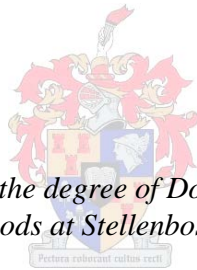# A responsive evaluation approach in evaluating the safe schools and the child-friendly schools programmes in the Limpopo province

by

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DECLARATION

By submitting this dissertation electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

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ABSTRACT

This study focuses on the use of a responsive evaluation approach in evaluating programme implementation: Safe Schools and the Child Friendly Schools Programmes.

A case study design was adopted for use in the study. That was done by using Robert Stake's responsive approach but modified to include: Stakeholder audience identification, consultation and issues exploration; Stakeholder concerns and issues analysis; Identification of evaluative standards and criteria; Designing and implementation of evaluation methodology; Data analysis and validation and Reporting. The study was done in two phases. Phase 1 focused on the Safe Schools Programme involving seven schools in the Capricorn district, Limpopo province. Preliminary results from phase 1 revealed that there was no implementation of the Safe Schools Programme. In phase 2 of the study the focus was on the implementation of Child Friendly Schools Programme. It involved three schools in the Capricorn and Waterberg districts, Limpopo province. Data collection was done by using three methods which are Observation, Interview and Documents.

The results indicate that there is no implementation of the safe schools programme but there is implementation of the CFS programme. Although there is no implementation of the SSP, schools have initiated strategies to deal with safety issues. On the implementation of CFS programme, schools differed greatly in their approach. The study also documents the strengths, limitations and lessons learnt from the use of responsive evaluation approach as outlined by Robert Stake. The major contribution of the study is that Responsive Evaluation approach has gone through major changes over a period of time to the extent that its latter position seems to be contradicting some of its earlier positions. Further, evaluators should be patient, flexible and have listening, writing and observation skills when using the approach.

Key words in this study are: **responsive evaluation, safe schools programme, child friendly schools programme** and **implementation evaluation**

OPSOMMING

Die studie fokus op die gebruik van 'n responsiewe evalueringsbenadering in die evaluering van die programimplementering van die Veilige-skole- en die Kindvriendelike skoleprogramme.

'n Gevallestudie ontwerp, naamlik Robert Stake se responsiewe benadering, is in die studie gebruik. Die benadering is aangepas om die volgende in te sluit: Identifikasie van die belanghebbende gehoor; konsultasie en eksplorasie van aangeleenthede; Analise van belanghebbended bekommernisse en vrae; identifisering van evalueringstandaarde en –kriteria; Ontwerp en implementering van evalueringsmetodologie; Data-analise en –validering, en verslagdoening. Die studie het in twee fases plaasgevind. Fase 1 het gefokus op die Veiligeskoleprogram wat sewe skole in die Capricorndistrik, Limpopo provinsie, insluit. Voorlopige resultate van Fase 1 het gewys dat daar geen implementering van die Veilige- skoleprogram was nie. In Fase 2 van die studie was die fokus op die implementering van 'n Kindvriendelike Skoleprogram. Dit het drie skole in die Capricorn- en Waterbergdistrikte, Limpopoprovinsie, betrek. Data-insameling is gedoen deur gebruik te maak van drie metodes, te wete: waarneming, onderhoudvoering en dokumentering.

Die resultate dui daarop dat daar geen implimentering van die Veilige -skoleprogram is, maar wel implimentering van die Kindvriendelike-skole-program. Alhoewel daar geen geen implimentering van die Veilige-skoleprogram was nie, het skole strategiee inisieer om veiligheidkwessies te hanteer. Wat die implementering van die Kind-vriendelike program betref, verskil skole grootliks in hul benadering. Die studie dokumenteer ook die sterkpunte, beperkings en lesse geleer uit die gebruik van die responsiewe evalueringsbenadering soos uiteengesit deur Robert Stake. Die hoofbydrae van die studie is dat die Responsiewe Evalueringsbenadering groot veranderings oor 'n tydperk ondergaan het tot die mate dat die mees onlangse standpunte blyk om sommige van die vorige standpunte te weerspreek. Verder behoort evalueerders geduldig en plooibaar te wees, en oor luister, skryf- en waarnemingvaardighede te beskik by die gebruik van die benadering.

Belangrike terme in die studie is: **Responsiewe evaluering, Veilige- skoleprogram, Kindvriendelike-skoleprogram en implementeringsevaluering.**

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Above all, God has been my rock on whom I got the strength to work on the study

DEDICATION

To God, the All mighty for strength and support.

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List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

ACPO	Association of Chief Police Officers
ANU	Australian National University
APPLE	A Pilot Programme for Lifestyle and Exercise
BAC	Business Against Crime
BEST	Behaviour and Education Support Teams
BOCAIP	Botswana Christian AIDS Intervention Programme
CAMHS	Child and Adolescent Mental Health Services
CBO	Community Based Organisations
CEIS	Community Education Initiative Scheme
CEMREL	Central Midwest Regional Educational Laboratory
CFS	Child Friendly Schools
CIRCE	Center for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation
CM	Circuit Managers
COLTS	Culture of Learning and Teaching Services
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
CRISP	Crime Reduction in Schools Programme
DM	District Managers
ECCD	Early childhood care and development
EFA	World Conference on Education
ESRMetro	Educators for Social Responsibility Metropolitan Area
FAST	Families and Schools Together
GREAT.	Gangs Resistance Education and Training
GELS	Group Employment Liaison Scheme
GRIP	Gang Risk Intervention Program
ICPS	I Can Problem Solve
IMPACT	Innovative Models of Police and Community Training
IPT	Independent Trusts Project
LINK	Link Community Development
LRC	Learner Representative Council
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisations
OLS	Oakwood Laboratory School
PATHS	Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies
PCSO	Police Community Support Officers

PEO	Police Education Officers
RCCP	Resolving Conflict Creatively Programme
RCL	Representative Councils of Learners
RCP	Responsible Citizenship Program
RM	Regional Managers
RYOP	Reducing Youth Offending Programme
SAPS	South African Police Services
SAP/S	Student Assistance Programme/s
SASA	South African Schools Act
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
SGB	School Governing Bodies
SMT	School Management Teams
SSP	Safe Schools Programme
SSPP	Safer Schools Partnership Project
SST	Social Skills Training Programme
SWP	School Watch Programme
TGAP	Tackling Gangs Action Programme
TT	Tiisa Thuto
WSC	World Summit for Children
YJB	Youth Justice Board
SA	South Africa
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
WSC	World Summit for Children
YWCA	Young Women's Christian Association

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CHAPTER 1

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INTRODUCTION

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1.1   Background and statement of the problem

When the new government came to power in 1994 schools were in a chaotic state, especially former Black schools. Schools had become unsafe because gangs and other hooligans invaded schools and caused unprecedented disruptions to teaching and learning (Christie, 1998). The state of disarray in schools, as Zulu, Urbani and van der Merwe (2004) indicate, could be traced to the years of opposition to apartheid education and the disruptions waged in schools from 1976 onwards. The new government designed several interventions to attempt to resolve the problem. Among these were interventions such as the Culture of Learning and Teaching Services (COLTS), Business Against Crime (BAC) and Tiisa Thuto (TT) (Domingo-Swarts, 2002), The Crime Reduction in Schools Programme (CRISP) in Durban, The School Watch Programme (SWP) in KwaZulu-Natal and the Safe Schools Programme (SSP) (Shaw, 2001). These interventions were meant to make schools secure and safe for learners and educators.

In addition to these interventions, there were also legal and regulatory initiatives. These include the 1996 South African Schools Act, which provides the framework within which schools currently operate. According to Taylor, Diphofa, Waghmarea, Vinjevold and Sedibe in Taylor and Vinjevold (1999:28-30) other initiatives included the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) 1995, Language Education Policy 1997, The Policy Document for the Foundation Phase 1997, The National Norms and Standards for School Funding 1998, Employment for Educators Act 1998, The Assessment Policy in the General Education and Training Phases 1998 and the establishment of the Gender Equity Task Team that provided a report in 1998.

While noting the policies, frameworks and programmes that have been developed since 1994, there seems to be a problem with the implementation of many of these initiatives (Roper, 2002). It would seem that there is a general tendency, especially in developing countries, to focus on formulating and initiating policies, projects and programmes with less emphasis on

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implementation (Dyer, 1999:45). It appears as if implementation is viewed as being less important and as such it is not given much attention.

A review of the literature on programme evaluation produced very little evidence of studies that focus on programme implementation in South Africa. Instead, most studies in Psychology and Social Work appear to focus on programme development and impact (Sathiparsad, 1997 and Nott, 1997). Other studies that were consulted include Mouton (1998), Mouton, Wildschut and Boshoff (2000) and Rembe (2005). It is within this context that an evaluation **of the implementation of the Safer Schools Programmes in the Capricorn and Waterberg Districts of the Limpopo Province** was deemed important.

Initially, it was decided to focus on the Safe Schools Programme (SSP) because of some of the staff members who had been tasked with implementing the programme had raised concerns about the success of the implementation of government programmes in general, and the SSP in particular. Concerns raised included poor planning, lack of proper training for the staff that was to implement the programme, mismanagement of resources by some of the staff members, a lack of clear guidelines and a lack of commitment to the programme by school-based managers. Furthermore, considering the importance of the safety of learners in schools, in that teaching and learning cannot take place effectively unless teachers and learners are safe, this was an issue that required investigation and one that should be treated as a priority in schools.

The importance of safety in schools goes hand in hand with the provision of quality education. Preliminary results of the study revealed that there was no implementation of the SSP, and the details of this are provided in Chapter 5. Due to lack of implementation of the SSP, I then decided to look at another programme that was being implemented in schools at the time of the study. This is the Child Friendly Schools (CFS) Programme (Connections, 2011:1). The programme emphasises an integrated approach to issues of safety in schools. This is done by looking at the quality of education holistically by focusing on six features of a child-friendly school, of which safety is one. They are outlined as follows:

- Rights-based and inclusive schools
- Effective schools

- Safe, protective and caring schools

- Health-promoting and health-seeking schools

- Gender-sensitive schools that promote equity and equality

- Schools with strong community linkages and partnerships.

The SSP and Child Friendly Schools Programme (CFS Programme) will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 4. The SSP is a government initiated programme that is aimed at dealing with safety in all public schools, while the CFS Programme was initiated by UNICEF, and was piloted in few schools in KwaZulu-Natal (52 schools) and Limpopo (75 schools). The evaluation in this study was therefore done in two phases. Phase 1 focused on the SSP and Phase 2 focused on the Child Friendly School Programme.

1.2   The need, purpose and significance of the study

There is evidently a clear need for more studies on the implementation of government programmes in South Africa. This study aims to improve our understanding of the dynamics involved in programme implementation processes at the secondary schools in the Limpopo Province and South Africa in general. It also aims to advance our knowledge of the use of the responsive evaluation approach in the evaluation of the implementation of educational programmes. Hence the purpose of this study can be defined as follows:

1. To understand the way in which Safer Schools Programmes are being implemented.

2. To provide information that will contribute towards policy formulation in programme implementation.

3. To reflect on the use of the responsive evaluation approach in the evaluation of programme implementation. This was done by looking at the responsive evaluation approach in detail (See Chapter 2).

4. To contribute to decisions about programme implementation at secondary schools.

Stake's responsive evaluation approach was deemed appropriate for evaluating the implementation of the Safer Schools Programmes because of its flexibility and its advocacy for the involvement of different stakeholders in programme evaluation. It gives voice to different stakeholders to raise their issues and concerns about the programme. This helps in giving a

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holistic picture about the implementation of the programme. Furthermore, its use was also prompted by other advantages as outlined by Stake and other authors. The advantages are outlined as follows:

- The evaluation tends to hear subtle differences in language (Stake, 2004a:88).
- Responsive evaluation alert us to situations that help us understand the complexity of the programme (Stake, 2004a:88).
- It is responsive to key issues or problems experienced by people at the sites (Stake, 2004a:89).
- It helps in breaking the dominance of single-method approaches in evaluation (House in Greene and Abma, 2001:27).
- It encourages flexibility in that the evaluator tends to attend to the salient features of each situation (Schwandt, in Greene and Abma, 2001:77).

