blum et al., 2002; Jessor, 1991; Korkiamäki, 2011; Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). On the other hand, negative peer influence can have a detrimental effect on student engagement (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998; McNeely & Falci, 2004). The findings in this study indicate that negative peer pressure came mainly from those students not directly involved with HPS, although the students involved were able to resist this negative influence. Consistent with the arguments of Olsson, Bond, Burns, Vella-Brodrick, & Sawyer, (2003) and Resnick (2000), there were several factors that seemed to have enabled students to resist negative peer pressure. Features such as the supportive relationships between

the students, and personal characteristics of the students, including having empathy towards their peers, influenced their commitment to making a difference, indicating their readiness for change. Given that the personal characteristics of students noted by Olsson et al. (2003, p. 5), such as “responsiveness to others”, “pro-social attitudes” and “attachment to others”, have been shown to be protective factors for resilience, it is likely that these also positively influenced the students in the current study. In addition, the capacity building of the students, which created a supportive climate for implementation, also possibly strengthened the resilience of some students, increasing their self-esteem and self-efficacy and enabling them to resist peer pressure (Olsson et al., 2003; Resnick, 2000).

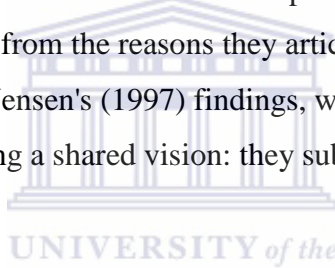
9.4.5 Capacity building of students

For the child, it [health promotion] is to live in an environment where adults and governments feel a responsibility to protect, guide, and respect children’s evolving capacities to participate in matters that affect their own welfare. Ratification of the CRC [Convention on the Rights of a Child] is far from a trivial event, yet its translation into research, practice, and policies requires sustained, conscientious pursuit (Earls & Carlson, 2001, p. 163).

Capacity building of students was another factor that facilitated student participation in HPS implementation in this study, and can be regarded as Cargo et al.’s (2003, p. 69) “actualising youth potential”, which supports the above quotation by Earls and Carlson (2001). Cargo et al. (2003) emphasise the importance of creating opportunities for youth in meaningful participation by assigning them different roles and responsibilities and, in this way, building their capacity for bringing about change, which is the aim of HPS. In this process they develop experience and competence, and are more able to work independently, thus giving them a sense of empowerment. The findings of the current study indicate that the capacity building of students resulted in personal benefits as well as contributing to a positive HPS implementation climate because an empowering environment was created for the students (Cargo et al., 2003). Students from all three schools attended the leadership camps where their leadership capacities were built with the purpose of empowering them to implement HPS. At Schools A and B the students were able to put their leadership and other skills to use because they had developed the competence to implement HPS by taking some responsibility and fulfilling certain roles in HPS. Therefore it is

possible that if students are given opportunities and support, they can be empowered to become leaders and to have a sense of ownership in the process of implementation of HPS.

Jensen (1997, p. 422) refers to the concept of “action competence”, which originated from the Danish Network of Health Promoting Schools, when referring to capacity building of students. What is emphasised with action competence is the democratic approach of students in the process of making decisions about their health, and considering their perceptions of the social determinants of health, which in turn is linked to empowerment. This action competence is characterised by knowledge or insight, commitment, vision and action experiences. It was evident from the current study that across the schools the students had gained knowledge and an understanding of health in its holistic sense, were largely driven and committed to the implementation of HPS, and had visions for their health, their future, their school and their society. This was apparent from their contributions in the participatory workshops, such as the dream tree exercise workshop, and from the reasons they articulated for wanting to make a difference. This is consistent with Jensen's (1997) findings, which showed the positive effect on students who participated in building a shared vision: they subsequently took definitive action in the HPS implementation process.



However, in the current study the findings reveal that the students' action experiences differed from school to school. Their levels of competence and involvement were influenced by several factors: the school climate and culture, the type of internal support they received from the lead teacher and some staff members, their peers, the principal, and the external support of the school facilitator and the UWC team and other external agents, such as the university students working in the schools.

The above discussion shows that at the three schools HPS provided an opportunity for enhancing students' learning environment through its different and innovative approach of experiential learning – in other words, building the capacity of students by involving them in their own learning, which can also be seen as a mechanism for empowerment. However, what is important is the supportive context that is needed which is conducive to building the capacity of students to participate actively in the implementation of HPS. It is evident from this study, and from others

in the literature, that secondary school students can play an important role in the implementation of HPS through their meaningful and genuine participation. Even though the students whose capacity has been built will eventually leave the school, if HPS has been fully integrated into the school other students will take over their roles - in this way continuity and sustainability of HPS can be ensured.

9.5 UWC TEAM AS EXTERNAL CATALYST FOR CHANGE

9.5.1 Role of the UWC team in HPS implementation

Many studies in the literature report that most schools do not have the skills and competence to bring about health-promoting changes, and therefore need external catalysts for change (Boot et al., 2010; Bruce et al., 2012). For example, universities have been found to play an important role as external catalysts by creating a supportive climate for HPS implementation in schools (Butler, Fryer, Reed & Thomas, 2011; Inchley et al., 2007; Preiser et al., 2014). Consistent with these findings was the external catalyst for change role played by the UWC team including the school facilitator in the implementation of HPS. The findings of this study indicate that, as initiators of the HPS concept, one of the important roles of the UWC team was to see that the concept was understood as a whole-school approach and implemented in the best way that suited the school and the implementers (mainly teachers and students). The team saw its role as facilitative and enabling, rather than effecting HPS implementation. This process included guidance, mentoring, providing technical support and motivating those implementing HPS to do so to the best of their ability within their own context. This was consistent with the findings of Boot et al. (2010) on the guiding and supporting role of the school health advisor (a person external to the school), which showed that practical assistance, building a trusting relationship and having professional skills and knowledge were important mechanisms for the school advisor to facilitate implementation.

Bond et al. (2001, p. 370), citing Stoll and Fink (1997, p. 175), conceived the role of facilitator in terms of a “critical friend”:

... that of the friendly outside advisor ... [working with the school] to help them reflect on and understand reactions to change, while at

the same time developing a clearer understanding of strategies that enhance improvement.

In this study the UWC team and specifically the school facilitator, could be regarded as a critical friend in the role of mentor and advisor which was found to be a valuable asset in the HPS literature (Bond et al., 2001; Deschesnes, Tessier, Couturier, & Martin, 2015; Patton et al., 2003). In keeping with the findings of these authors and Tjomsland et al. (2009), the follow-up sessions that the school facilitator had with the HPS committees at the respective schools in this study can be seen as creating a climate conducive to HPS implementation, as a result of the regular communication, support, mentorship and reinforcement that these sessions provided.

The findings in this study reveal that the manner in which the UWC team engaged with the schools was an important factor for the implementation of HPS. In keeping with the settings approach, Butler et al. (2011, p. 779) found that when universities collaborate with the education sector, they need to practise “cultural humility”, building on partners’ strengths and resources, reciprocal learning and long-term commitment in order to sustain HPS. The findings in this study indicate that the UWC team consciously tried to practice cultural humility in that it did not set the agenda for the schools (Tervalon & Murray-Garcia, 1998). In situations where cultural humility is practised, the power imbalance is minimised between the partners (Milbourne et al., 2003), especially between professionals and communities, by valuing lay knowledge (Minkler, 2005) and cultivating mutual respect (Butler et al., 2011).

Even though the schools in this study regarded the team as “experts” who broadened the HPS groups’ worldview (Inchley et al., 2007) reciprocal learning clearly took place between the schools and the UWC team. The team acknowledged that the school knew what was best for them and were “experts” in terms of their own contexts. The team saw reciprocal learning as being crucial to a shared understanding of what HPS was and/or could be, especially in terms of innovations-values fit, and what was required to implement HPS, and how this could influence the schools’ readiness for change. This was especially appropriate in terms of the settings approach, because the team worked with the different levels of the school system (principal, teachers, parents and students) to gain a better understanding of the context and degrees of commitment of all the actors and gain their trust, which is important in collaborative working

(Jones & Barry, 2011). With this knowledge the team was able to ascertain what the schools' concerns were and what was needed, and through HPS strategies attempt to respond to some of the issues identified in collaboration with the different actors within the school system (Butler et al., 2011; Dumka, Mauricio & Gonzales, 2007), consistent with the settings approach and the practice of cultural humility.

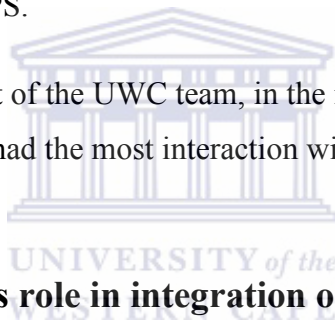
One of the strategies of the UWC team for HPS implementation was facilitating the participatory planning of HPS implementation in collaboration with the HPS school committee, to ensure that planned activities were designed to be culturally and age-appropriate. However, although Butler et al. (2011) recommend participatory planning because of their own experience, and which was a mode mostly employed by the UWC team, this did not in fact take place with regard to the student leadership camps in the current study. As the findings indicate, the team's assumptions that the students would feel more comfortable not having teachers at these camps was mostly unfounded, because this was not the case when there were teachers present at the final camp. In fact, the teachers would have benefitted from being involved in these camps from the start, especially once the team exited from the schools, as the involvement of teachers and other adults in the final student camp revealed. The skills of the teachers and of other participants had been developed to the point of being able to facilitate such camps. This demonstrates the importance of practising cultural humility and not making assumptions. Had the team consulted the teachers, students and parents prior to the first camp, the leadership camp might have been approached differently from the start.