The focus on implementation rather than outcome or impact was due to the fact that issues were raised when the programmes were at the implementation stage. Since issues were raised at the implementation stage, it would have been inappropriate to conduct other types of evaluation studies like outcomes or impact evaluation. Furthermore, as Herman, Morris and Fitz-Gibbon (1987:17) indicate, implementation evaluation helps in focusing on activities, materials, staffing, services as well as administrative arrangements that compose a programme and the way in which these entities operate which are usually not covered in outcome or impact assessment studies. Focusing on these different aspects of the programmes helped in paying attention on aspects that would improve the ability of the programmes to operate well.

1.3   Key concepts of the study

1.3.1   Programme implementation

Posavic and Carey (1980:103) refer to implementation as a *"process"* where the emphasis is on the effort in the form of human and physical resources put into the policy. Valadez and Bamberger (1994:18) give a detailed explanation of implementation:

> *The implementation stage covers the actual development or construction of the project, up to the point at which it becomes fully operational. It includes monitoring of all aspects of the work or activity as it proceeds and supervision by 'oversight' agencies within the country or by external donors.*

Dyer (1999:47) refers to implementation as the *"transmission of a blueprint to the operating units which is a straightforward activity because the structure, constraints, (and) priorities...have already been delineated"*.

In this study, implementation refers to the actual delivery and operation of the two programmes already mentioned - the SSP and the CFS Programme.

1.3.2   Evaluation

The term "evaluation" is used in different settings, contexts and circumstances. Clarke (1999:1) puts it well when he writes:

> *For example, we might apply the term evaluation to any of a number of diverse activities, such as; assessing the literacy merits of a new novel; determining the rehabilitative impact of persons' sentences; judging the aesthetic value of a work of art; monitoring the standards and quality of service provided by a private company or public sector organization, or comparing the advantages of the holiday destination over another.*

Due to the fact that evaluation may be used in different contexts, it makes it difficult to come up with one acceptable explanation of what evaluation is, which is why Clarke (1999:1) refers to this term as an *"elastic word"*. The meaning of the term also depends on the models of evaluation that have been outlined by Herman et al. (1987:10), Worthern in Walberg and Haertel (1990:46), McMillan and Schumacher (1997:547) and Shaw (1999:20) among others. Due to the influences of these models and other theories of social development, Potter (in Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 1999:210) comes to the conclusion that there is no one way of defining or conducting programme evaluation and this conclusion seems to be confirmed by the way in which various authors define the term. Below are some of the different definitions of the term "evaluation".

Valadez and Bamberger (1994:13), define evaluation as:

> *… an internal or external management activity to assess the appropriateness of a program's design and implementation methods in achieving both specified objectives and more general development objectives; and to assess a program's results, both intended and unintended and to assess the factors affecting the level and distribution of benefits produced.*

Rossi and Freeman (1993:5) define evaluation research as *"the systematic application of social research procedures for assessing the conceptualization, design, implementation, and utility of*

social intervention programs", while Mouton, Wildschut and Boshoff. (2000:3) refer to evaluation research as the *"field of (applied) social science which utilizes the whole range of social science methods in assessing or evaluating social intervention programmes"*. McMillan and Schumacher (1997:542) add another dimension when they define evaluation as *"the determination of the worth of an educational program, product, procedure, or objective, or of the potential utility of alternative approaches to attain specific goals"*.

From the definitions listed, it is apparent that evaluation may focus on the needs, implementation, outcomes or the effect of a programme. In all these definitions, the common thread, as Stake (2004a) indicates, is that evaluation involves the determination of worth. Defining evaluation as determination of worth was first highlighted by Scriven (in Tyler, Gagne and Scriven) in 1967. Later Scriven (1991:1) defined it again as *"the process of determining the merit, worth and value of things"*. In this study, we will adopt this approach and define evaluation as the determination of worth.

1.3.3   Implementation evaluation

According to Posavac and Carey (1980:104), implementation evaluation refers to monitoring the degree to which the programme is implemented as planned. Herman et al. (1987:17) indicate that such a study focuses on activities, materials, staffing, services as well as administrative arrangements that compose a programme, and the way in which these entities operate. Rossi and Freeman (1993:164) quote Scheirer, who defines implementation evaluation as *"identifying and codifying ways to understand programs so that they are consistent with their designs and at providing "practice principles" that can be communicated to those who must operate the programs"*. According to Rist in Denzin and Lincoln (1998:411) the focus in implementation evaluation is on *"the day-to-day realities of bringing a new program or policy into existence"*.

For the purpose of this study, the definition of *implementation evaluation* used is that of Posavic and Carey (1980:104). Attention was also given to the entities that Herman, et al. (1987:17) identify - activities, materials, staffing, services and administrative arrangements that compose a programme, and the way in which these entities operate. According to Stake (2004a:92), these entities involve concentrating *"on what is good and bad about what the program's staff and*

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participants are doing...If good processes are taking place, the enhancement of the participants will be realized later on. " Furthermore, Posavic and Carey (1980) include a profile of the participants to whom the programme is directed, a summary of activities carried out, workloads of staff members and the views of different stakeholders of the programme.

1.3.4   Responsive Evaluation

Responsive Evaluation (RE) is an approach to evaluation which focuses more on the needs of the participants in the programme. In Stake's words (in Dockrell and Hamilton, 1980:76),

> *It is an approach that sacrifices some precision in measurement, hopefully to increase the usefulness of the findings to persons in and around the program. Many evaluation plans are more 'preordinate', emphasizing (1) statement goals, (2) use of objective tests, (3) standards held by program personnel, and (4) research-type reports. Responsive evaluation is less reliant on formal communication, more reliant on natural communication.*

It is an evaluation approach that responds to the needs and the views of the participants in the programme and what they say about the programme rather than looking at the intentions of the programme. Hence in Dockerell and Hamilton (1980:77) Stake add that:

> *An educational evaluation is responsive evaluation (1) if it orients more directly to program activities than to program intents, (2) if it responds to audience requirements for information, and (3) if the different value-perspectives of the people at hand are referred to in reporting the success and failure of the program. In these three separate ways an evaluation plan can be responsive.*

Its emphasis is on the needs of the participants. It is unlike other approaches that focus on the objectives of the programme without looking at the setting in which the programme is operating and the needs and concerns of the stakeholders in the programme. Hence Guba and Lincoln (1981:23) explain responsive evaluation as *"an emergent form of evaluation that takes as its organizer the concerns and issues of stakeholding audiences"*.

Shaw (1999:26) highlights the following features which make responsive evaluation different from other forms of evaluation. He writes that:

- *It orients more directly to programme activities rather programme purposes.*
- *It responds to local stakeholder requirements for information.*
- *The different values of the people at hand are referred to in reporting the success and failure of the programme.*

- *It is participatory, thus increasing local control.*

Stake (2004a:86) elaborates on the notion of "responsive" when he writes that:

> *Being responsive means orienting to the experience of personally being there, feeling the activity, the tension, knowing the people and their values. It relies heavily on personal interpretation. It gets acquainted with the concerns of stakeholders by giving extra attention to program action, to program uniqueness, and to the cultural plurality of the people.*

The focus is on how different stakeholders feel about the programme. This can be done by interacting with the stakeholders in the setting and seeing what is good and bad about the programme. In this study, responsive evaluation is used as Stake explains it. The details about Stake and responsive evaluation approach are discussed in Chapter 2.

Concerns raised by stakeholders as already indicated, focused on the implementation of the programmes. That led to the formulation of research questions that focused on implementation. Questions formulated are outlined below.

1.4 Research questions

In evaluating the implementation of the Safer Schools Programmes Programme using Stake's responsive approach, a number of research questions were generated. The main question of the study, in line with the first objective, is: **How are the Safer Schools Programmes implemented at the Secondary Schools of the Limpopo Province of South Africa?**

Subsidiary questions generated as part of the responsive evaluation on the SSP are the following:

- Are Safer Schools Programmes being properly implemented?
- Were all the important activities of the programmes being carried out and as designed?
- What are the views of the programme recipients (learners, teachers, parents, officials in the Department of Education) on the implementation of the Safer Schools Programmes?
- How did contextual factors influence the implementation of the programmes, e.g. staff, and community characteristics, etc.?

- What facilitated or hindered the implementation process?
- How did the programmes cope with implementation problems?
- Did activities vary from site to site and if so in what respect?
- Did the key actors have a clear understanding of what was required of them?
- What individuals or groups were opposed or critical of the programmes?
- To what extent did the stakeholders accept policy guidelines on the implementation of Safer Schools Programmes at secondary schools?
- How were decisions taken in the implementation of the Safer Schools Programmes?

The same subsidiary questions were used in the evaluation of the SSP during phase 1 of the study and the evaluation of the Child Friendly Schools in phase 2 of the study. The use of the same questions as outlined was due to the fact that after issue exploration, in the phase 2 of the study, it was found that issues are covered in the questions raised during phase 1 of the study. For example, issues like resources and classroom overcrowding raised during phase 2 of the study were taken as contextual factors. Details on stakeholder concerns and issues are outlined in Chapter 5 of the study.

The methodological focus of the study was on the use of Stake's responsive evaluation approach in evaluating the implementation of the programmes. The responsive approach helped to get a deeper understanding of the concerns and issues raised by different stakeholders in the programmes. In order to gain an in-depth understanding of the methodological features of the study, an intensive and extensive study was done on some of the major papers and books written and presented by Stake. This review generated a number of key themes which include the clock-prominent events in evaluation; issues; stakeholders; case study approach; naturalistic generalisation; Stake on constructivism; contrasting standard evaluation and responsive evaluation; limitations in the use of test scores; validity in programme evaluation; ethics in programme evaluation and juxtaposition of criteria and context. More on this is presented in Chapter 2.

Aspects to focus on when conducting responsive evaluation study

The following should be addressed by the evaluator in preparing for a responsive evaluation project (Stake, in Dockrell and Hamilton, 1980:77):

- Planning for negotiations and observations.

- Organising various people who will observe the programme. This applies to situations where an evaluation involves many observers.

- Preparing some narratives, graphs, product displays, etc. This involves finding out that which is of value to the audience.

- Gathering worthwhile expressions from various participants whose points of view differ.

- Checking the quality of records.

- Getting feedback from programme personnel concerning the accuracy of the portrayals or findings

- Getting people who are in authority in the programme to react to the importance of the findings.

- Getting a reaction of the audience members to react to the relevancy of the findings.

- Much of this should be done informally, iterating, recording their actions and the way in which they react.

Adding to what evaluators should do in using responsive evaluation approach, Stake (in Dockrell and Hamilton, 1980:78) gives some advice:

> *Most evaluators can be faulted for over-reliance on preconceived notions of success. I advise the evaluator to give careful attention to the reasons the evaluation was commissioned, then pay attention to what is happening in the program, then choose the value questions and criteria. He should not fail to discover the best and the worst of program happenings. He should not let a list of objectives or early choice of data-gathering instruments draw away from the things that most concern the people involved.*

This means that the evaluator should not allow the choice of research methods to influence an approach in conducting an evaluation. The focus should be on what is actually happening in the programme and the concerns of the stakeholders in the programme.