Another aim of the UWC team was to bring the three schools together to create a community of practice amongst them. The findings indicate that HPS had brought the three schools together, which had a positive influence on HPS implementation because the networking built relationships across the schools, although to varying degrees at the different levels of the school systems. It was interesting to note that, despite coming from the same community, there had not been much interaction socially amongst the students before the HPS was initiated. However, this changed as their relationships developed across the schools through HPS. The teachers also built relationships, although at a more professional than social level. These interactions were important not only in terms of sharing ideas, but also as a means of support by acknowledging

and sharing the challenges that were faced at the individual schools. In this way the teachers felt some consolation that they were not alone in their experiences of the challenges that they faced at their respective schools. This networking and building of relationships is an important aspect of the settings approach and the whole-school approach, and most likely contributed to a conducive implementation climate at the schools in the current study (Tjomsland et al., 2009).

In keeping with the settings approach, the team's networking with external organisations and academic institutions that provided services and resources contributed to the conducive implementation climate (Preiser, et al., 2014). However, even though the UWC team played a key role in supporting HPS, some school actors' over-reliance on the team and school facilitators for implementation, as was the case with School C, meant that they did not have the ability to implement HPS on their own once the team withdrew. This would have implications for the integration and sustainability of HPS.

The school facilitators' role, as part of the UWC team, in the integration of HPS is discussed further in the next section, as they had the most interaction with the study schools during the implementation process.



9.5.2 The school facilitator's role in integration of HPS

The findings indicate that the school facilitators had a significant role to play in the integration of HPS. Because the academic programme was the main priority at the schools in this study, it was important that the school facilitators constantly reminded the schools of HPS, so that it could become part of the functioning of the school. This highlights the fact that, even though cultural humility was practised to a large degree, there was still some “pushing” needed from the school facilitators' side. This finding is supported by those of Inchley, et al. (2007), who found that not only was the health promotion specialist able to provide a bigger picture, but also served as the “glue” which held everything together for HPS implementation.

This role of holding everything together was an important one, especially because of the other pressing demands on the school at different levels in this study. For example, it was quite common for the HPS teachers to admit to the school facilitator that they were not able to carry

out some HPS plan because they had a deadline to meet for the DoE. The meetings with the school facilitators, however, usually made them recommit, and some of them found ways of continuing with the process while others were unable to do so. This is an indication that, despite the school facilitators' support, encouragement and attempts at keeping HPS on the school agenda, there were other internal and external contextual factors that served as challenges for HPS implementation and integration. The findings reveal that the facilitators did not have much control over structural matters pertaining to the school itself. This situation highlights the importance of taking the context into account throughout the process. Not to do so could compromise the role of the school facilitators as external change agents in the integration of HPS.

Building a trusting relationship and having professional skills and knowledge seem to be important strategies for the school facilitator to employ, as recommended by Boot et al. (2010) - strategies that were extensively employed in this study. However, another factor that might have influenced the facilitators' roles as external change agents was their style of working with the schools. At School A, from my own observation as a result of working closely with the school facilitator, and through the regular UWC team meetings, she could be described as being "pushy" because of the way she had to push, for HPS to be included on the school agenda, which she succeeded in doing. Similarly, at School C the school facilitator had to be more assertive and authoritative, otherwise not much would have been accomplished, although she did not have as much success as School A's facilitator. For example, the over-reliance of the students on the school facilitator served as a challenge to organic implementation at School C, as nothing happened if she did not follow up with the students and lead teacher regularly. This over-reliance was possibly due to the lead teacher at School C not being able to fully provide the support that the students needed unlike at the other two schools because of limited support from peers and the principal,. Therefore, despite wanting to practise the democratic principles of HPS, the findings show that the school facilitator at School C felt the tension of having to dictate to the students and to check up on them and the teachers, a role which seemed to be dictatorial rather than democratic. On the other hand, at School B the school facilitator was able to work more at the pace of the school, allowing things to happen organically. It seems therefore that the school

facilitators' manner of working in the schools as external change agents was mainly determined by the internal school context, but could also be linked to their personal characteristics.

9.5.3 Building capacity for HPS implementation

One of the main aims of the UWC team was to build the capacity of the schools to implement HPS. Although the capacity of the whole school as such was not built extensively, the capacity of a group of teachers and students was built so that they could feel competent enough to implement and sustain HPS to some extent without the support of the team when it was no longer involved with the schools. Bond et al. (2001, p. 374) identified “building capacity through problem setting and problem solving; building capacity to access, use, and enhance networks of support; and changing school structures” as key factors for change for a whole-school approach. Furthermore, it has been advocated in the literature that teacher training or professional development is necessary to enable teachers to act as catalysts for change, such as that brought about for the implementation of HPS (Aldinger et al., 2008; Hoyle, et al., 2010; Lochman, 2003; Pommier et al., 2011). In HPS, teachers' professional development should go beyond teaching of the curriculum to being able to empower students and also be able to work in collaborative manner with others (Cargo et al., 2003; Hoyle et al., 2010; Jensen & Simovska, 2005; Nilsson, 2004). In South Africa, health issues are addressed mainly as part of the life skills curriculum. It is the norm for teachers to employ didactic methods of teaching with little input from the students. There is little room and time for active student participation and critical reflection on health issues because of the way the curriculum is constructed. The HPS principles of democracy, empowerment and equity will be difficult to pursue in the current bureaucratic education system, where teachers are not trained to engage with students in a more empowering way.

As indicated above, not the whole school's capacity was built due to various contextual reasons already alluded to in this thesis. However, the findings reveal that the perception across the schools was that if the capacities of all the teachers in the school were built in terms of integrating HPS into what they were already doing, then they might have been more amenable to becoming involved and without feeling overwhelmed by their academic responsibilities, as some

of them did. Furthermore, responsibilities could be distributed more evenly, as was the case in School B. However, the findings show that teachers' willingness to have their capacities built can be influenced by their readiness for change, which can manifest in their level of commitment to bring about change and/or their relationship with the rest of the staff in terms of cooperation and collaboration (Jourdan et al., 2008).

It has been recommended that, in addition to building capacity for implementing HPS activities as the UWC team did, teachers' capacities should also be built for encouraging and gaining support from, and working in collaboration with, their peers and other actors (Bond et al., 2001). Their capacities have to be built in such a way as to enable them to address their needs through HPS as a whole-school approach and not just implementing discrete activities (Labonte, 1999). This was done to some extent by the school facilitators mentoring and guiding the students and teachers in how to work with their peers. However, their capacities were not built in terms of fully integrating HPS, as there were other contextual factors that negatively influenced their ability to fully implement HPS as a whole-school approach.

One attempt at building the capacities of all the staff was when the UWC team shared the results of their HPS school climate survey of the three schools with the individual schools, giving the staff an opportunity to engage with the survey to see how they could integrate the findings into their curriculum and other school functions. At the workshop the participants (mainly teachers – even some not directly involved with HPS – and some students) seemed to fully engage with the information, and the teachers discussed how they could use it across the curriculum. In keeping with this finding, Bond et al. (2001) found that the feedback of the School Health Index served as an impetus for the school to develop shared action.

The UWC team made further attempts to build the capacities of the teachers and staff directly involved in HPS, including running a camp for them in order to develop their understanding of the HPS concept and processes, and facilitating a short course on HPS which some of the HPS teachers also attended. However, these capacity building exercises took place during school holidays, which meant that the teachers gave up their personal time to be trained. The fact that they did this willingly is a reflection of their readiness for change and their commitment to

building their capacity for HPS. On the other hand, because the teachers were not given an opportunity to build their capacity further, or put into practice their acquired skills as part of the normal functioning of the school, the implementation climate could have been compromised. For example, the findings indicate that the teachers were given insufficient or no time to put their skills into practice to implement HPS. This might have led to teachers feeling that they were not valued for their work, which might in turn have resulted in them not taking ownership of HPS. However, if HPS had been regarded as a whole-school approach, time would have been allocated by leadership and management for teachers to build their capacity and for HPS implementation.

Reflecting on the findings of Bond et al. (2001, p. 374), “building capacity through problem setting and problem solving; building capacity to access, use, and enhance networks of support; and changing school structures”, it is evident from the current study that not all of this was achieved. The first two factors were achieved to some extent through the mentoring, guidance and facilitating role of the UWC team but, more specifically, by the school facilitators. However, it was more of a challenge to change the school structures in line with HPS. This would have required much more of a whole-school approach than the schools were capable of, or willing to do, at the time and is a much longer term process.

Furthermore, even though there was capacity building of the teachers to some extent, other contextual factors influenced their ability to carry out their HPS responsibilities, such as the teacher’s strike, and work and personal commitments. This shows that, despite the UWC team’s attempts to build the capacities of the teachers, external and internal contextual factors can influence the process.

In summary, the role of the UWC team as external catalysts for change was a significant one in terms of: building the capacities of a group of teachers and students; guiding, mentoring and supporting those involved in HPS implementation; and for putting HPS on the map at the study schools. However, this role of the team was often influenced by internal and contextual factors, which compromised how effectively it was able to facilitate the integration of HPS as a whole-school approach – all of which could have an impact on whether or not HPS would be sustainable in such a context.

9.6 PERCEPTIONS OF HPS SUSTAINABILITY

At the time that this study was conducted the UWC HPS project had not ended, which means that sustainability could not be assessed. However, on reflection of their experiences of the implementation, including integration of HPS, the participants were able to give their perceptions of HPS sustainability within their own context.

Sustainability of HPS implies that HPS become part of a school's core functions and values and is concerned with maintaining the focus on HPS over time (Tjomsland et al., 2009). Some of the factors that were perceived to influence sustainability have already been discussed with the issues around integration in this chapter, and have included the schools' readiness for change, the school context, leadership and management role and support for HPS, and the role of the HPS champion. In addition, the practices and processes during implementation, especially integration of HPS, the leadership role of the students, the external networks including the UWC team, the role of the district, and the availability of resources were further factors that could influence sustainability too. Some key findings around sustainability are discussed further in this section. Because HPS is so complex, as was found with HPS integration in this study, the perceived factors that will contribute to its sustainability will be varied and interrelated, as supported by the findings of Tjomsland et al. (2009) in their 14-year follow-up study of HPS in Norway.

Seeing the benefits of HPS, which was one of the reasons for the schools' readiness for change, was perceived as one of the factors that could influence sustainability. This was apparent at School B when the principal, who saw the positive effects that HPS was having on the school, made his support more explicit. The findings also indicate that the principals' role was perceived to be important for sustainability of HPS. They had the power and influence to change or institute policies that could encourage the sustainability of HPS. If a specific HPS policy existed, as suggested by the lead teacher of School C, especially where integration was found to be the most difficult, then it would more likely encourage the sustainability of HPS. On the other hand, if HPS was being integrated into existing school policies and processes, then a specific HPS policy might not be necessary. However, the general perception was that it should be made mandatory for all teachers to be involved in some aspects of HPS implementation. What would

make it more sustainable is if teachers were asked to be involved in relation to their specific expertise or interest, and be made aware of how it could possibly relate to HPS, as suggested by Tjomsland et al. (2009). This would address the feeling of stress that some of teachers who were directly involved with HPS felt, despite their commitment to HPS.

It has been suggested in this study that increasing the awareness and understanding of HPS and its benefits in the school community, in order to create more interest and subsequent support and involvement in HPS, can also have positive implications for sustainability. If more people become involved with HPS, the chances of it becoming a whole-school approach will be better, which bodes well for sustainability.

Another important finding in the study with regard to sustainability was the succession of those involved in HPS when they left the school. The findings reveal that if there was no succession plan, whether for the students or the teachers, then it would compromise the continuity and thus the sustainability of HPS. Other studies have found that continuity was achieved through provision of training for new teachers and pairing experienced teachers with new teachers (Larsen & Samdal, 2008; Tjomsland et al., 2009). The findings in this study indicate that this only partly occurred. There was no training of new teachers who started at the school, but in the case of School A the lead teacher had recruited a new teacher to assist with HPS, which could facilitate continuity should the lead teacher leave HPS. As highlighted in this study, continuity can also be ensured with the students if there is a mix of junior and senior students, so that experiences can be shared and continued.

However, the sharing of experiences and continuity implies working together and, as shown in this study. Working together happened to varying degrees in the different schools, depending on the school context in each case, such as the type of relationships in the schools and the roles of the principals. Larsen and Samdal (2008) and Tjomsland et al.(2009) found that it was important for HPS sustainability that the principal create a shared vision and, through formal management strategies, encourage collaborative working. Collaborative working should include working with peers and with those higher up in the school hierarchy, thereby increasing the chances of

sustainability. Inchley et al. (2007) found that it was the positive change in relationships that led to better sustainability of HPS.

The findings in the current study show that capacity building of those who were implementing HPS was another important factor that would influence sustainability. Capacity building of teachers and students to implement HPS did occur, and it built their self-esteem, self-confidence and self-efficacy to implement HPS. However, whether they were able to actually do so was then influenced by several other interrelated factors, as described throughout this thesis, which highlights the complexity of HPS implementation for sustainability. The findings indicate that more should have been done to build the capacity of the school as a whole to integrate HPS as a whole-school approach for a better chance of sustainability.

The availability of resources was also identified as influencing sustainability. The findings indicate that HPS can be resource-intensive, because it needs dedicated time initially, committed individuals, technical expertise and funding, all of which could impact on sustainability. These findings are similar to those of Green and Tones (2000) in a study that was conducted in the United Kingdom on a project involving HPS in a disadvantaged community, and Weiler et al. (2003) in a study in Florida, USA, which provided intensive resources to develop HPS. In the current study funding was found to be important for and facilitated certain HPS activities, such as the student leadership camp, without which its sustainability was questionable. On the other hand, such funding can be seen as promoting discrete activities, which goes against the whole-school ethos of HPS and can also negatively influence sustainability.

However, there were other aspects of HPS, especially those that were integrated into the normal functioning of the school, such as integrating it into the curriculum, which did not rely on funding and therefore would not impact negatively on sustainability. It therefore can be concluded that although important, funding – especially external funding, which usually is only short-term and less sustainable (Shediak-Rizkallah & Bone, 1998) – does not have to be the main resource to ensure sustainability (Inchley et al., 2007), whereas resources such as time and human resources, as indicated in this study already, seem to be more essential. This implies that funding is needed for certain activities for HPS implementation, but other resources are more

relevant if HPS is to be integrated as a whole-school approach in order to facilitate sustainability. However, it has been found that drawing on teachers and their time for HPS implementation can be a challenge for sustainability, especially in weaker academic schools, as it is seen as taking resources away from the school's academic priorities (Rosas et al., 2009).

Finally, good planning, with clear and realistic goals and objectives, was also perceived as important in this study for sustainability. If this is not done, then it might impact on the morale of those attempting to implement HPS because it might not be realistic to achieve, as some of the teachers and students indicated in this study. Another important aspect of planning is that there should be shared and negotiated decision-making with the different actors, which is important for integration and by implication for sustainability, as concluded in a Canadian HPS study by Deschesnes et al. (2003). In the present study planning had taken place with the HPS teachers, students and, in the initial stages, with parents, which was facilitated by the UWC team. Furthermore, the students also did some facilitated planning at the leadership camps. Although their plans were supposed to have been shared with the rest of the school for more members to become involved and for better sustainability, this did not happen at all the schools. At Schools A and B the dream tree, which was a planning tool in the initial stages of HPS implementation, was shared with the rest of the staff and attempts were made to achieve some of the related objectives. However, School C's dream tree was lost, likely a reflection of the low priority that HPS had at the school despite the attempts of the school's HPS group to keep it going.

In summary, the findings of this study, which are supported by the literature, show that many of the factors influencing integration of HPS will in all likelihood also impact on its sustainability. Therefore, the better the integration of HPS as a whole-school approach, the higher the chances of HPS sustainability.

9.7 IMPLICATIONS OF BROADER CONTEXT CHALLENGES FOR HPS IMPLEMENTATION

The importance of context at different levels has been emphasised in both the literature and the findings of this study. Although this study focused on the school context itself, it is also

recognises some of the main broader challenges that likely impacted on the implementation of HPS in the case study schools.

The continuation of the colonial education system (Bloch, 2009; Christie et al., 2007; Prew, 2011) is apparent in the top down approach, the didactic way of teaching, the focus on numeracy and literacy and the preferences for individual level behaviour change activities where the students are expected to take responsibility for their own health. The initiatives that the external organisations in the case study schools have implemented are a reflection of such activities. Health topics are also covered in the lifeskills curriculum but it has been found that this inclusion could be detrimental to the broader HPS approach. Moynihan et al. (2016, p. 20) found that “focus on curriculum implementation of SPHE (*social and personal health education*) meant in effect that HPS were left to languish.” - emphasising the powerful role policy mandated from the top can play in influencing the way HPS is implemented. The top down approach of the current education system does not allow for much leeway for teachers’ practices. For example, how easy is it for teachers to empower students and build their capacity to participate meaningfully in their own development and the implementation of HPS? How much support (such as additional or specialised training) will teachers have from higher authorities to teach in a different way and to implement HPS? How much opportunity will the students have to voice their opinions and make recommendations? All this might be difficult in a rigid curriculum with set outcomes. The way the education system functions appears to be at odds with the empowerment principles of HPS, which suggests that teachers and students are not necessarily empowered to bring about changes at the school level.

The teachers are so conditioned to what is mandated for them that it seems to be difficult for them to work towards empowerment, especially where they have been disenfranchised for such a long time as was found by Berry et al. (2014). Although the teachers in this study attempted to empower the students and implement HPS the best way they saw fit, they were not fully skilled to do so. They were not supported by the school or the education authorities to develop their skills in this regard. Even those teachers who attended the HPS shortcourse did so without resource support from the schools. This again reflects that HPS is not high priority for the schools and highlights the barriers the teachers and students who want to implement HPS face.

The focus on behaviour change, does not take into consideration the heterogeneity of the school community or the macro level factors that might impact on the specific behaviour in question. This could lead to disillusionment of those whose needs have not been met. The question of how realistic the HPS approach can possibly be with the diverse needs and heterogeneity within a particular school comes to mind. This could be the reason that some of the teachers and students did not become involved in HPS.

Another issue is the demands on the school and especially the teachers who are usually meant to be the main implementers of HPS. How easy is it to implement HPS when there are so many competing demands from the education system and simultaneously having to cope with the increasing complexity of the health problems such as mental health that schools face today compared to the past (Gard & Wright, 2014)? In Europe, Australia and other Western countries which have a long history of adopting the HPS approach, HPS have mostly focused on addressing specific health issues focusing on the individual level (Lister-Sharpe, Chapman, Steward-Brown, & Sowden, 1999; Moynihan, Jourdan, & McNamara, 2016; Mũkoma & Flisher, 2004). This is indicative of health promotion practiced in schools as discrete activities rather than using a whole school approach aimed at organisational level change where structural and broader social changes should take place as well (Woodall et al., 2012), - showing that even in developed countries the whole school approach to HPS can be challenging. The findings in the current study show that the same held true for the case study schools where HPS was implemented as health promoting activities in the schools rather than change at the organisational level of the school.