The important method(s) of data collection in responsive evaluation

Stake is one of the people who paid much attention to methodology in evaluation. His emphasis is on qualitative case study methods, and hence, on observation as the main method of data collection in responsive evaluation. In Dockrell and Hamilton (1980:80) Stake emphasises this when he writes:

> *My responsive-evaluation plan allocates a large expenditure of evaluation resources to observing the program. The plan is not divided into phases because observation and feedback continue to be the important functions from the first week through the last.*

Responsive evaluation is an interactive and a continuous process. The evaluator keeps on reformulating the design and other issues based on his experiences with the programme. Other methods which are important in responsive evaluation are interviewing people and analysing documents. This does not necessarily mean that responsive evaluation approach is necessarily associated with qualitative methods. According to Stake (2004a) responsive evaluation is neither linked to a qualitative nor a quantitative approach because in practice, these approaches go hand in hand. More on this is presented in Chapter 2.

Communicating responsive evaluation to the audience

Stake (in Dockrell and Hamilton, 1980:83-84) advocates for what he refers to as *"vicarious experience"*. The evaluator should report what he has experienced in the setting. This is a holistic approach where the evaluator should report to the reader about events, places and people. He summarises the way in which reporting should be done:

> *We need a report procedure for facilitating vicarious experience. And it is available. Among the better evangelists, anthropologists, and dramatists are those who have developed the art of storytelling. We need to portray complexity. We need to convey holistic impression, the mood, even the mystery of the experience. The program staff or people in the community may be 'uncertain'. The audiences should feel that uncertainty. More ambiguity rather than less may be needed in our reports. Oversimplification obfuscates.*

The evaluator should give a holistic picture of what he is evaluating in the programme. Hence it is important to use portrayals that will leave no doubt in the mind of the reader. This may include using things like maps, graphs, narratives, taped conversations, photographs. He proposes the use of charts, products, narratives and portrayals. Their advantage is that they help the audience to be

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aware of the programme and have some feelings for the programme. Furthermore, as Stake (in Dockrell and Hamilton, 1980:86) indicates, *"They may be better prepared to act on issues such as a change of enrolment or a reallocation of resources. They may be better able to protect the program."*

Weaknesses of responsive evaluation

Even though responsive evaluation has advantages, as already indicated, there are also certain limitations that need to be flagged:

- There is a risk of getting emotionally involved (Stake, 2004a:88).
- It pays too much attention to subjective data (Stake, 2004a:96-98).
- It can be conservative and relativistic (House, in Greene and Abma, 2001:27).
- Responsive evaluation sometimes contradicts itself (House, in Greene and Abma, 2001:28).
- The evaluator's judgement may be impaired by irrational beliefs and misunderstandings (Schwandt, in Greene and Abma, 2001:82).

More on the criticisms against responsive evaluation by Stake and other authors is discussed in Chapter 3.

Due to the emphasis on case studies in the responsive evaluation approach, this study adopted a case study design. This helped in triangulating the data by using three methods of data collection: observation, interviewing and observation. Details of this are outlined in Chapter 5.

As there is a strong methodological focus in the study, a number of methodological questions were also generated:

- What lessons can be learnt from the use of the responsive evaluation approach in evaluating the Safer Schools Programmes?
- Are there other advantages in the use of the responsive evaluation approach?
- Are there other disadvantages in the use of the responsive evaluation approach?
- Was it appropriate to use the responsive evaluation approach for the evaluation of the implementation of the Safer Schools Programmes?

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1.5   Conclusion

This chapter presented the background of the study, as well as the need, the purpose and the significance of the study. It also gave an introduction to the Safer Schools Programmes. The responsive evaluation approach as advocated by Stake was also discussed.

In the following chapter, the background and context of programme evaluation and an in-depth discussion of Robert Stake's responsive evaluation approach is presented. Robert Stake's responsive evaluation is presented in terms of themes that emerged from some of his major papers and books that he has written over the past thirty years, providing insight into a systematic treatment of Stake's position on responsive evaluation. Chapter 3 then outlines other studies done using the responsive evaluation approach and the critique of responsive evaluation. Chapter 4 presents the International Safe Schools initiatives, the SSP and the CFS Programme, while Chapter 5 outlines the research methodology and design of the study. Chapter 6 comprises summaries, schools profiles and results of the seven schools in SSP, while Chapter 7 covers summaries, schools profiles and results of the three schools in the CFS Programme. The findings, conclusions and recommendations are presented and discussed in Chapter 8.

Chapter 2

Robert Stake's Responsive Evaluation approach

2.1　Introduction

This chapter discusses Robert Stake's responsive evaluation approach. It begins with a discussion of the historical development of evaluation in general and thereafter focuses on Stake's approach to responsive evaluation and how his views have developed over time. This is done by looking at the major papers that Stake has written over a period of thirty years, as well as a systematic treatment of Stake's position according to the main themes emerging from his writings. The conclusion highlights that Stake's ideas on responsive evaluation are not static. They gradually changed as he continued advocating for this approach.

2.2　Background to the development of Robert Stake's approach

It seems as if the first clear evidence of programme evaluation according to Worthen (in Walberg and Haertel, 1990:42) appears to be the work by Joseph Rice, which was a comparative study of the spelling performance of 33,000 students in the USA large school system. According to Alkin and House (in Alkin, 1992), the recent roots of programme evaluation can be traced to the educational testing movement during the time of Ralph Tyler in the late 1930s and 1940s. The field became active after the 1960s, which was a period when there were massive curriculum development projects in response to the Russians' launching of Sputnik.

During the early stages of the development of evaluation as a field in the 1960's and 1970's, the dominant approach to evaluation was to apply standard experimental and quasi-experimental approaches. At that time, as Patton (in Palumbo, 1987a:138); Worthen (1990:43); Mouton, et al. (2000:58) highlight, evaluation was dominated by the work of people like Donald Campbell, Thomas Cook and other scholars. According to Herman et al. (1987:9) the emphasis on quantitative designs in social research evaluations was due to the fact that there was some optimism that *"systematic, scientific measurement procedures would deliver unequivocal evidence of program success or failure"*.

One of the reasons for the emphasis on experimental or quasi-experimental designs was due to the fact that social sciences were regarded as less important than the natural sciences. Guba and Lincoln (1998:196) express the point like this:

> *Historically, there has been a heavy emphasis on quantification in science. Mathematics is often termed the "queen of Sciences", and those sciences, such as physics and chemistry, that lend themselves especially well to quantification are generally known as "hard". Less quantifiable arenas, such as a biology (although that is rapidly changing) and particularly the social sciences, are referred to as "soft", less with pejorative intent than to signal their (putative) imprecision and lack of dependability.*

As time went on, evaluators became dissatisfied with the quantitative approach to programme evaluation. This was due to the fact that they encountered certain problems when they used quantitative approaches. Alkin and House (1992:464) summarise the problems when they write that:

> *Programs varied greatly from one site to another, so that a program, such as Follow Through, that performed well at one site did not necessarily do well at another. Statistical models, such as analysis of co-variance, overadjusted or underadjusted. Participants squabbled among themselves about the purposes and goals of the different programs. Tests suitable for measuring the outcomes of one program did not seem appropriate for another. And most of the reform programs did not have powerful effects. The evaluators proved far more equivocal in providing definitive answers than anticipated.*

Evaluators also came to realise that different stakeholders have different views of the same programme. Those views could not be easily captured by making use of quantitative approaches only. That led to the increasing use of qualitative approach in programme evaluation. The debate started as to which of the two approaches was appropriate in programme evaluation. Evaluators like Herman, et al. (1987:9), indicate that the quantitative approach is *"superficial and insensitive to important variations in local programmes"*. In other words, quantitative approaches were not as responsive to the needs of the different stakeholders in the programme as would be the qualitative.

The other complaint was that evaluations using quantitative approaches ignored the voices of some of the stakeholders, especially the recipients, while at the same time served the interests of managers, owners of the programmes and - to a certain extent - the staff in the programme (Scriven, 1997; Greene in Denzin and Lincoln, 2000; and Stake, 2004a). As a way of trying to

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give voice to other stakeholders, there was a move towards the use of approaches that focussed on having the voices of different stakeholders accommodated in evaluation.

The move towards qualitative evaluation saw more and more studies being conducted within this "paradigm". According to Tesch (1990:44), the development in this regard seems to have started with the Partlett and Hamilton's work known as illuminative evaluation in Britain in 1972, and Stake's work known as responsive evaluation in the USA (1975). Mouton et al. (2000:67), explain the shift towards naturalistic and qualitative approaches in programme evaluation like this:

> *The shift towards naturalistic and qualitative evaluation approaches, therefore, is a specific instance of a more general trend. Second, towards the middle-seventies a number of studies started to question the usefulness of experimental and quasi-experimental approaches in evaluation research. There were two related points of criticism: on the one hand, a growing number of studies showed that many big social reform experiments in the USA (Sesame Street, Headstart and the Negative Income Tax experiments) apparently failed, or at least, were not obviously successful. On the other hand, many critics pointed out that the results of evaluation research did not find its way into decision-making circles. It did not seem as if any of the results from the rigorously designed experimental evaluations were being used at all!*

The debate about quantitative and qualitative approaches in programme evaluation still continues. Other commentators like Greene (2002) argue that instead of focusing on the debate, it is better to use both approaches because they complement each other. They propose a mixed-methods approach where the evaluator can use both of them depending on the need. The following section provides some background to the qualitative evaluation approach, on which responsive evaluation is based.

2.2.1   Qualitative evaluation

Greene (1998:388) writes that qualitative evaluation approaches can be easily distinguished by *"their preference for qualitative methods, including open-ended interviews, on-site observation, participant observation, and document review"*. Some of the features of qualitative evaluation are:

- It is conducted by having long-term contact with the field (Shaw, 1999:13).
- The researcher gains a 'holistic' overview of the culture and the context understudy

(Shaw, 1999:13).

- Data is captured on the perceptions of local actors *"from the inside"*, through a process of deep attentiveness, of empathic understanding (verstehen), and of suspending or *"bracketing"* the researcher's preconceptions about the topics under discussion (Shaw, 1999:13).
- There is a sustained focus on context (Rossman and Rallis, 1998:7-8).
- It is sensitive to personal biography (Rossman and Rallis, 1998:7-8).
- It is fundamentally interactive (Rossman and Rallis, 1998:7-8).

Looking at these features, it is apparent that evaluators using the qualitative approach focus on understanding the programme from the perspective of the participants in context. The researcher becomes an instrument in the process of data collection and analysis.

The strengths of qualitative evaluation are that it focuses on naturally occurring events (Michael & Benson, in Husen and Postlethwaite, 1994:2087; Shaw, 1999:14); It helps in the local groundedness and contextualisation of an evaluation (Michael & Benson, 1994:2086; Shaw, 1999:14); the study design is flexible (Shaw, 1999:14); it has the potential for disclosing complexity through a holistic approach (Shaw, 1999:14); it is helpful in understanding people's constructions of meanings in the context being studied (Greene, 2000:986).

The weaknesses or limitations of qualitative evaluation are that it gives little attention to the question of whether the products of evaluation can be generalised to other settings (Shaw, 1999:71); it fails to demonstrate causal adequacy through its emphasis on meaning (Shaw, 1999:98) and pluralistic inclusiveness is rarely fully achieved (Greene, 2000:992).

It should however, be noted that within the broader tradition of qualitative evaluation approaches, there are different specific approaches. Stake (2004a:39) highlights this when he writes that, *"Among the evaluation approaches used by evaluators having a disposition toward finding holistic quality are those called naturalistic evaluation, responsive evaluation, interpretive evaluation, transactional evaluation, and constructivist evaluation."*

Hence qualitative evaluation approaches include responsive evaluation (Stake, 1975a, Stake, in Dockrell and Hamilton, 1980), (MacDonald and Walker, 1975; Stake, 1978; 1995a), (Guba and Lincoln, 1981; 1989) and the use of anthropological and ethnographic methods (Simons, 2009). In the remainder of the chapter we focus on the work of Robert Stake specifically and how his views have developed over time.