As indicated before, another broader contextual challenge is that there seems to be a lack of political will from the education as well as the health sectors to work collaboratively for the health and well being of young people which is done on a superficial level only. All these broader contextual factors highlight the difficulty of implementing HPS as a whole school approach, raising the question of whether it is too idealistic to achieve in the challenging context such as the case study schools currently find themselves in.

9.8 LIMITATIONS

All research involves having to make some choices, for example, around research design, research setting, samples and data collection methods. In addition, research does not always go according to plan. This is especially true for qualitative research. Therefore, in any research process, even though issues of rigour have been addressed, there will always be some limitations to the study, as is illustrated in this section (Rule & John, 2011).

One key limitation to this study was that the full sample proposed for the study was not reached. Although the different constituencies that were proposed were represented in the final sample, I did not always have the individuals that I wanted in the sample, especially for the individual interviews. I had selected particular individuals to give specific information. However, their absence meant that that particular information was not acquired. For example, at School C I was not able to obtain a sample of students and teachers (apart from the lead teacher) for individual interviews, which meant that I missed out on obtaining their perceptions of the school and the HPS implementation process. A further limitation here was that I did not obtain the perspectives of the principal of School C, which would potentially have provided important information on the process of HPS implementation at the school, especially as they seemed to struggle to implement HPS. However, I am confident that despite these limitations I was still able to collect rich data, because the very fact that I had difficulty in getting these samples made me reflect on the school context itself and the possible reasons for their non-participation, thereby adding to my understanding of the implementation process.

The absence of other significant actors such as other school members, parents and education district officials could also be regarded as a limitation. The reason why these were not included in this study was that they were not directly involved in the implementation process of HPS (the main criteria for being included in the sample). The thinking behind this was seeing that the research was about the process of HPS implementation, they would not be in a position to comment because they were not directly involved in the implementation process. If, for example, the study had been about the impact of HPS, then they would have been included in the sample.

Another potential limitation to this study relates to its generalisability. There is some criticism of case study research in that it is difficult to generalise (Simons, 2009; Yin, 1999) . This study was context-specific, which limits the generalisability of the findings, as with any qualitative study. Furthermore, the subjective nature of the views expressed also limit the conclusions that can be drawn and may therefore lack generalisability beyond the three schools in question. However, understanding one case promotes understanding of similar cases and of general issues related to the phenomenon under study (Clarke et al., 2010). Simons (2009) argues that in case study research there is concern more for the transferability of findings to other contexts, or for use by other researchers, rather than for generalisability as it is understood in quantitative methods. If generalisability was important for this study, I would have chosen a different research design using quantitative methodology, where generalisation would have been possible. Given that HPS is a generic approach using a WHO framework, others will be able to interpret the lessons learnt in this study for their contexts, especially if they regard the study as rigorous.

The lessons learnt relate to the specific time period of this study, but can be applicable to other time periods. Another issue related to time is that the data collection time period was relatively short in relation to the lifespan of the project, which therefore could be seen as a limitation. Furthermore, the events and specific contextual issues that occurred within the timeframe of the research, such as the teachers' strike, were specific to that period, and so cannot be assumed to be typical of the study context.

The fact that I did not collect as much data from School C as from the other two schools could also be regarded as a limitation. However, there were still lessons to be learnt from School C – drawn from what was not happening at this school and from the difficulties in obtaining samples. Thereby School C provided further opportunity for examining what was normative, and therefore inferences could still be drawn about the implementation of HPS, based on the findings of all three cases.

There could be an additional limitation concerned with my role as a researcher. My dual role as both “insider” and “outsider”, as described earlier, could have resulted in some confusion for the participants and even for myself, which could be construed as a limitation. However, as noted

before, I was reflexive about these roles and explained the purpose of the study to the participants, and was open about my role as a researcher in addition to my role as a UWC team member. I also explained the importance of truthfulness in their responses. This addressed social desirability bias as well, because one disadvantage of interviews and FGDs is that the interviewee might say what s/he thinks the interviewer wants to hear, thus compromising the rigour of the study. Interviews can also be intrusive if not carefully handled, and therefore sensitivity towards the interviewee is important (Doody & Noonan, 2013), which I consciously strove for with the participants.

9.9 CONCLUSION

The findings of this study reveal that the factors influencing the implementation of HPS are varied and interrelated, due the complex nature of HPS as well the complex school system and its multiple levels of influence that all impact on each other. The conceptual framework introduced early on in this thesis, which is a combination of the settings approach in health promotion and several implementation constructs, shows this complexity and the factors that could possibly impact on effective implementation. The findings reveal that the factors as presented in the conceptual framework are also the factors that impacted on the implementation of HPS in this study. Although the framework is shown in a somewhat linear fashion, the findings indicate that the factors are interrelated and impact on one another.

When looking at it from the socio-ecological aspect of the settings approach, the external influences at the macro level included those of the DoH and DoE, especially with regard to support for HPS. At the community level, the factors included the socio-economic and social contexts in which the schools were situated. At the organisational level of the schools, the factors were related to the various implementation factors referred to in the conceptual framework, and the different levels within the school systems according to their hierarchy (the school leadership and management, the teachers, HPS champions and the students) and how all these influenced one another in terms of systems thinking in the settings approach.

With regard to the whole-school approach, integration occurred differentially in the three schools, if at all. Integration was closely linked to the implementation climate: the better the

implementation climate, the higher the chance of integration was. This was as a result of the internal factors such as the school context, including the different relationships in the school and school readiness for change, leadership and management role and support, the lead teachers' champion role, and the availability of resources. External factors that are likely to have influenced the integration of HPS were support from the district, the shared understanding of HPS and its benefits between the health and education sectors, the role and support of the UWC team as an external catalyst for change, and the involvement of parents. The factors that influenced integration also had implications for the sustainability of HPS.

The implication for HPS in South Africa and elsewhere with similar contexts, is that unless there is political will to creating an environment in which a whole school approach to HPS can be realised and its value and potential appreciated by all the necessary stakeholders, it will be an uphill battle for those who want to implement HPS, especially in conjunction with all the other challenges highlighted in this thesis and elsewhere. It can therefore be concluded that in resource-limited settings such as those described in this study, although there are many positive factors, there are also many challenging factors impacting on each other, especially the macro level factors which will make the implementation, integration and sustainability of HPS as a whole-school approach especially difficult to achieve. However, this does not imply that HPS should not be attempted, particularly where there are adverse conditions that would benefit from HPS. Starting with marginal changes can be effective in increasing the schools' readiness for change, building on the achievements both in activities and structures, and the resultant increased commitment by those involved. Once they experience these changes it will more likely enable schools to incrementally attempt more complex changes progressively striving towards full implementation of HPS as whole school approach. It is a goal worth pursuing for the healthy development of South African youth as future citizens to make a meaningful contribution to society.

The next chapter, which is the final chapter, gives an overview of the key findings. It also underscores the significance of the research and gives recommendations based on the findings. Finally, suggestions for further research are made.



10 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

10.1 CONCLUSION

This final chapter gives an overview of the research and conclusions drawn from the findings. The significance of the study is then outlined, followed by recommendations based on the findings and finally recommendations for further research.

This study was conducted because there was a gap in information on the factors influencing implementation of HPS in SA and more specifically in secondary schools. The aim of this research was to explore and understand the implementation process of HPS and its complexity in three secondary schools in a resource-limited setting in Cape Town. Its objectives were as follows:

5. To review the processes involved in implementing HPS with regard to activities, plans and policies.
6. To explore the enablers and challenges influencing the implementation of HPS.
7. To explore the experience and perceptions of various actors regarding their involvement with the implementation of HPS at their respective schools.
8. To explore the different actors' perceptions about the most appropriate strategies for the sustainability of the HPS approach in these schools.

The study was grounded in an extensive literature review. The settings approach and implementation components from selected implementation frameworks and models informed the conceptual framework of this study which was used to analyse the findings.

A qualitative multiple case study design was employed using interviews, FGDs, opportunistic observations and documentary review as data collection methods for this study. Three schools in a resource-limited setting were selected as the individual cases. The samples were chosen from the study populations of teachers and students directly involved with HPS, the principals and the school facilitators.

The findings of this study revealed that the process of HPS implementation is complex. A combination of factors and their interrelatedness created an implementation climate that was simultaneously both positive and challenging. This situation highlights the complexity of implementing HPS in a school system which is also complex. It is clear that even though the reasons for deciding to implement of HPS were sound and similar across the schools, various contextual and unforeseen factors and the dynamic nature of the HPS approach can make the effectiveness of HPS implementation unpredictable and variable.

The findings revealed that the most challenging aspect of the HPS implementation process was integrating it as whole-school approach. HPS was not fully integrated as a whole-school approach as it did not become an integral part of the normal functioning of the schools to any great extent. Rather, HPS was mostly implemented as discrete activities without placing them in the overall context or policy environment of the school. The findings clearly indicate that there were tensions during the implementation of HPS. It is evident that compromises were made in order not to disturb the existing school processes significantly, which is in contradiction to the high readiness for change which the schools displayed, and which were significant factors in the selection of the schools in the first place. This suggests that even though they thought they were ready for change, once they realised the implications of the actual change, no matter how valuable and beneficial they knew it would be, they became reluctant to attempt the whole-school approach for HPS implementation. The schools were not fully able to overcome many of the barriers and therefore it was easier to implement and support discrete HPS activities as this did not require too much change to the routine school processes. By contrast, an attempt at a whole-school approach would have required much more effort as the whole school would have had to be involved in transforming the way the schools functioned.