2.2.2   Stake: The early years – a departure from the standard approach to evaluation

Responsive evaluation was proposed for the first time by Stake at a conference at the Pedagogical Institute in Goteborg, Sweden, in 1973 (Stake, 1980). This was the result of being influenced by the works of different writers which made him to change his approach to evaluation. Initially his approach to evaluation was oriented more to the quantitative approach. He emphasised objectivity in evaluation since it was based on empirical social science and psychometrics. This was in line with his education and training. According to CIRCE (Center for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation, 2009), he received his B.A. in Mathematics with a minor in Naval Science and Spanish from the University of Nebraska in 1950. He graduated with M.A. in Educational Psychology in 1954 from the same university. In 1958, he received his Ph.D. in Psychology from Princeton University. From 1955 to 1958, he was a Psychometric Fellow at the Educational Testing Service.

In some of his writings, he refers to his initial approaches to evaluation. In Kellaghan and Stufflebeam (2003:65) Stake writes, *"My first thoughts about how to evaluate programs were extensions of empirical social science and psychometrics, where depersonalization and objectivity were esteemed."* Later when he was busy evaluating some programmes in curriculum reform, he realised that he could not get the data he wanted using approaches based on empirical social science and psychometrics.

In 1965, Stake (1990:16) together with Hastings, invited Michael Scriven and Lee Cronbach to the University of Illinois for a debate, since the two used to differ in terms of their approach to evaluation. During that time, the predominant approach to evaluation was more quantitative which, as indicated, Stake referred to *"preordinate evaluation"*. This is an approach to evaluation which Stake (2004a:95) defines as *"the opposite of responsive, with a design based*

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on prespecified goals and criteria often based on little knowledge of or concern for the larger and more subtle issues of program quality". It was during the debate that Stake realised the need to use contextual data in programme evaluation. When his two guests were debating, Stake explains that, *"I didn't get the whole message, but I realized evaluators should provide contextual data. Few descriptive variables were absolutely essential; much was optional, the design depending on questions needing answers, which changed as time passed."* (Stake, 1990:16).

After the debate, he continued to read the works of other writers. As he continued reading, he began to develop an alternative approach to programme evaluation. He was moved to explore an emphasis on local circumstances and the uniqueness of the programme. Stake in Kellaghan and Stufflebeam (2003:65) elaborates:

> *As I have described elsewhere..., in my efforts to evaluate curriculum efforts in the 1960s, I quickly found that neither those designs nor tests were getting data that answered enough of the important questions. Responsive evaluation was my response to "preordinate evaluation", prior selection and final measurement of a few outcome criteria.*

Thus, responsive evaluation emerged as a result of Stake not being able to answer certain questions within the received paradigm. The shift and disillusionment with the standard approach to evaluation becomes evident when one looks at some of his earlier writings.

2.2.3. Some of Stake's earlier writings

2.2.3.1   The Countenance of Educational Evaluation (1967) – Becoming disillusioned

His first major paper on evaluation research was written in 1967 entitled "The Countenance of Educational Evaluation". The paper (1967:1) highlighted some of the shifts from his earlier approach to programme evaluation.

> *Dissatisfaction with the formal approaches is not without cause. Few highly relevant, readable, research studies can be found. The professional journals are not disposed to publish evaluation studies. Behavioral data are costly, and often do not provide the answers. Too many accreditation-type visitation teams lack special training or even experience in evaluation. Many checklists are ambiguous; some focus too much attention on the physical attributes of a school. Psychometric tests have been developed primarily to differentiate among students at the same point in training rather than to assess the effect of*

instruction on acquisition of skill and understanding. Today's educator may rely little on formal evaluation because its answers have seldom been answers to questions he is asking.

Originally, the paper was written for curriculum studies. Its aims were to capture the complexity of an educational innovation or change by looking at the intended and observed outcomes at different levels of programme operations. It focused on the nature of educational interventions and things that evaluators should pay attention to in determining the success or otherwise of the intervention. It is in the same paper (1967:5) that he started pointing out that evaluation data are likely to be collected from different sources in different ways. Furthermore, for the first time he introduced concepts like antecedents, transactions and outcomes. Data needs to be collected on the basis of:

- Antecedents- *"any condition existing prior to teaching and learning which may relate to outcomes"*. This may include: *Aptitude, previous experience, interest and achievement levels, teacher attitudes, or years of experience.* (Stake, 1967:5)

- Transactions- *"the countless encounters of students with teacher, student with student, author with reader, parent with counsellor-the succession of engagements which comprise the process of education"*. (Stake, 1967:5). This may include a class discussion, working on the homework problem as well as the administration of test.

- Outcomes- The consequences of the program, immediate and long-term. They include *"measurements of the impact of instruction on teachers, administrators, counsellors, and others"*. They should also include *"not only those that are evident, or even existent, as learning sessions end, but include applications, transfer, and relearning effects which may not be available for measurement until long after"*. (Stake, 1967:5).

Data should be evaluated on the basis of what was intended and what was actually observed. The ideal is to find outcomes that are contingent upon the antecedents and the transactions. The greater the congruence between the intended outcomes and the observed outcomes, the better for the study. They provide the basis for judging the success or lack of success of the programme. It also allows for the recording of unintended outcomes.

The evaluator should collect data on programme rationale, intended or observed antecedents, transactions, and outcomes. Other data that should be collected include data on standards

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regarding antecedents, transactions and outcomes. The other data is concerning judgements of the quality of the programme's antecedents, transactions, and outcomes. In other words, as Stake (2004:109) later explained, he was making a claim that *"many kinds of collectable data are suitable for use in evaluation, and most evaluators were collecting too few kinds"*.

When Stake (1967) wrote the paper, he did not intend it to be treated as a model of how evaluation should be carried out. He was merely presenting ideas as a shift from the way in which evaluation was being done. In Alkin (2004b:208), he explains it as follows:

> *It had a few weak suggestions as to how evaluation might be carried out, but primarily it was not a hypothetical warehouse for possible variables. It was intended to stretch the minds of evaluators toward more vigorous collection of judgments and standards to indicate the merit and shortcoming of the evaluand. It was not a model for the conduct of evaluation. I was dismayed by my colleagues who spoke of the "Countenance model" as if it guided the process of evaluating.*

It was just a guide in which he made a distinction between description and judgement. Description and judgement are important in understanding the complexity of a programme. The evaluator should describe the programme in detail and thereafter judge the programme. Stake (1967:3) explains the importance of description and judgement when he writes:

> *Both description and judgement are essential - in fact they are the two basic acts of evaluation. Any individual evaluator may attempt to refrain from judging or from collecting the judgements of others. Any individual evaluator may seek only to bring to light the worth of the program. But their evaluations are incomplete. To be fully understood, the educational program must be fully described and fully judged."*

The antecedents, transactions, and outcomes have a place in both description and judgement. Descriptive data are classified as intents and observations whereas judgemental statements are classified as either general standards of quality or as judgements specific to the given programme. He also gives data matrices that can help in the systematic collection of both description and judgement data. According to Stake (1967:9), descriptive data collected could be processed in two ways. This could be done by *"finding the contingencies among antecedents, transactions, and outcomes and finding the congruence between intents and observations"*.

The emphasis of the paper was on the multiple and, in other cases, contradicting sources of information. A key conclusion is that evaluators should not rely on one source of information.

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They should use different methods of data collection in order to maximise the validity and reliability of the study.

Figure 2.1 below shows a schematic representation of Stake's original ideas.

Rationale	Intents	Observations		Standards	Judgements
			Antecedents		
			Transactions		
			Outcomes		
	Description Matrix			Judgement Matrix	
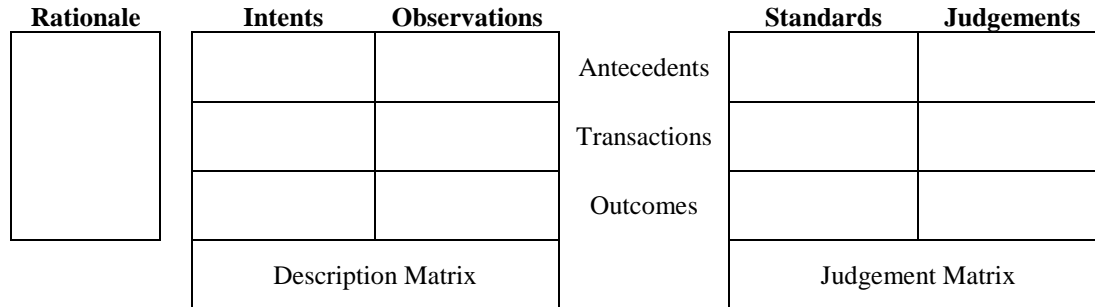
Figure 2.1: taken from Stake (1967): Schematic representation of Stake's layout of statements and data to be collected. This is Stake's original layout of Statements and Data to be collected by the evaluator.

The diagram highlights the complex and dynamic nature of what is involved in programme evaluation. The evaluator should start by fully describing the programme. This should be done by looking at programme intents and through observing the activities of the programme. After describing it, the evaluator will be able to make a judgement of the programme. Hence, judgement data and description data are essential in the evaluation of educational programmes. It also involves the collection of different kinds of data which could be distinguished as antecedent, transaction and outcome data. Antecedents are conditions that exist before the programme starts which may relate to the outcomes. As indicated, this may include, in the case of teaching and learning, aptitude, previous experience, interest and willingness. Transactions are interactions between the students and the teacher, student with student, author with reader, and parent with a counsellor. As already indicated, outcomes are the consequences of the program, which may be immediate or long-term, cognitive and conative, as well as personal and community-wide.

The conclusion from this summary is that it is important to look at the situation before the implementation of the programme. This will help in making judgements on the successes or failures of the programme after its implementation. This is a continuation of Stake's emphasis on collecting multiple sources of information in order to make a good judgement of the programme.

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The emphasis on multiple sources of information signalled a move away from quantitative to qualitative approaches in programme evaluation. The use of multiple sources of information contributes towards a holistic picture about the programme. Gradually Stake was introducing triangulation in the process of data collection.

2.2.3.2 Language, Rationality and Assessment (1969)

In 1969, Stake's next paper entitled "Language, Rationality, and Assessment" was published. In this paper, he further elaborates on the key notions of antecedents, transactions and outcomes. He provides examples of *antecedents* such as student characteristics, teacher characteristics, curricular content, curricular context, instructional materials, physical plant, school organisation and community context. *Transactions* include things like communication flow, time allocation, and sequences of events, reinforcement schedule and social climate. *Outcomes* include student achievement, student attitudes, student motor skills, effects on teachers and institutional effects. In a way Stake was giving a schematic representation of the link between causal theory, intervention and outcomes which is the standard input, process and outcome model of interventions.

Stake (1969:17) distinguishes between different forms of evaluation. Evaluation does not only mean focussing on the goals of the programme:

> *It is inappropriate to claim that all educational evaluation should focus on goals specified by the curriculum designer. There are other important roles for evaluation than to determine the extent to which teaching objectives have been attained. People who set objectives-programmers, teachers, experimenters-may be particularly interested in attainment of the goals they specified; but others have other goals. A group of taxpayers, philosophers, or students will choose to look at different criteria of merit, and will have different standards against which to make value judgments. As people have different uses for evaluation information, the roles of evaluation will differ.*

Stake made the case for moving away from looking at evaluation as something that focuses on the goals of the programme only, which was a common practice at the time, and to highlight that there are multiplicities of standards that can be used in making judgements about programme success or failure.

He further elaborated on the freedom that the evaluator has in choosing variables on which to focus during evaluation. He maintains that the choice of variables should be left in the hands of the evaluator.

> *A principal task of the evaluator is to concentrate attention on variables that are related to the goals of his audience, variables leading to decisions, and variables that are available-within his budget-from appropriate sources. (I might add that evaluators will have different degrees of interest and talent for measuring different variables. I think the sponsor of an evaluation study should pay considerable attention to what it is that the evaluator likes to measure.)* (Stake, 1969:18).

The evaluator chooses the kind of variables for evaluation depending on the need. This is different from a situation where there is some kind of prescription of which variables to employ. This is indicative of his shift from a quantitative approach to evaluation to responsive evaluation, where the evaluator has more flexibility based on the needs of the situation.

He also discusses in more detail the notion of congruence:

> *Intents and observations are congruent if what was intended actually happens. To be fully congruent the intended antecedents, transactions, and outcomes must be identical with the observed antecedents, transactions, and outcomes. (This seldom happens and often should not.) Some evaluation studies concentrate only on the congruence between intended and observed outcomes. If our purpose is to continue a good curriculum or revise a poor one, we should know about congruence of antecedents and transactions as well. Working horizontally in the data matrix, the evaluator will compare the information labeled Intents with the information labeled Observation-he will note the discrepancies and describe the amount of congruence for that row. Congruence does not indicate that outcomes are reliable or valid, but that what was intended did in fact occur.* (Stake, 1969:21).

The notion of congruence as presented here indicates the influence of an earlier understanding of evaluation. Even though he had started to shift from the quantitative to responsive approach, he still held the view that the congruence between antecedents and transactions was very important. This is similar to looking at evaluation using a logic model for explaining the relationship between the causes, the intervention and the outcomes.

Stake (1969:21), further explains what contingencies mean: *"Contingencies are relationships among variables."* This may, for example, involve a search for causal relationships. The search for causal relationships is also in line with how he understood evaluation at the time. Even

though there was a shift from quantitative to responsive evaluation, it was still influenced by the quantitative approach, which places an emphasis on causal relationships between variables.

The other significant comment Stake made in the paper is about the generalizability of the evaluation findings. According to him generalisation is very important in evaluation. The evaluator should think about the degree to which an evaluation study can be generalised to other settings. *"A primary consideration in organising an evaluation study is deciding on the degree to which the findings should be generalizable across curricula, school settings, teachers, and students. Different limits, of course, call for different data-gathering plans". This is strange as it does not sit well with a qualitative approach!* (Stake, 1969:25)

Stake also gives advice on how language should be used in trying to communicate an evaluation study. It is important that the focus of an evaluation study should be well communicated to the readers. He emphasises this point when he writes:

> *The quality of the evaluation will not exceed the quality of its communication. It is my contention that the greatest constraint upon evaluation today is the low quality of the language of evaluation. Our concern for goals is adequate, but our ability to represent goals is inadequate. Our talent for measuring educational outcomes is admirable, but our ability to convey their meaning is disappointing. Our ability to select the variables that people want to know about is often satisfactory, but the concepts we use are misunderstood. We are capable of restricting the subjectivity of our observations, but we are less capable of translating those observations into a language the audience can share with us.* (Stake, 1969:34)

The language that evaluators use should be a language that the audience will be able to understand. It is therefore important that the evaluator avoids jargon, which may make it difficult for the readers to understand the report.

Stake further proposes strategies for improving communication. He says that evaluators need to focus on certain aspects of communication, such as improving the concepts and indicators used in explaining a phenomenon, for delimiting objectives. He adds that evaluators need to develop more systematic rules for deriving teaching tactics from immediate goals and for deriving immediate goals from long-range goals. These are indications of his disillusionment with quantitative approaches where the emphasis was more on numbers and complicated statistical

presentations of reports, in favour of a more responsive approach where reports take the reader into consideration. The reader can only generalise from the report if it is written in a language that is understandable. (Where Stake's earlier paper, referred to above, was more on data collection; this one (second paper of 1969) was more about communicating the findings of a study to the reader)

2.2.3.3 Objectives, Priorities, and other Judgment Data (1970)

In 1970, Stake wrote a paper entitled "Objectives, Priorities, and other Judgment Data". In this paper, he comments on judgements that evaluators make on programmes. Stake (1970:181) emphasizes that evaluators' judgements are prone to errors. *"No error-free system is possible, but improvements are within reach."* When he continues he suggests ways in which the evaluator can deal with errors in making judgements.

> *The evaluator may lessen the arbitrariness of judging and decision-making by introducing data-gathering methods already developed by other social scientists. Social psychologists, behavioural scientists, economists, political scientists, and historians routinely study opinions, preferences, and values. Many of their methods can be used to measure the judgments that shape an educational program.*

This advice indicates that even though Stake was moving towards responsive evaluation, his psychometric background retained a degree of influence on some of his writings. And even though he was moving towards a more multiple use of data sources, he still held on to the idea of data gathering methods established by others, which was a move towards the standardisation of data gathering. Here he seems to disregard the uniqueness of evaluation situations.

He explains further what he means by "judgement" data. This is data that an evaluator uses to attach value to something. Stake (1970:181-182) identifies *"Personal value-commitments, educational aims, goals, objectives, priorities, perceived norms, and standards-in one form of expression or another"* as judgement data. The identification of goals, for example, involves a value judgement because it is a process where one selects some objectives and leaves others out. By that time, he was already conceding that there is some form of subjectivity involved in programme evaluation. This was in sharp contrast to those who considered evaluation to be like any other kind of research, as something done objectively. He emphasises the point when he writes that:

The principal claim of this chapter is that the processing of judgment data is important in educational evaluation. Evaluation always includes some "processing" of subjective data. But most of the writings on evaluation methodology do not mention procedures for gathering or analyzing judgment data. Most writers do not include the worth of alternative objectives and identifying standards as one of the evaluator's jobs.

The other issue that Stake touched on is observation. He emphasizes its importance in programme evaluation. He stressed that it is important for evaluators - even if they are using other methods of data collection - to also visit the site and see what is happening. He does however, acknowledge its weaknesses, but to him it is one of the most important methods of data collection during evaluation. Stake (1970:192) puts it explicitly when he writes:

The shortage of procedures for making systematic observations of educational activities is particularly dismaying because the site visit is a widely used evaluation method. When a large-scale program is under way at some distant place, the most common way to evaluate is to appoint a small number of respected persons to go there and inspect it. This method receives a proper share of criticism. It is evident that the program staff works hard to make the operation atypically handsome during the visit and the visitors grasp at the slimmest shred of evidence for something to report. Despite these defects, the method of site visits deserves its eminence because it is designed for the most sensitive instruments available: experienced and insightful men. Furthermore, it is capable of quick adaptation of local circumstances.

The other data collection method he commented on in this paper is the use of documents in programme evaluation. Stake (1970:194) indicates that evaluators may have to use documents as well as observation in programme evaluation. *"The thorough evaluator is tempted to analyze the documents of the community, the newspapers, and the minutes of meetings to learn how ideas and values have fared across time. Researchers call the technique content analysis."*

Stake again returns to the issue of the presentation of evaluation findings. He (1970:199) explains the manner in which the evaluator should present what he refers to as *"Judgment Data",* and outlines what the evaluator should do in writing the report:

To get his message across, the evaluation reporter must insist that the reader study the instruments and procedures used, that he note the language of individual items or classifications, and that he appreciate the conditions in which the data were gathered. Therefore, all this information must be available to the reader. These constructs and conditions are important as background, but they do not necessarily identify any causes of success or failure. They are valuable as a safeguard against unwarranted generalization by the reader. They help him establish limits.

In this paper, Stake highlights the fact that judgement plays a very important role in programme evaluation. Evaluators should therefore pay special attention to it. It is through judgement that the evaluator is able to show whether the programme is succeeding or not. In making the judgements, evaluators have to be careful. This is so because errors are usually committed when making judgements. As a way of trying to minimise the errors, evaluators should try to use methods of data collection that have already been established by other social scientists. The conclusion of this paper is that even though Stake was moving towards an approach that is flexible and more responsive to the stakeholders' concerns and issues, he still maintained some elements of standardisation. By using methods already established, evaluators are less likely to introduce more errors into the data collection. Contrasting standard evaluation and responsive evaluation emerges as one of the themes in the following pages.

2.2.3.4 Testing Hazards in Performance Contracting (1971)

In 1971, Stake wrote a paper entitled "Testing Hazards in Performance Contracting" in which he started to question the use of standardised tests to measure the performance of learners in schools. His argument is that standardised tests do not give direct evidence of achievement. They also do a poor job in predicting future performance of the learners. Stake (1971:1) explains that *"Errors and hazards abound, especially when these general achievement tests are used for performance contracting. Many of the hazards remain even with the use of criterion-referenced tests or any other performance observation procedures."*

As a solution, he proposed that other factors should be taken into consideration when testing than to focus on the scores only. They are social and humanistic factors. He elaborates (1971:10): *"The hazards of specific performance testing and performance contracting are more than curricular and psychometric. Social and humanistic challenges should be raised, too. The teacher has a special opportunity and obligation to observe the influence of testing on social behaviour."*

The focus on scores in testing leads to errors. The errors are as a result of inaccuracies that are inherent in the tests themselves. What it means is that tests have some limitations. As a result of the limitations, humanistic and social factors should be considered when testing a student.

Humanistic factors include emotions, higher thought processes, interpersonal sensitivity and moral sensibility, while social factors include social skills that the students display as they interact with the teacher.

2.2.3.5 Pedagogic and Psychometric Perception of Mathematics Achievement (1992)

In 1992, Stake returns to an issue that he had criticized in his earlier work - "Pedagogic and Psychometric Perception of Mathematics Achievement". In this paper, Stake (1992:2) again highlights the weaknesses of relying on mathematics test scores from standardised mathematics test. His argument is that:

> *Education is not so much an achieving of some fixed standard. In a true sense, it requires unique and personal definition for each learner. Part of the established meaning among educators and others is that education is a personal process and a personally unique accomplishment. For each student, experience is different; thus the formal and informal meanings of arithmetic, algebra, geometry and all mathematics are different from student to student.*

Test scores do not explain all that the student know or does not know. A person's knowledge or understanding involves many things. Amongst them, it involves personal constructions and cultural experience. What test scores do as Stake (1992:5) indicates is to *"seriously understate the diversity and complexity of teachings and learnings"*. This means that to have a holistic picture of what a student knows, there is a need to look at other issues that are involved in teaching and learning than to focus on test scores.

The five papers discussed thus far signify a gradual shift from quantitative approach to more qualitative evaluation by Stake. In the first paper, he criticizes the Countenance model, in the second he elaborates on presenting a report in a language that the reader can understand to be able to make generalisations on the basis of an evaluation study. In the third he explains the value of judgement in evaluations and in the fourth and fifth he denounces the singular reliance on psychometric testing. All five of these developments together signify his shift towards a more qualitative (away from the standard experimental and quantitative approaches) evaluation.

Having looked at the early developmental years of Stake's work, we now turn to a more systematic discussion of the main themes in his work as these have emerged over the past three to four decades.

2.3   Main themes emerging from Stake's writings

I have organised my discussion of Stake's work according to the following themes: the notion of "responsive evaluation", the emphasis on issues, the importance of stakeholders, the case study approach, naturalistic generalisation, his views on constructivism, contrasting standard evaluation and responsive evaluation, limitations in the use of test scores as highlighted in some of his earlier writings, validity in programme evaluation, ethics in programme evaluation and the juxtaposition of criteria and context.

2.3.1 Responsive Evaluation – The main points

Stake's position is that responsive evaluation helps the evaluator to capture the nuances in the evaluation setting. The evaluator does not explain things from a distance but gets into the setting where the programme is running. This helps the evaluator to write as an insider, and gives what Stake refers to as *"vicarious experiences"* to the reader. This becomes clear in a book that he wrote in 2004 (Standards-based and Responsive Evaluation). Here Stake (2004a:86) explains responsive evaluation in more detail than he did in some of his earlier papers like "Program Evaluation: Particularly Responsive Evaluation" (1975a) and "To Evaluate an Art Program" (1975b).

> *Being responsive means orienting to the experience of personally being there, feeling the activity, the tension, knowing the people and their values. It relies heavily on personal interpretation. It gets acquainted with the concerns of stakeholders by giving extra attention to program action, to program uniqueness, and to cultural plurality of the people.*

The evaluator has to be there where the programme is being implemented and respond to issues as they arise. This is done by interacting with the stakeholders in the programme.