One major factor influencing the poor integration of HPS was the limited understanding of the whole-school approach of HPS by the teachers, principal, school management structures and students. A key aspect related to understanding of HPS was the tension between academic priorities, which did not leave time for HPS, and addressing the well-being of the students simultaneously through the HPS approach. Even where the schools' readiness for change was

high, and where there was recognition of the need for HPS to address the well-being of the students, they still marginalised HPS in comparison to the academic programme. This suggests that there was little understanding about how the whole-school approach could enhance the students' learning. HPS was mostly regarded as another 'club' at the school with discrete activities. This resulted in the majority of teachers not being directly involved, and consequently insufficient collaboration, cooperation and commitment for HPS. Because there was a lack of understanding by those in positions of leadership and management (and especially the principal), HPS was not duly acknowledged as part of the normal functions of the school. It is only when the actors and potential actors at the different levels of the school system have a full understanding of the HPS approach, that they will be ready for the required change and have a sense of ownership of the process - a prerequisite required for HPS integration. The above limitations inevitably had an impact on the way HPS was perceived and therefore implemented.

The findings also revealed that the principals' leadership style, support and influence played a significant role in the schools' ability to implement HPS. They did not use their power and influence with internal and external stakeholders sufficiently to facilitate HPS implementation and integration. The principals' minimal support, especially in terms of resources such as allowing time for HPS activities, the capacity building of teachers and putting policies and structures in place, and a lack of sustained focus on the HPS implementation process, further inhibited integration. The principals did not encourage commitment, collaboration and cooperation amongst the staff members for HPS implementation, and no attempt was made to develop a policy related to HPS or to make it part of the school management agenda. If this had been done, the significance and value would have been appreciated more fully, and more teachers and students might have become involved - the result would have been better integration.

Another significant factor was that the HPS champions, as operational leaders of HPS, did not seem to have the ability to influence many of their peers to become involved with HPS. This was especially apparent in the schools where the working relationship between the teachers was not good and also the autocratic leadership style of the principal, an indication of organisational-level factors influencing those at individual-level. Even where there were good relationships,

problems emerged. This was evident in particular when the champion had characteristics which disempowered teachers and/or students, with negative implications for HPS implementation and integration.

Another consequence of the lack of integration into the functioning of the whole school was the lack of capacity building to assist the teachers' and students' to implement HPS. Although the study revealed that building the capacity of those directly involved with HPS occurred to some degree, the benefits were more at the individual level of the students, with them experiencing personal and interpersonal growth, rather than at the organisational level. The teachers too would have benefited from learning how to integrate HPS better so that it became part of the routine functioning and processes of the school. There would also have been an increased chance of integration if the HPS teachers knew how to improve their relationships with their peers by building more trust and transparency through better communication. In this way collective action through better collaboration, commitment and cooperation for HPS implementation could have been encouraged. Organisations, including schools are made up of individuals and it is important to realise that it is only when the individuals are ready for change, within a structure that is also ready for change, that they will be able to act as collective to bring about change.

One key finding related to capacity building, was the challenge of continuity when a key person (such as the HPS champion) was to leave HPS. This had implications for the quality of implementation and sustainability especially if that individual carried most of the responsibility for HPS implementation, which would not have happened if a whole-school approach had been taken. On the other hand, where responsibilities were shared, there was more possibility for integration into the school. Therefore, the leadership capacity of more individuals at different levels (teachers and students) has to be built to be able to complement, and, if required, succeed those in leadership positions.

Even though the focus of this study was on the school itself, the external contextual factors cannot be ignored because of their impact on the internal context. Of major significance were the adverse socio-economic, including poverty related factors external to the school, as these influenced the schools' readiness for change and their ability to implement HPS. The historical

inequities, the limited resources, the consistent threat of gangsterism, drugs and violence in the surrounding community, negatively impacted on the ability of the schools to implement HPS effectively.

Another challenging external factor was the minimal support received from the district, especially in terms of resources and policy. Furthermore, the education and health sectors did not work in collaboration to facilitate HPS implementation, with each sector having their own policies, although similar, for the well-being of students. This highlights the difficulty that HPS faces because these two sectors working in collaboration is a significant factor for effective implementation.

Parental involvement although perceived to be important, was another external challenge. Their involvement could have enhanced the schools' readiness for change and the implementation climate because they could have been valuable resources for HPS implementation. The unforeseen influences such as the teachers' strike also impacted negatively on the schools' ability to implement HPS as these factors derailed plans that had already been made. This demonstrates how unpredictable the HPS implementation process can be because of changing contexts, even when systems and structures are in place.

Despite the various challenges, the schools implemented HPS to the best of their ability within their individual school contexts. The findings indicated that there were several enablers that facilitated the implementation of HPS, illustrating the resilience shown by the schools. A key enabling factor was the schools' recognition of the compatibility and adaptability (values-innovations fit) of HPS with their own vision and needs, which is one of the main reasons that the schools committed themselves to HPS. This positively influenced their readiness for change, albeit within the constraints described. Where there was better understanding of the HPS approach of those involved and of the principal, and where there was high readiness for change, it was easier to implement HPS. In addition, where the teachers and students felt that they had the support of the principal and their peers even if not actively involved throughout, they felt confident that they had the ability to implement and sustain HPS to some degree. Having a strong team of passionate, committed and motivated HPS teachers and especially having a HPS champion in the

school were positive steps for creating a conducive implementation climate. Where a culture of collaboration and cooperation also existed at the schools, especially amongst teachers, and where the students were encouraged to participate meaningfully, it gave a sense of group efficacy, which further created an enabling implementation climate.

A key finding was the significant contribution that the students made to the implementation process. The students were found to be key assets because, with support from adults, they had the potential to take responsibility for many of the practices and processes of HPS implementation. Student participation and building their capacity should, in future, therefore be one of the main considerations when implementing HPS in secondary schools.

The findings showed that the enabling external factors that were in place also influenced the implementation process. The UWC team including the school facilitator, as external catalysts for change and with its participatory approaches, provided technical support and mentored the lead teachers and HPS committees during the process - of significance was that the team did so by encouraging ownership, rather than leading the process. Another external enabling factor was the support of organisations and stakeholders with regard to resources including services provided for students, which the schools would ordinarily not have been able to afford financially. This was particularly valuable, especially given the challenging socio-economic context of the schools.

In the schools where all these positive factors occurred in combination, they seemed to have developed a sense of group efficacy and ownership of the process, demonstrated in the achievements and the commitment that was shown from those involved to continue with HPS implementation, despite simultaneously experiencing certain challenges. On the other hand, in the school where the negative factors outweighed the positive factors, the commitment to continue was compromised and sustainability was questionable.

It can be concluded that the internal school context was instrumental in shaping the implementation climate for HPS with experiences ranging from positive to challenging. A feature of the settings approach is that the different levels of a system including the external context all influence one another bi-directionally. There was evidence in this study that apart

from individual level enablers and challenges, there were also organisational and macro level enablers and challenges. A combination of these factors and their interrelatedness, although occurring to varying degrees and in different ways at each school, made the practices and processes for integration of HPS as a whole-school approach more challenging at all three schools. The findings also revealed that if the factors that facilitated integration were in place then sustainability of HPS would also be more achievable. This study concludes that even if individual enabling factors exist, it is the combination of these factors and how they interact with and relate to one another in specific contexts that will determine the extent to which HPS implementation will be effective or not.

Considering the complexity of the many challenging factors that the schools faced, there is evidence that even the small changes had some positive impact on individuals and the schools as whole. These changes are significant and need to be recognised and celebrated, particularly given the challenging contexts in which HPS operate. The role that the students played and the positive effects that they experienced should also be an incentive for secondary schools to implement HPS. These changes should therefore be used to encourage the schools to take HPS forward as a worthwhile development for the benefit of the whole school but in a way that will be realistic within their individual school contexts. This might mean that a whole-school approach might only be feasible in the long term but should still be something to strive for in HPS.

While external catalysts can help facilitate the process it is only if the school community as a whole is willing and able to take the necessary patient steps can long term worthwhile change happen. The lessons from HPS endeavours both nationally and internationally provide pointers, but each school needs to develop and strengthen HPS behaviour and sense of community for those involved. However, these are only possible within the limitations of the extent that they are understood and supported by those who have power and influence at the macro level of mainly the education and health sector.

The uniqueness of this study lies in the fact that there are a limited number of studies on HPS in secondary schools in general, and no studies on the process of HPS implementation in SA are

available to date. This research will therefore contribute new knowledge of HPS implementation in SA by sharing an understanding of the complexity of the various factors that can either enable or hinder the process. This will be of value to the relevant SA Government Departments such as DoH, DoE and Department of Social Development which can benefit from schools that implement the HPS approach, especially its contribution to whole-school development.

The lessons learnt will also be of value to the wider field of HPS implementation. Because of the paucity of literature on the process of HPS implementation in secondary schools specifically, and in a developing country context, this research contributes to the knowledge of the international community on the factors influencing the process of HPS implementation in such contexts.

Significantly this study places the HPS in a wider context, the schools' readiness for change and the implementation climate for HPS, which in turn is influenced by the context of the school. Most of the literature on HPS implementation identifies similar factors to those found in this study, but many of them do not discuss the complexity of these factors. This study has attempted to do that, thereby taking the debate on the complexity of the factors influencing HPS implementation forward.

In addition, the findings in this study were derived from qualitative methods, whereas most of the research on HPS implementation to date has been quantitative (although this is starting to change). Therefore more in-depth analysis and interpretation was possible, contributing to a better understanding of the complexities, relationships and processes of the factors influencing the implementation of HPS and their impact, which was the purpose of this study.