2.3.1.1 The clock-prominent events in evaluation

In 1975a, for the first time Stake identified what he referred to as recurring, prominent events that take place during programme evaluation. He arranged the events like the face of a clock, as presented below:

Figure 2.2 Stake's Responsive Clock: Prominent events in a responsive evaluation

The events are outlined as follows:

12 o'clock	Talk with clients, program staff, audiences
1 o'clock	Identify program scope
2 o'clock	Overview program activities
3 o'clock	Discover purposes, concerns
4 o'clock	Conceptualize issues, problems
5 o'clock	Identify data needs, issues
6 o'clock	Select observers, judges, instruments, if any
7 o'clock	Observe designated antecedents, transactions and outcomes
8 o'clock	Thematize; prepare portrayals, case studies
9 o'clock	Validate, confirm, attempt to disconfirm
10 o'clock	Winnow, format for audience use
11 o'clock	Assemble formal reports, if any

The clock outlines events that take place when the evaluator evaluates a programme, but events do not necessarily follow each other as outlined. They may happen simultaneously or any other way as the evaluator continues with an evaluation. The evaluator may also return to each of the events several times before the evaluation ends. In short as Stake (2004a:103) indicates *"…any event can follow any event"*.

For example, at 12 o'clock, the evaluator may discuss with clients, programme staff and other stakeholders in the programme. At the same time he/she will be able to identify the scope of the programme, discover the purpose and concerns and issues, and will also be able to identify data needs, select observers (if needed) and develop the instruments. The evaluator can also observe programme activities and develop themes by preparing portrayals and case studies. Data gathered should be presented to the stakeholders for confirmation. The input from different stakeholders should help the evaluator to produce a report that will be understood by the stakeholders.

It should also be highlighted that Stake's approach to responsive evaluation is different from those of other writers like Guba and Lincoln. The differences are reflected in their design principles, the purpose of evaluation, stakeholder inclusion and control, the person who has authority in the evaluation process and the role of the evaluator.

2.3.1.2   Design principles and the approach

Stake (2004a:95) indicates that responsive evaluation was his response to pre-ordinate designs. According to him, pre-ordinate designs generated data that were not sufficient to answer the evaluation questions. He therefore advocates that the evaluator should approach a programme without preconceived ideas of the direction which the study should take. Only after checking the programme (that is, the evaluator discusses issues with the people and is confident of the issues that should be focussed on) does the evaluator formulate a design, and the study is organised around the issues. Planning includes preliminary work.

Guba and Lincoln (1989) in contrast maintain that the evaluator cannot formulate an evaluation question. A meaningful evaluation question is determined by the stakeholders. The stakeholders decide on the type of evaluation questions to be raised and the data to be collected.

As far as methodology is concerned, Stake (2004a), indicates that responsive evaluation is neither qualitative nor quantitative. In practice, these approaches can be used together, even though each evaluator has got preferences for certain methods. Guba and Lincoln (1989) link responsive evaluation explicitly to naturalistic enquiry. Unlike Stake, they do not believe an evaluator should mix quantitative and qualitative methodology in responsive evaluation.

2.3.1.3 The purpose of an evaluation

Stake (1975b:15) elaborates on the different purposes of evaluation. Evaluation has different purposes, which he outlines as documenting events, recording student change, aid in decision making, seeking understanding and facilitating remediation.

Documenting events

Evaluation can be done with the purpose of documenting events in a programme. This involves documenting different events. Stake gives examples of questions that are meant to help in documenting events. Examples are *"When did the literature teachers become interested?"* and *"When did the aims of the rehearsals change?"*

Recording student change

Another purpose of programme evaluation could be recording student change. This means that after an intervention, it is expected that the students should have changed from their former condition to an improved one. This is more like an evaluation study that focusses on the outcomes; an outcomes evaluation study. Stake gives examples of the questions and evaluator could ask: *"Are these students becoming more aware of similarities in expression across different media?"* and *"Do students like poetry more than they did?"*

Aid in decision making

Evaluation can also be done with the purpose of informing a decision. It may not be clear what to do within a programme, and then an evaluation study could be done to help in taking a decision about the next step. Stake gives examples of the questions that are pertinent, such as, *"Should community artists be asked to contribute time?"* and *"Should the CEMREL materials be purchased?"*

Seeking understanding

Evaluation can be done with the purpose of understanding more about the programme. Stake gives examples of typical questions that are raised: *"Why does this band programme result in excellent student participation?"* and *"With what kinds of students does that teaching style work?"*

Facilitating remediation

The last one is remediation. An evaluation study can be done with the purpose of remedying a situation. Here an evaluation study is carried out with the purpose of improving and remedying a programme. Stake gives examples of questions that can be raised in such a study. They are questions like, *"How can we honor the aesthetic values of the students and persuade them to honor ours?"* and, *"How can we make the self-study program a better program?"*

In 1996, he wrote a paper entitled "Validity" indicating another purpose. He says that evaluation can also be done to determine the existence of a programme. In other words, it is possible that a programme may exist only on paper and not in reality. Here evaluation could be done to determine the existence of the programme in the actual implementation stage. This means that evaluators should visit the sites where the programme is being implemented.

Later, in Greene and Abma (2001), Abma and Stake summarise the purpose of conducting responsive evaluation by indicating that it is done in order to make judgement of the strengths and the weaknesses of a programme, taking various perspectives and evolving issues into consideration. According to Guba and Lincoln (1989), the purpose of responsive evaluation is to identify issues and make them known to other stakeholders, with the aim of trying to reach consensus on issues; creating an agenda for negotiation; provide information and to collect data.

2.3.1.4   Stakeholder inclusion and the roles of the evaluators

Responsive constructivist evaluation as outlined by Guba and Lincoln (1989), advocates for the inclusion of all stakeholders in the evaluation process. It is more of a participatory exercise. There should be a constant interaction between the evaluator and the stakeholders. It is more participatory in the sense that after data have been collected, negotiation is facilitated by encouraging interaction among different stakeholder groupings. There is an ongoing

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confrontation of the different views of the various stakeholders who may hold different positions. Confrontations ultimately lead to a dialogue, which ideally should end up in some consensus. The control of the evaluation is thus in the hands of the participants in the programme.

However, according to Stake (2004a:101), responsive evaluation is not a participatory exercise *"where the evaluation is run cooperatively by the staff or other stakeholders at large"*. Even if the evaluator negotiates and listens to the different stakeholders, it is his responsibility to see the evaluation process through. Negotiation is done in order to check the initial assumptions that the evaluator has about the programme. The control of evaluation remains in the hands of the evaluator.

In Guba and Lincoln (1989), stakeholders have authority in the study. According to Abma and Stake in Greene and Abma (2001:9), evaluation belongs to the evaluator. They explain it well when is stated that:

> *To be responsive does not automatically yield design authority to stakeholders. It means coming to know the circumstances and problems and values well, then using professional talent and discipline to carry out the inquiry. For me, the inquiry belongs to the evaluator. She or he conducts it so, in the end, the stakeholders have a good vicarious experience and reconstruction of quality. I do not see the inquiry as a cooperative effort.*

From their comment, it is apparent that the evaluator is the one who has authority on the evaluation process. He/she is responsible for taking decisions on how the study should be done.

As far as the role of the evaluators is concerned, in Guba and Lincoln's opinions (1989:260) the evaluator is a mediator of the judgemental process. The evaluator's role is to mediate so that the stakeholders reach consensus and make judgements, conclusions and recommendations about the programme. Other roles that the evaluator adopts are that of a learner and a teacher, a reality shaper and a change agent. According to Abma and Stake in Greene and Abma 2001:9, 14; and Stake, 2004a:93, 174), the role of the evaluator is to make judgements about the programme. The evaluator makes assertions of merit and shortcoming of the programme. He does not act as a mediator.

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2.3.2   Responsive to what? The importance of issues

As already indicated, issues are regarded as very important in responsive evaluation. Responsive evaluators respond to issues. Their importance becomes evident when Stake discusses what the plan and the structure of a responsive evaluation study should look like. The plan and the structure of responsive evaluation differ from the structure of the preordinate evaluation in the sense that they depend on the programme and the different stakeholders involved in the programme.

> *Responsive evaluations require planning and structure; but they rely little on formal statements and abstract representations (e.g., flow charts, test scores). Statements of objectives, hypotheses, test batteries, and teaching syllabi are, of course, given primary attention if they are primary components of the instructional program. Then they are treated not as the basis for the evaluation plan but as components of the instructional plan, and are to be evaluated just as other components are. The proper amount of structure for responsive evaluation depends on the program and persons involved.* (1975b:16)

In preordinate evaluation the evaluator may start the evaluation by making use of hypotheses. In responsive evaluation, the evaluator uses *"issues"* as the starting point. These are what Stake (1975b:16-17) refers to as *"advanced organizers"*. They serve as a structure which the evaluator uses in discussing *"with the clients, staff, and audiences, for data gathering plan"*. Anything the evaluator does after identifying the issues, should contribute towards understanding or resolving those issues. Issues identified early in the programme tend to be the focus of evaluation, while issues identified late in the evaluation process tend to be ignored even though the responsive evaluation plan is flexible.

Stake also gives examples of what he refers to as issue-questions. In evaluating TCITY which was a summer institute for high school students, issue-questions were generated. Stake gives examples of issue-questions as follows: *"Is the admissions policy satisfactory?" "Are some teachers too permissive.", "Why do so few students stay for the afternoon?"*

In 1989, Stake further highlights the importance of issues in an evaluation study at Grays Harbor. The purpose of the study was to look at evaluation designs and the manner in which they could be made more relevant and realistic. Stake (1989:111) explains the purpose further when he writes that:

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And in almost all cases, efforts to evaluate fail to tell us much of what we want to know. Among the problems are: differences in federal and local expectations, lack of attention to contexts, and uncertainty about how flexible evaluation designs should be. This case study was undertaken to examine the role of evaluation in the conduct of such projects.

The Transition Project at Grays Harbor was used as the focus of the evaluation study. The aim of the programme was to identify and try to meet personal and employment needs of the youth with mild handicaps. These were youth who were out of school and not eligible for other aid. As Stake, indicates in the other papers like "To evaluate an art program" (1975b) and "Program Evaluation: Particularly Responsive Evaluation" (1975a), he started by looking at issues. He explains what they are when he writes that *"Issues are major ideas about which people disagree. People will disagree about how the program is operating and how it should be evaluated".* Two groups of issues can be distinguished: programme issues and evaluation issues.

Programme issues are issues that relate to the programme. For example issues that may arise as the programme is being implemented. Evaluation issues are issues that relate to the evaluation of the programme. Stake (1989:122) gives examples of evaluation issues. The issues which Stake (1989:122) identified in The Transition Project at Grays Harbor were grouped into four clusters. They are *"Overpromising", "Criteria for success", "Technical Assistance"* and *"Generalizability".* The clusters were meant to help them to categorise questions. Some of the examples of questions classified according to different clusters are given as follows:

Overpromising:
The progress at Grays Harbor in the first year was slow. Examples of questions that arose out of this issue were *"Should disappointing accomplishment the first year be chalked up to faulty operation or to excusable overoptimism? Is this an instance of the general tendency of those who request funding to make proposal claims and plans which overpromise what can be accomplished? Do the directors, sporting high ambition, direct work away from modest accomplishment toward the unattainable?"*

Criteria for success: In this cluster, questions focused on criteria that would help to indicate programme success. Examples of questions asked were *"Should job placement be the primary*

criterion for program success? Is the duration of employment just as important?" The other criterion to determine success was on skills. At Grays Harbor they emphasised skills training whereas the proposal focused on employment criterion. Questions asked were *"On what standards should the evaluator focus? Do absolute standards (here, assurance of eighth grade skill levels) or relative standards (a gain for each trainee) serve quality control equally well?"*

Technical assistance: This cluster focused on the role of the evaluator. What is the role of the external evaluator on technical issues related to the programme? Some of the examples of questions asked were *"Did the external evaluator effectively balance evaluation as technical assistance and evaluation as guarantor of accountability? Did the assistance role nullify the obligation to identify shortcomings? Did the evaluator increase project dependence on outside help or assist the staff in becoming self-reliant?"*...

Generalizability: The emphasis on this issue was on the creation of a model that could be used by other personnel working on the same kind of programmes. One example of a question asked was *"Did the project co-directors use their opportunity well to create a model and leave a record potentially useful to other special education transition service personnel?*

Stake (1989:129) concludes the paper by indicating that the evaluator is faced with a large choice of issue questions, and that it is vital to focus on the important ones. This indicates the centrality of issues in responsive evaluation, and their role as a starting point. Issues usually arise as a result of differences amongst stakeholders who may not see things the same. This may happen during or after the implementation of the programme. They therefore serve as important guiding devices from the planning stages of the study right through to data collection and analysis.

The research questions are formulated from issues which serve as a conceptual structure or framework. This becomes clearer when looking at the book that Stake wrote in 1995, in which he explains issues as something that provide a conceptual structure for organising the study of a case. Stake (1995a:20) also differentiates between *"emic issues"* and *"etic issues"*. *"Emic issues"* are issues that emerge as the study continues whereas *"etic issues"* are issues that are brought into the setting by the researcher. The distinction between the two issues *("etic issues"*

and *"emic issues"*) has its history in the social sciences coming from the study of languages. It was coined by people like Kenneth Pike (Morris, Leung, Ames and Lickel, 1999:782) to explain two kinds of data concerning human behaviour. *"Emic issues"* are issues emanating from an insider perspective. This means that the researcher or the evaluator tries to understand issues about the culture of the participants the way the participants understand it, in terms of the concepts that they use, and to see the world the way they see it. This means that the researcher or the evaluator has to spend some time with them and penetrate as deeply as possible into their culture with the aim of gaining insight. *"Etic issues"* are issues from an outsider perspective. In this case, the researcher or evaluator tries to understand the culture of the participants using concepts, theories and frameworks established by other people who are not participants. The theories may be meaningless to the participants, but means that the researcher or the evaluator does not have to spend time with the participants.

2.3.3   Responsive to whom? The importance of stakeholders

Stakeholders are people who have an interest in what is going on in the programme. Stake (1975b), gradually introduces the importance of stakeholders in programme evaluation.

In quantitative approaches, which he refers to as pre-ordinate approaches; stakeholders are not regarded as important because the focus is on whether the objectives of the programme are met or not, without listening the voice of the stakeholders. In other words the voices of the stakeholders are silenced. In responsive evaluation, the voices of stakeholders play a major role in programme evaluation. This becomes evident in the paper that he wrote in 1975 which indicates his shift from traditional approach to evaluation to responsive evaluation. He turns away from an approach that emphasises objectives as a point of focus in programme evaluation to an approach that accommodates different stakeholders. This means that stakeholders are very important in responsive evaluation. They play a crucial role since responsive evaluation tries to give each of them a platform to raise their voices.

Views on the importance of the programme are gathered from different stakeholders. The accuracy of data and findings is checked by letting different stakeholders react to what the evaluator has written.

Stakeholders also help in determining the validity of the programme. In 1996, Stake wrote a paper that focuses on validity in programme evaluation. According to Stake (1996), the validity of the programme implies the quality of the representation of the programme as it exists. This can only be achieved by the inclusion of different stakeholders in programme evaluation. They (stakeholders) bring with them different views on the programme. It is therefore important that the evaluator should involve different stakeholders in programme evaluation. Involving different stakeholders enhances the quality of the representation about the programme. For the evaluator to know more about the quality of representation, he/she has to know about the programme. To know more about the programme, Stake advises that the evaluator should triangulate issues that will be presented about the programme. This can be done by contacting different stakeholders. As the evaluator contacts different stakeholders and allows them to present their issues about the programme, a holistic picture of the programme emerges. The evaluator in turn responds to the issues as presented by different stakeholders in the programme. Stake, in Kellaghan and Sufflebeam (2003:63) emphasises this when he writes that *"The essential feature of the approach is responsiveness to key issues or problems, especially those recognized by people at the site"*. More about validity is presented as a theme on its own later on.

2.3.4   The case study approach

In 1978, Stake wrote a paper entitled "The Case Study Method in Social Inquiry". Stake (1978:5), claims that *"case studies will often be the preferred method of research because they may be epistemologically in harmony with the reader's experience and thus to that person a natural basis for generalization."* It is in the same paper where Stake (1978:5) indicates the importance of helping the readers to understand evaluation reports when using the case study approach. When reporting, evaluators should use words and illustrations as well as the experience gained by being involved in the evaluation of the programme. Stake says that the importance of using case studies in programme evaluation depends on the aim of an evaluation. Stake (1978:6) expresses it as follows:

> *When explanation, propositional knowledge, and law are the aims of an inquiry, the case study will often be at a disadvantage. When the aims are understanding, extension of experience, and increase in conviction in that which is known, the disadvantage disappears.*

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Stake (1978:6) highlights the fact that case studies do make some form of generalisations. He referred to this kind of generalisation as *"naturalistic generalisation"*. It is a kind generalisation where the evaluator, recognises *"the similarities of objects and issues in and out of context and by sensing the natural co-variations of happenings"*. The evaluator comes to these kinds of generalisations as a result of personal experience. They develop from knowing how things are and why are they like that. They also include the way in which people feel about them, and how are things likely to be later in other places with which the same evaluator is familiar with.

The other issue that Stake (1978:7) raises in the paper is the explanation of what a case is in a case study. "*The case need not be a person or enterprise. It can be whatever 'bounded system' (to use Louis Smith's term) is of interest. An institution, a program, a responsibility, a collection, or a population can be the case.*"

Stake (1978:7) concludes the paper by looking at the uses of a case study approach. It is useful for:

- Testing theories
- Theory building
- Exploration
- Adding to existing experience and humanistic understanding that leads to naturalistic generalisation.

Testing theories: According to Stake, case studies can be used to test theories. This happens in situations where case studies are used to show whether the hypothesis is true or false. Usually this is done in studies that are quantitative in their approach.

Theory building: Case studies, especially in qualitative studies, are used to develop theories. This is done by making a search for essences, determining the ingredients that lead to the making of laws. A theory develops from the data that the researchers have collected in studies that are qualitative in their approach.

Exploration: Case studies are also useful in exploration. Some studies are undertaken as a way of exploring the phenomenon. In such cases, case studies assist the researcher to explore.

As case studies can add to existing experience and human understanding leading to naturalistic generalisation, Stake argues that case studies should be presented in a way that adds to the experiences that readers have already had. Their experiences will help them to connect with what is presented through case studies, and this provides a better understanding of what is being presented through the case studies. This ultimately, leads to what Stake refer to as "naturalistic generalisation". More about naturalistic generalisation is presented as a theme on its own.

In 1995, Stake wrote a book entitled "The Art of Case Study Research". In this book, Stake (1995a) elaborates on his views on the case study approach in more detail than the one that he wrote in 1978. He starts by giving an explanation of a case study. *"Case study is the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances."* His emphasis in this book is on a single case. Stake (1995a:2) continues to explain what he means by a case: *"The case could be a child. It could be a classroom of children or a particular mobilization of professionals to study a childhood condition"*. He continues that *"A child may be a case. A teacher may be a case. But her teaching lacks the specificity, the boundedness, to be called a case"*.

After explaining what a case is, he also discusses different kinds of case studies. He refers to them as the *"Intrinsic Case Study", the "Instrumental Case Study"* and the *"Collective Case Study"*. An intrinsic case study is done in order to learn about the unique phenomenon which the study focuses on. There is a need for the researcher to indicate the unique features of the phenomenon which distinguishes it from other phenomena. An instrumental case study is done in order to provide a general understanding of the phenomenon using a particular case. Stake (1995a:3-4) defines a collective case study when he writes, *"We may feel that we should choose several teachers to study rather than just one. Or we might choose to use schools as our cases and choose several schools. Each case study is instrumental to learning about the effects of the marking regulations but there will be important coordination between the individual studies. We may call the work Collective case study."*

Stake (1995a:3) also provides guidance on how single case studies can be conducted. He outlines the following steps. They are:

- Selection of cases
- Developing research questions
- Gathering data
- Analysing and interpreting data
- Roles of the researcher, triangulation, and report writing.

On the selection of cases, he provides some guidelines on what the evaluator or the researcher does in using a case study approach. Stake (1995a:4) reminds the reader that the case study approach is not meant to account for representation. The cases do not serve as representatives of other cases. They are chosen for their uniqueness. *"Case study research is not sampling research. We do not study a case primarily to understand other cases. Our first obligation is to understand this one case."*

Stake (1995a:8) also gives guidance on how the researcher should sample or select cases. Unlike in the quantitative approach, the researcher should select cases because of certain conveniences. He expresses this when he writes *"If we can, we need to pick cases which are easy to get to and hospitable to our inquiry, perhaps for which a prospective informant can be identified and with actors (the people studied) willing to comment on certain draft materials."*

The researcher or the evaluator conducts a case study not to generalise but to focus on the case with the aim of knowing it well. The emphasis is on the uniqueness of the case.

> *The real business of case study is particularization, not generalization. We take a particular case and come to know it well, not primarily as to how it is different from others but what it is, what it does. There is emphasis on uniqueness, and that implies knowledge of others that the case is different from, but the emphasis is on understanding the case itself"*

On the research questions, Stake (1995a:9) points out that they serve as a guide in focusing the study. They are formulated from issues. They are not fixed. This highlights the flexible nature of a case study approach. He outlines it by writing that *"the aim is to thoroughly understand. If early questions are not working, if new questions become apparent, the design is changed"*.

He further discusses (1995a:370) the differences between qualitative and quantitative research:

Three major differences in qualitative and quantitative emphasis deserve attention: (1) the distinction between explanation and understanding as the purpose of inquiry; (2) the distinction between a personal and impersonal role for the researcher, and (3) a distinction between knowledge discovered and knowledge constructed.

Stake also gives guidance on the methods of research in a case study approach: observation, interviews and document collection.

For them naturalistic observation has been the primary medium of acquaintance. When they cannot see for themselves, they ask others who have seen. When formal records have been kept, they pour over the documents. But most of them favour a personal capture of the experience so, from their own involvement, they can interpret it, recognize contexts, puzzle the many meanings while still there and pass along an experiential, naturalistic account for readers to participate themselves in some similar reflection.

The researcher uses observation to see what is happening in the setting. This is helpful in describing the context in detail. There are other things that the researcher may not be able to see, which can be captured by means of using interviews. Other data can be extracted from documents. According to Stake (1995a:68) these may include *"newspapers, annual reports, correspondence, minutes of meetings, and the like"*.

In the same book, Stake (1995a:112) gives an explanation on how data is validated through triangulation, which he defines as follows: *"This is an effort to see if what we are observing and reporting carries the same meaning when found under different circumstances"* (1995a:113). Stake (1995a:112-115) also refers to different kinds of triangulations. They are investigator triangulation, theory triangulation and member checking. Investigator triangulation means *"other researchers looking at the same scene or phenomenon"*. Theory triangulation takes place *"when investigators compare data"*. Member checking is when actors or the participants in the study are given a chance to check the data collected.

Further, Stake's 1995a book focuses on report writing. He gives guidance on what should be included in the case study report:

- Entry vignette
- Issue identification, purpose and method of study
- Extensive narrative description to further define case and contexts

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- Development of issues

- Descriptive detail, documents, quotations, triangulating data. This involves an indication of what the researcher has done to confirm or disconfirm the data.

- Assertions. Things that the researcher presents as assertions from the data.