10.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

According to Tagivakatini & Waqanivalu (2012, p. 13): "The success of health promotion can be measured in terms of the extent to which it becomes integrated into national governments' planning and funding, into ministry of education policies and priorities, and into school ethos, behaviour, and activities." Achieving all this might be demanding for HPS in SA, especially judging from the findings of this study. However, based on the key findings and suggestions made by the participants, I propose the following key recommendations mainly aimed at the

school level that might move HPS in SA and beyond towards the path that these authors recommend. These recommendations would not only add to the success of the implementation but also the sustainability of HPS. Although these recommendations are aimed at implementation of HPS in South African schools, many of them are generic and could therefore be applicable to similar contexts elsewhere.

10.2.1 Increase the understanding of HPS of various actors

The first recommendation is to increase the understanding of HPS of the education sector from the school to the district to increase their readiness for change. Understanding needs to be built before and throughout implementation, so that they have a full understanding of not only the whole-school approach of HPS, but also the roles and responsibilities that accompany it. These will differ according to the level at which the different actors function, and these distinctions also need to be clarified. A better understanding of the benefits of HPS and opportunities for further student and whole-school development needs to be created amongst those at the school level. This will encourage the involvement of more members of the school community (principal, teachers, students and parents). In order to achieve better involvement, when HPS is being initiated, it must be clarified that HPS implementation is an iterative process, starting with where the school is at; in other words, the school's readiness for change should be carefully considered, in keeping with the specific school context, so that they do not become overwhelmed. Create understanding through marketing and profiling of HPS on a regular basis in schools in the form of feedback on activities and achievements, using the health calendar to highlight issues, through drama presentations and inclusion in the curriculum.

The external policy climate is important for HPS implementation and integration and the district can play a key role in this regard. Therefore create better understanding at the district level throughout its hierarchy. There will be those working directly in the schools (the circuit team), such as educational psychologists and social workers, who will have operational roles and responsibilities, whereas those at the managerial level to whom the circuit team is accountable, will have influence over policies and the roles and responsibilities of the circuit team. The

understanding at the district level can be increased through meetings and seminars between those implementing HPS and the district officials responsible for those schools.

10.2.2 Increase and sustain the principals' engagement with HPS

The second recommendation is for the principals to promote more active participation of the school members to increase their readiness for change and enhance the implementation climate. This can be done in terms of making resources available, especially time, and policies that can enhance participation. The principal in his/her capacity, as leader and manager of the school, should use his/her networking ability to acquire additional needed resources. The principal should also take some responsibility for creating a culture of collaboration and cooperation, especially amongst teachers and teachers and students, where this does not already exist; this together with better understanding and capacity building, will most likely create an enabling environment for HPS implementation. The capacity of the principals will also need to be built if they do not have the skills to fulfill their role in HPS implementation. What is important is that the principal should have a sustained focus on HPS in order keep HPS on the school's agenda. If this is not done, then the rest of the school might lose focus too.

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10.2.3 Develop and implement HPS related policies at schools

The third recommendation is for the development and implementation of a school HPS policy or policies related to HPS. The policies should be developed with representatives of all members of the school community and should include issues that are relevant to a specific school context, to encourage buy-in and ownership; this is likely to increase integration and sustainability. To include HPS into the mandatory school improvement plans will be one way of ensuring that HPS is better integrated into the routine functioning of the schools. Another aspect that that can be included in policy is the requirement that all teachers be involved. Although this might seem like a top-down approach, if it is made clear that participation should be in an area of interest or expertise of an individual teacher, then it might be more amenable to the wider teacher body in the school.

10.2.4 Build the capacity of various actors in the school

The fourth recommendation is to build the capacity of those who want to be or are directly involved in HPS implementation; in secondary schools; this would mainly be the teachers and students. The capacity building of teachers and especially the champions, should include: knowing how to implement HPS as a whole school-approach (not just as discrete activities); and how to build relationships and trust and have the ability to involve others in the school gain their commitment, which would encourage better integration. This will be better achieved with improved leadership from the principal and with relevant policies, as noted above.

Building the leadership skills and empowerment of students is especially pertinent for the practices of HPS in secondary schools. They are at a stage in their development where they are able to act autonomously and make decisions that are relevant to their needs. This is important seeing that they are the main target audience for HPS and many interventions are aimed at them. If they are given sufficient autonomy with, at the same guidance from adults, then they can develop a sense of agency and ability to implement HPS. In this way they will be able to carry a major part of the responsibility themselves; this is especially important in light of the increasing academic workload burden that teachers have, who usually also carry the load of implementing HPS.

10.2.5 Share responsibility for HPS implementation amongst a core team of champions

A fifth recommendation is to have more than one HPS champion in the school. A core team of champions is more likely to be able to integrate and sustain HPS better because of mutual support and sharing of responsibilities. This will ensure that HPS does not become a burden on a single individual. However, it is pertinent that they have the characteristics of a champion to fulfill their roles adequately.

10.2.6 Plan effectively for HPS implementation

The sixth recommendation is to focus on effective planning which can take place once there is good understanding amongst and capacity building of those to be involved. Clearly defined roles,

responsibilities and agreed processes, particularly for delegation of tasks is essential to ensure that processes run smoothly. This should be achieved through good communication and transparency and the collaborative efforts of the actors at the different levels of the school hierarchy. When planning for HPS, a succession plan for teachers and students should be considered to ensure continuity and sustainability.

10.2.7 Mobilise active support of district

The seventh recommendation is to mobilise the active support of the district. Support should be in the form of inclusion of HPS in their policies. This means that it should be included in their plans for schools. In this way, resources can be allocated for HPS implementation thereby avoiding duplication of activities. In addition, if there is a policy related to HPS at the district level, then schools will be encouraged to implement HPS because of accountability to the district. However, this will only be possible if their understanding of HPS and its benefits for academic achievement is built, as alluded to already.

Even though the study did not focus on the role of the DoH, it is useful to consider their role at district level in HPS implementation, seeing that school health is one of the key strategies in the new Re-engineering Primary Health Care approach in SA. HPS should serve as the vehicle for delivering school health which should not only provide curative and preventive services but should also include health promotion.

10.2.8 Mobilise external catalysts for HPS implementation

The eighth recommendation is to mobilise external catalysts for HPS implementation. It is evident from the findings that the UWC team and especially the school facilitator were instrumental in playing such a role. The external catalyst can be a “critical friend” with HPS expertise by serving as an advocate, mentor, guide and giving technical support. This will make the schools feel that they are not on their own but that they will have support in the implementation process.

10.2.9 Celebrate HPS achievements

The final recommendation is to acknowledge the HPS achievements by publicly celebrating them. This will be in recognition of the fact that no matter how small, the schools can realistically achieve something despite the challenges that they face. Platforms such as school assemblies, parents' meetings, valedictory services etc. can be used, where not only the school members are present but also the wider community to show what can be achieved even in adverse contexts. It is also important that the principal highlight such achievements at other platforms such as principals' forum and district meetings and in this way put HPS onto the relevant agendas.

10.2.10 Recommendations for future research

Seeing that there is a gap in HPS implementation research in SA, I suggest that more research needs to be carried out in this area especially on what makes secondary schools resilient in challenging context so that HPS initiatives can built around such lessons.

This study revealed that there is great promise for secondary school students to be significant actors in the implementation process. More research needs to be conducted on how their participation can be meaningful for them and for HPS.

The minimal involvement of the district in this study warrants research as to why this is the case in SA and what can be done to improve this situation, especially with regard to working with the health sector to advance HPS.

This study did not include teachers who were not involved in HPS implementation. However, it will be useful to gain their perceptions of HPS implementation in order to ascertain reasons for their lack of involvement and how this could be remedied.

Parental involvement proved to be a significant challenge and although the reasons are mostly known, research on solutions on how to remedy this situation is needed.

Research should also be conducted on the sustainability of HPS, especially where external actors are the main initiators of HPS and will not be permanently involved.



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12 APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: HPS ACTIVITIES AT THREE SCHOOLS

Table A: School A HPS Activities over the course of the Project

ACTIVITY	PURPOSE	RESPONSIBILITY
HPS school committee formed comprising of students, teachers, vice principal and parents	To oversee the implementation of HPS at the school.	Lead teacher
School Improvement Plan (SIPS) analysed	To see how HPS could be integrated into the school's SIPS	Member of UWC Team
Feeding scheme initiated	Caters for four to five hundred students every day. Students given porridge in morning and cooked meal at first break with fruit. Ladies from the community do the cooking.	HPS committee
Fund-raising	To contribute towards the feeding scheme and for benches for the feeding scheme. Students organised a "Casual Day" to raise funds for people with disabilities	HPS committee
Toilet maintenance	Responsible for seeing that the toilets were kept clean and properly maintained.	Group of HPS students
Monitoring of littering on school	Responsible for seeing that there was no littering on the school premises.	Group of HPS students

ground

Anti-bullying efforts	To address bullying amongst students.	Group of HPS students
Buddy system	A teacher would leave a motivational message for another teacher. Students also tried it.	Lead teacher HPS students
Health calendar	Activities used to highlight certain days, e.g. TB tests done for TB day.	HPS committee
Women's Day celebration	A student drew a teacher's name and gave that teacher a chocolate showing his/her appreciation for what the teachers were doing.	HPS committee
Students visit to HPS school in squatter settlement	To expose the students to another resource limited community and an HPS school.	A member of the UWC Team and some foreign students
HCT at the school	Local clinic providing service.	Lead teacher
Dental awareness	Local clinic providing service.	Lead teacher
HIV NGO visit	To demonstrate and sell their handiwork exposing the school to PLWA.	Lead teacher
Recycling project	To recycle paper as a means of fundraising.	HPS committee
Teacher wellbeing workshop	To provide an opportunity for reflection on staff health promotion and well-being. Share some promising practices to support the well-being and mental health of staff within the context of HIV and TB.	School facilitator and UWC Team

	To identify staff needs for support within a HPS context.	
Fun squad	To overcome leisure boredom	OT students

Table B: School B HPS Activities over the course of the Project

ACTIVITY	PURPOSE	RESPONSIBILITY
HPS school committee formed comprising of students, teachers, and parents	To oversee the implementation of HPS at the school.	Lead teacher
Feeding scheme	Caters for over 200 students from all grades on a daily basis. Cooked meals are served during second break in the home economics room. A community member does the cooking.	Group of HPS students volunteered their time to help serve food and clean up afterwards. Responsible teacher
First-aid project	To get students to participate in administering first aid in the event of any accident or injury. Students are sent on free first aid training annually.	Group of HPS students and teacher responsible for First-aid
Database project	To gather information about all the relevant service providers and create a database that makes the details of these service providers accessible to the greater school community. At the time of data collection, they were still in the process of capturing the relevant data.	Group of HPS students and teacher responsible for database
Recycling project	The recycling project not only helps with keeping the school clean, but it is also a source of extra income for the school.	Group of HPS students and teacher responsible for recycling
Hosted soccer tournament	To host an event that brings the three HPS schools together and encourages them to work together.	HPS committee
OT students implementing HPS activities as part of their community placement	To facilitate various life skills group sessions with students To plan a market day where the learners, in collaboration with organisations within the community, would host this event to create	UWC Team member, lead teacher, students

	awareness to the greater school community	
TB awareness campaign		HPS committee
Cleaning up campaign	To clean up area surrounding school in conjunction with a nearby primary school as part of social responsibility.	HPS committee
Placement of green bins	Bins placed all over school to improve littering.	Principal

Table C: School C HPS Activities over the course of the Project

ACTIVITY	PURPOSE	RESPONSIBILITY
Arbour day	Each class planted a tree to celebrate arbour day and to raise awareness of importance of day. Each class was meant to be responsible for their own tree.	Representative Council of Learners (RCL)
Motivational talk	An ex-student who now manages one of the Mediclinic pharmacies gave talk to inspire students to show what is possible.	Lead teacher
Two teacher wellbeing workshops (2009/2010)	<p>Provide an opportunity for reflection on staff health promotion and well-being.</p> <p>Share some promising practices to support the well-being and mental health of staff within the context of HIV and TB.</p> <p>Identify staff needs for support within a HPS context.</p>	School facilitator and school nurse
TB awareness drama	To raise awareness of TB with HPS students doing role play for the whole school.	Medical students and HPS group
First aid training		Medical students
Emergency and services contact details placed in each classroom	To raise awareness of the school of the services that are available in the community.	
Recycling		HPS group

Table D: Joint Activities amongst Schools A, B and C over the course of the project

ACTIVITY	PURPOSE	RESPONSIBILITY
Student camps (annually)	<p>To impart skills to students that encourage leadership and empowerment including self-esteem/ assertiveness/decision-making</p> <p>To facilitate teambuilding amongst students within individual schools and across the three schools.</p> <p>To deepen the understanding of Health Promoting Schools in students.</p> <p>To increase knowledge about HIV and TB. To have fun.</p>	UWC Team
Camp reunions (annually) attended by HPS students and their parents , HPS teachers	<p>To reunite the students from the three schools who attended the leadership camp the previous year.</p> <p>Provide parents and teachers with an understanding of what the HPS camp was about.</p> <p>Share interschool plans made at the camp Inform parents about the HPS Project and HPS concepts, and identify parents' needs, and ways in which they could become involved.</p>	UWC Team
Teacher camp	<p>To reflect on roles and responsibilities as HPS key staff members.</p> <p>To building capacity to manage the change process.</p> <p>To strengthen relationships between key staff members.</p> <p>To participate in self-care and nurturing activities.</p>	UWC Team
Photo voice project	To explore what students understand Health Promoting Schools to be. Students from all three schools participated.	HPS facilitator and foreign university students
Gender awareness workshop	To raise gender awareness amongst the students.	A member of the UWC Team
School climate	To gain the schools' perception of their school as	UWC Team

survey	a HPS. Conducted by the UWC Team which had developed a monitoring tool for that purpose.	
TB march	To march through the community to raise awareness of TB.	School C HPS group as main organisers
Soccer tournament	To bring the broader community together and raise awareness of TB and HIV. The theme for the tournament was "kick TB and HIV with a soccer ball". Each school had a Team competing with separate male and female Teams.	School B HPS group as main organisers
Interschool HPS meetings (to discuss sustainability once a quarter)	To acknowledge themselves and what they had done. To share plans and support needs.	UWC Team
TB policy workshop	To develop a TB policy for each school. UWC facilitated the workshop and schools had to work on their own thereafter to develop the policy in participation with others in their school. (However, a TB policy was not developed further at any of the schools)	UWC Team
Facebook page set up	To allow schools to communicate with one another	HPS students
Parent workshop (attended by students and parents – but poorly attended)	To develop a community of parents who are part of HPS. To develop communication skills of parents / guardians and adolescent children. To facilitate communication around sexuality and HIV.	UWC Team

APPENDIX 2: STUDENT FGD GUIDE

TOPIC RELATED TO OBJECTIVES	DISCUSSION GUIDE
<p>Perceptions of school context</p>	<p>Tel us about your school:</p> <p>The vision of the school; resources; relationships (amongst students; students and teachers; challenges; what works well at your school; leadership and management; community engagement.</p>
<p>What are the perceptions and experiences of the HPS students regarding the development of HPS?</p>	<p>Describe the journey that you have been on in HPS: Different experiences you have had along the way. List on blue paper.</p>
<p>What are the facilitating and challenging factors that influenced the implementation of HPS?</p>	<p>When you go on a journey there are things that fast-track your trip – positives, e.g. Maps, car in good condition, food for the road, etc. What has helped, supported you in your HPS journey? List on green paper.</p> <p>When you go on a journey, there are things that may be barriers along the way – challenges, e.g. Mist, rainy weather, tree across the road, animals crossing the road, heavy traffic, etc. What was challenging on your HPS journey? What was difficult? List on red paper.</p>
<p>What recommendations can be made from lessons learnt?</p>	<p>What advice would you give others when they travel? :</p> <p>If other students came to chat with you about beginning to focus on developing as a HPS, what might you say to them that would make their journey be a smooth one?</p> <p>List on flip chart.</p>

APPENDIX 3

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHERS DIRECTLY INVOLVED WITH THE HPS PROJECT

1. Tell me a bit about the surrounding community
2. Tell me a bit about your school
3. What is happening wrt HPS at your school?
 - a. *Probe for:*
 - i. Different HPS project activities and also other HP related activities
 - ii. Whether they went according to plan – (what worked) why/(what did not work) why not
 - iii. The enablers e.g.:
 1. Support from principal and other staff
 2. Available resources
 3. Commitment of HPS key people
 - iv. Challenges e.g.:
 1. Lack of time
 2. Limited resources
 3. Other priorities
 4. Lack of support from key actors e.g district, peers
4. In which way has the HPS approach influenced your school as a whole? (If any)
 - a. *Probe for any change:*
 - i. Impact on learners, teachers, functioning of school, school ethos, culture, environment etc?
 - ii. Why these changes were made possible
5. Why do you think people became involved with HPS?
6. What was your experience working with the others in the school on the project?
 - a. *Probe for:*
 - i. Trust, autonomy, ownership, ways of working together

7. What was your experience working with the other schools on the projects?
 - a. *Probe for relationship building*
 - b. *Ways of working together*
8. Is there anything that you think should be done differently wrt to the implementation of HPS? Can you explain why and how.
9. Do you think HPS should be continued at your school? Why/why not
10. How do you see your school in 5 years' time if you continue developing it as an HPS?
11. Is there anything else that you want to share with me wrt HPS?



APPENDIX 4

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR STUDENTS INVOLVED WITH THE HPS PROJECT

1. Tell me a bit about your community
2. Tell me a bit about your school
3. What is happening wrt HPS at your school?
 - a. *Probe for:*
 - i. Different HPS project activities and also other HP related activities
 - ii. Whether they went according to plan – (what worked/ why?) (what did not work/ why not?)
 - iii. The enablers e.g.:
 1. Support from principal, staff and peers
 2. Available resources
 3. Commitment of HPS key people
 - iv. Challenges e.g.:
 1. Lack of time
 2. Limited resources
 3. Other priorities
 4. Lack of support e.g. peers, teachers
4. In which way has the HPS approach influenced your school as a whole? (If any)
 - a. *Probe for any change:*
 - i. Impact on learners, teachers, functioning of school, school ethos, culture, environment etc?
 - ii. Why these changes were made possible
5. What was your experience working with the others in the school on the project?
 - a. *Probe for:*
 - i. Trust, autonomy, ownership, ways of working together
6. Why do you think people became involved with HPS?

7. What was your experience working with the other schools on the projects?
 - a. *Probe for relationship building*
 - b. *Ways of working together*
8. Is there anything that you think should be done differently wrt to the implementation of HPS? Can you explain why and how.
9. Do you think HPS should be continued at your school? Why/why not
10. How do you see your school in 5 years' time if you continue developing it as an HPS?
11. Is there anything else that you want to share with me wrt HPS?

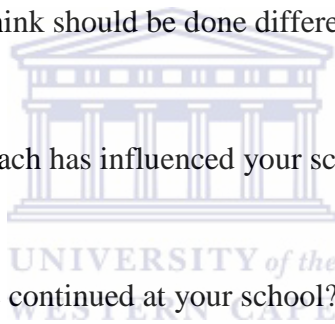


APPENDIX 5

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR PRINCIPALS

Probe as needed

1. Tell me a bit about the surrounding community
2. Tell me a bit about your school
3. Tell me about your experiences with the HPS project
4. Tell me about your perceptions of HPS
5. Can you tell me what you think makes people become involved in HPS?
6. Is there anything that you think should be done differently? Can you explain why and how?
7. Do you think the HPS approach has influenced your school as a whole, if yes –how, if not – why do you think not?
8. Do you think HPS should be continued at your school? Why/why not
9. If yes, do you have any thoughts on how HPS can be continued at your school?



APPENDIX 6: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET



UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa

Tel: +27 21-959, Fax: 27 21-959

INFORMATION SHEET

Project Title: FACTORS INFLUENCING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF HEALTH PROMOTING SCHOOLS: A MULTIPLE CASE STUDY OF THREE SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN A RESOURCE LIMITED COMMUNITY IN CAPE TOWN

What is this study about?

This is a research project being conducted by Suraya Mohamed at the University of the Western Cape. The researcher is inviting you to participate in this research project because you have been involved in the health promoting schools (HPS) project. The purpose of this research project is to explore the factors influencing the development of HPS, with the view to gaining more understanding of what worked and what did not work and why, when secondary schools develop as HPS in disadvantaged areas. The knowledge gained from the research will be of benefit to both the Health and Education sectors.

What will I be asked to do if I agree to participate?

You will be asked to participate in either an interview or focus group discussion. The researcher will do this herself. You will be asked to describe your experience with the HPS project. These interviews or discussions will be tape recorded with your permission. The interviews or focus group discussions will take place at the school. It will take about one hour.

Would my participation in this study be kept confidential?

The researcher will do her best to keep your personal information confidential. To help protect your confidentiality, your interview will be given a code. The name of your school will not be disclosed. If we write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected to the maximum extent possible. It is legally required and for professional standards, that we disclose to the appropriate people information that comes to our attention concerning child abuse or neglect or potential harm to you or others.

What are the risks of this research?

There are no known risks associated with participating in this research project.

What are the benefits of this research?

This research is not designed to help you personally, but the results may help the investigator learn more about how your school can develop as a HPS. We hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study through a better understanding of how schools can develop as HPS in order to improve the health and wellbeing of everybody involved with the school and this will in turn have a positive impact on society.

Do I have to be in this research and may I stop participating at any time?

Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to participate in this research, you may stop participating at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalized or lose any benefits to which you otherwise qualify.

Is any assistance available if I am negatively affected by participating in this study?

No negative effects are anticipated but should this occur, every effort will be made to ensure that assistance is provided for participants who are negatively affected,

What if I have questions?

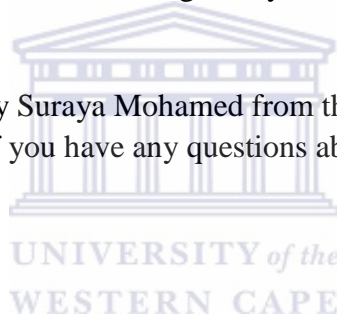
This research is being conducted by Suraya Mohamed from the School of Public Health at the University of the Western Cape. If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact :

Suraya Mohamed

School of Public Health

0219592809

Email: sumohamed@uwc.ac.za



Should you have any questions regarding this study and your rights as a research participant or if you wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact:

Head of Department: Dr Uta Lehmann

Email: ulehmann@uwc.ac.za

Telephone: 0219592809

Dean of the Faculty of Community and Health Sciences: Prof Ratie Mpofu

Email: rmpofu@uwc.ac.za

Telephone: 0219592631

University of the Western Cape

Private Bag X17

Bellville 7535

This research has been approved by the University of the Western Cape's Senate Research Committee and Ethics Committee.

APPENDIX 7: INFORMATION SHEET FOR PARENTS



UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa

Tel: +27 21-959, Fax: 27 21-959

INFORMATION SHEET FOR PARENTS

Project Title: FACTORS INFLUENCING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF HEALTH PROMOTING SCHOOLS: A MULTIPLE CASE STUDY OF THREE SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN A RESOURCE LIMITED COMMUNITY IN CAPE TOWN

What is this study about?

This is a research project being conducted by Suraya Mohamed at the University of the Western Cape. The researcher is inviting your child to participate in this research project because he/she has been involved in the health promoting schools (HPS) project. The purpose of this research project is to explore the factors influencing the development of HPS, with the view to gaining more understanding of what worked or not and why in developing secondary schools as HPS in disadvantaged areas. The knowledge gained from the research will be of benefit to both the Health and Education sectors.

What will your child be asked to do if he/she agrees to participate?

They will be asked to participate in either an interview or group discussion. The researcher will do this herself. They will be asked to describe their experiences with the HPS project. These interviews or discussions will be tape recorded with their permission. The interviews or group discussions will take place at the school. It will take about one hour.

Would their participation in this study be kept confidential?

The researcher will do her best to keep their personal information confidential. To help protect their confidentiality, their interview will be given a code so their names will not appear on the interview. The name of their school will not be disclosed. If we write a report or article about this research project, their identities will be protected to the maximum extent possible. It is legally required and for professional standards, that we disclose to the appropriate people information that comes to our attention concerning child abuse or neglect or potential harm to you or others.

What are the risks of this research?

There are no known risks associated with participating in this research project.

What are the benefits of this research?

This research is not designed to help your child personally, but the results may help the investigator learn more about how their school can develop as a HPS. We hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study through improved understanding of how schools can develop as HPS in order to improve the health and wellbeing of everybody involved with the school and this will in turn have a positive impact on society.

Does your child have to be in this research and may they stop participating at any time?

Their participation in this research is completely voluntary. They may choose not to take part at all. If they decide to participate in this research, they may stop participating at any time. If they decide not to participate in this study or if they stop participating at any time, they will not be penalized or lose any benefits to which they otherwise qualify.

Is any assistance available if my child is negatively affected by participating in this study?

No negative effects are anticipated but should this occur every effort will be made to ensure that assistance is provided for participants who are negatively affected.

What if I have questions?

This research is being conducted by Suraya Mohamed from the School of Public Health at the University of the Western Cape. If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact :

Suraya Mohamed

School of Public Health

0219592809

Email: sumohamed@uwc.ac.za

Should you have any questions regarding this study and your rights as a research participant or if you wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact:

Head of Department: Dr Uta Lehmann

Email: ulehmann@uwc.ac.za

Telephone: 0219592809

Dean of the Faculty of Community and Health Sciences: Prof Ratie Mpofu

Email: rmpofu@uwc.ac.za

Telephone: 0219592631

University of the Western Cape

Private Bag X17

Bellville 7535

This research has been approved by the University of the Western Cape's Senate Research Committee and Ethics Committee.



APPENDIX 8: PARENTAL PERMISSION FORM



UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa

Tel: +27 21-959, Fax: 27 21-959

PARENTAL PERMISSION FORM

Title of Research Project: FACTORS INFLUENCING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF HEALTH PROMOTING SCHOOLS: A MULTIPLE CASE STUDY OF THREE SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN A RESOURCE LIMITED COMMUNITY IN CAPE TOWN

The study has been described to me in language that I understand and I agree that my child can participate. My questions about the study have been answered. I understand that my child's identity will not be disclosed and that he/she may withdraw from the study without giving a reason at any time and this will not negatively affect him/her in any way.

Parent's name.....

Participant's name.....

Parent's signature.....

Witness.....

Date.....

Should you have any questions regarding this study or wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact the study coordinator:

Study Coordinator's Name: Suraya Mohamed

University of the Western Cape

Private Bag X17, Belville 7535

Telephone: (021)959-2809

Fax: (021)959-2872

Email: sumohamed@uwc.ac.za

APPENDIX 9: CONSENT/ASSENT FORM



UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa

Tel: +27 21-959, Fax: 27 21-959

CONSENT/ASSENT FORM

Title of Research Project: FACTORS INFLUENCING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF HEALTH PROMOTING SCHOOLS: A MULTIPLE CASE STUDY OF THREE SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN A RESOURCE LIMITED COMMUNITY IN CAPE TOWN

UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE

The study has been described to me in language that I understand and I freely and voluntarily agree to participate. My questions about the study have been answered. I understand that my identity will not be disclosed and that I may withdraw from the study without giving a reason at any time and this will not negatively affect me in any way.

Participant's name.....

Participant's signature.....

Witness.....

Date.....

Should you have any questions regarding this study or wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact the study coordinator:

Study Coordinator's Name: Suraya Mohamed

University of the Western Cape

Private Bag X17, Belville 7535

Telephone: (021)959-2809

Fax: (021)959-2872

Email: sumohamed@uwc.ac.za



**OFFICE OF THE DEAN
DEPARTMENT OF RESEARCH
DEVELOPMENT**

Private Bag X17, Bellville 7535
South Africa
Telegraph: UNIBELL
Telephone: +27 21 959-2948/2949
Fax: +27 21 959-3170
Website: www.uwc.ac.za

14 March 2011

To Whom It May Concern

I hereby certify that the Senate Research Committee of the University of the Western Cape has approved the methodology and the ethics of the following research project by:
Ms S Mohamed (School of Public Health)

Research Project:

An assessment of the factors influencing the development of health promoting schools: A case study of three secondary schools in historically disadvantaged community in Cape Town

Registration no:

11/1/25



*Ms Patricia Josias
Research Ethics Committee Officer
University of the Western Cape*



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WESTERN CAPE**

A place of quality, a place to grow, from hope to action through knowledge