- Closing vignette. This is done to remind the reader that what has been written is one's expression of the encounter with a complex case. (1995a:123)

The other issue about case studies is whether all responsive evaluation studies should be regarded as case studies or not. This also emerged when he was interviewed by Abma in 2001. Stake's response was that not all evaluation studies are case studies. According to Abma and Stake, in Greene and Abma (2001:11), some evaluation studies address more general issues or focus on policies; these cannot be referred to as case studies. Such studies use other approaches like a survey approach and not a case study approach. So when an evaluator evaluates a programme, it does not necessarily mean that the person is using a case study approach. This means that it is possible to use responsive evaluation in a survey design. In Chapter 3 of this study, there is an example of such a study.

It should, however, be noted that even when Stake advocates the use of the case study approach, he does acknowledge its disadvantages. Disadvantages notwithstanding, the case study approach does contribute to knowledge in programme evaluation.

One of the concerns that Stake has about case studies is generalisation. This is a familiar criticism for case study researchers. Stake indicates his concern when he writes, "*Case study seems a poor basis for generalisation...The real business of case study is particularisation*" (1995a:7-8). Stake is trying to indicate that even if there are areas where case studies can be regarded as weak, there are areas where it can be regarded as strong. It depends on the issue that is being evaluated. Even though case studies may be regarded as weak in terms of generalisation, especially when viewed from the traditional scientific approach, they do however have their own forms of generalisations. One of which is naturalistic generalisation, as already highlighted.

2.3.5   Naturalistic generalisation

The notion of "naturalistic generalisation" was first presented in Stake's 1978 paper and was further discussed in a joint paper with Trumbull in 1982. This paper was published in Belok and Haggerson (1982). In the paper they argue that naturalistic inquiry or qualitative research does contribute towards facilitating change as well as improvement in practice.

Stake and Trumbull (1982:1) say that programme evaluation should be planned and carried out in such a way that it will give the reader maximum vicarious experience. It should help the reader to reach *"new understandings, new naturalistic generalizations"*.

Naturalistic researchers or qualitative researchers should be committed to presenting the reader with vicarious experience. This should be done by presenting *"raw data-portrayals of actual teaching and learning problems, witnessing of observers who understand the reality of the classroom, words of the people involved"*. (1982:3).

The notion of "vicarious" is derived from the word vicar. They explain the word vicar as *"a substitute, performing a service for those not well placed to perform themselves"*. (1982:3). This means that the evaluator should always bear in mind that whatever is read or observed and recorded, readers are not in the position to do themselves. As a result, the report that the evaluator gives should provide readers with a picture of the situation as if they were there. Data in the report should be presented in its natural form with its *"richness and ambiguities and conflicts which are part of daily experience"*. (1982:4). That will help the reader to connect what is being read with personal experiences, which ultimately leads to naturalistic generalisation.

Stake, in Denzin and Lincoln (2000a:442) touches on the issue of naturalistic generalisation again. According to Stake this is a kind of generalisation where *"[t]he reader comes to know some things told, as if he or she had experienced it. Enduring meanings come from encounter, and are modified and reinforced by repeated encounter"*. In his 2010 book Stake (2010:220), refers to it as *"knowledge from direct experience"*. This means that the combination of what the reader is reading and the experiences the reader has had, allows the reader to make certain generalisations. These are referred to as naturalistic generalisations.

This kind of generalisation (naturalistic generalisation) is different from generalisation in the traditional scientific approach. In the traditional scientific approach, generalisation is based on large samples that are representative enough of the population, whereas in naturalistic generalisation, generalisation is based on the particular case study. The particular should be well detailed so that the reader can make generalisations based on personal experiences. Readers gain more insight as they read the report and reflect by looking at their situation to see whether there are enough similarities to generalise or modify their generalisation. They make their own conclusions without any form of prescription from the evaluator.

2.3.6   Stake on Constructivism

In 1999, Stake presented a paper entitled "Representing Quality in Evaluation" at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association held in Montreal Canada. In the paper Stake (1999:1) discussed the difficulty of trying to represent the quality of the evaluand. This difficulty goes hand in hand with the difficulty of trying to define quality. Stake (1999:1) defined it by stating that, *"We can think of quality as a property of the evaluand or as a construction of people who experience the evaluand"*.

He also discussed his philosophical position as a constructivist: *"To be of most service to society, by my political philosophy, we should honor human perception by favoring the concept of value as a construction over quality as a property."* As he continued, Stake became more explicit in terms of his philosophical position as a constructivist. *"For us constructivists, quality doesn't exist until people declare it so. And people declare it when struck by the exquisite, when moved by the encounter."* (1999:3). This implies that the evaluator should not be the only person who declares the quality of the programme. There is a need to listen to the views of the different stakeholders in programme about the quality of the programme, as already indicated. Stake went further, saying, *"We are not evaluators unless we represent quality as others see it and not as we see it"* (1999:4). The evaluators are helpful in that they help to convey the quality that the stakeholders may recognise but are unable to communicate.

Stake (2000a) repeats his epistemological beliefs as a constructivist. *"Knowledge is socially constructed, so we constructivists believe … in their experiential and contextual accounts, case study researchers assist readers in the construction of knowledge"* (2000a:442).

The philosophical position that Stake hold as a constructivist, also becomes evident in his conversation with Abma. This is manifested when Abma, in Greene and Abma (2001:17-18) explains, *"I understand relativism as opposed to realism, that you are not discovering reality but constructing knowledge in a social context, that's why it is relative."* Stake responded by saying, *"That's good. Yes, that's good."*

In short, Stake presents himself as a constructivist. He believes that knowledge is a construct. As a result, in whatever he does or writes, he urges evaluators to take local activities into consideration. At some stage he confesses that he is a "localist". Knowledge is constructed by different stakeholders in the programme. It is made up of largely social interpretations of local situation. Hence, local issues help the reader to have a holistic picture of the context where the programme is located.

Something that should be noted though is that even though Stake is regarded as a constructivist, his views differ from that of Guba and Lincoln who are also regarded as constructivists or relativist constructivists. One major difference is that in Guba and Lincoln (1989)'s approach the evaluator is part of the ongoing process of constructing reality. The evaluator and the different stakeholders jointly experience problems and construct questions. Solutions come as a result of consensus amongst the stakeholders. This means that constructions are negotiated amongst the stakeholders and this encounter amongst the stakeholders leads to a modified level of understanding. Consensus plays a major role because reality is relative and, as such, it has to be negotiated. Every stakeholder's personal reality is very important.

Stake (1995a) takes a different view altogether. He does not believe in relativist constructivism as advocated by Guba and Lincoln. He argues that there is no reason to treat every stakeholder's reality as equally important because some interpretations of reality are better than others. The evaluator should be able to give his or her interpretations instead of doing it by consensus, or

treating all interpretations as equal. Good interpretations should depend on the detailed argumentation based on the constructor's understanding of the programme.

2.3.7   Contrasting standard evaluation and responsive evaluation

One other theme that emerges from Stake's work is contrasting standard-based evaluation and responsive evaluation. Standard-based evaluation is presented as an approach that is quantitative since it emphasises standards and criteria in doing evaluation. It also puts much emphasis on test scores as good indicators of what the student is capable of. As a way of dealing with the shortcomings in using standard-based evaluation, Stake proposes responsive evaluation. This emerges when looking at some of his writings, like the paper written in 1995, and the book written in 2004.

In the 1995b paper, "The Virtual Reality of Systemic Effects of NSF Programming on Education: Its Profession, Practice, Research, and Institutions", Stake reviews concerns about programme effectiveness and accountability, as well as the capabilities of programme evaluation methods and people to trace systemic effects.

Stake (1995b:112) lists the differences between the quantitative and qualitative approaches to evaluation. According to him the differences are more on their emphases than the distinction or the boundaries between the two. The evaluator may use the elements of each in the evaluation study. Stake (1995b:112) explains the differences between the two when he writes:

Perhaps the most important differences in emphasis are threefold:

a. Distinction between knowledge discovered and knowledge constructed;

b. Distinction between aiming for explanation and aiming for understanding; and

c. Distinction between personal and impersonal roles of the researcher.

The distinction implies that in the qualitative approach knowledge is a construct rather than something to be discovered. Due to the fact that knowledge is a construct within the qualitative approach, even the evaluation design using this approach will be different from the designs advocated within the quantitative approach. Within the qualitative approaches, the evaluation designs are geared towards helping the evaluators to make descriptions and situational

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interpretations of the phenomena. Quantitative approaches in programme evaluation try to eliminate situational and contextual issues. According to Stake, *"they try to nullify context in order to find salient and pervasive explanatory relationships"* (1995b:115).

Stake (1995b:115) further elaborates on the differences between the two approaches. He indicates that the quantitative approach focuses more on searching for grand theories and generalisations without paying attention to contextual factors, whereas qualitative evaluators view the context as important since it contributes towards the readers' understanding of the report. However, evaluators in practice usually draw on the strengths of both approaches when evaluating programmes.

Stake outlines the characteristics of qualitative research in the same paper. He identifies four themes:

- Constructed knowledge and virtual representations
- Experiential understanding
- Emphasis on holistic treatment of phenomena
- Emphasis on interpretation (1995b:112-117).

Constructed knowledge and virtual representations

Stake (1995b:112-114) explains that each person creates new knowledge. When they tell others what they have learnt, they simulate that knowledge. This knowledge is represented by symbols, narratives and indices. He says that even though knowledge is represented by symbols, narratives and indices, it is important to look at them carefully and try to find out their meanings.

Experiential understanding

Experiential understanding is a kind of understanding that results from having experiences. As a result, Stake (1995b:114), indicates that qualitative evaluators should make descriptions and situational interpretations of the phenomenon in their reports as a way of trying to help the reader connect with personal experiences. This enhances experiential understanding and ultimately leads to naturalistic generalisation as indicated earlier.

Emphasis on holistic treatment of the phenomenon

Qualitative evaluators put much emphasis on the holistic treatment and uniqueness of phenomenon. This is pursued by focusing on the particular different aspects of the context in which an evaluation is taking place. This involves looking at the temporal, spatial, historical, political, economic, cultural, personal and social aspects of the phenomenon, among others.

Emphasis on interpretation

Stake emphasises the importance of interpretation when using qualitative approach. The researchers should be able to give meaning to the data that they collect. He explains this as follows:

> *Qualitative methods invite personal reflection. With intense interaction of researcher and actors in the field, with a constructivist orientation to knowledge, with sensitivity to participant intentionality and sense of self, however descriptive the report, the qualitative researcher expects to express personal views.* (1995b:116)

In dealing with interpretation, researchers should be aware that it involves *"thick description, alternative interpretations, multiple realities, and naturalistic generalization"* (Stake, 1995b:116).

Since interpretation plays such an important role in successful qualitative evaluation, evaluators should apply their interpretative skills in the field to help them to redirect observations and focus on emerging issues. The emerging issues will elicit personal reflection from the evaluator.

As he continues, Stake (1995b:117) defends the qualitative approach from some of the criticisms raised. One of these is the notion of subjectivity. He says, *"Subjectivity is not seen as a failing to be eliminated but as an essential element of understanding."* To deal with the concern with subjectivity, qualitative researchers have a strategy - triangulation. Triangulation involves the use of different methods for data collection, allowing the evaluator to look at the phenomenon from different angles. This helps to maximise the validity and reliability of an evaluation study. It also helps in dealing with the biases (More on criticisms of Stake's work are discussed in Chapter 3.)

The other contentious criticism is that the results contribute little towards the advancement of social practice. His defence is that the qualitative approach is not like the quantitative approach. It does contribute to the advancement of social practice in its own way. It also helps to answer questions that may not be answered by quantitative approaches, like: 'Why?', 'How?' and 'What?' It may be slower or take longer but does ultimately contribute to the advancement of social practice. It does that by focusing on details and contexts in a holistic way, which gives the reader a clear understanding of the phenomenon, which in turn helps in the advancement of social practice.

This paper stresses the different approach of qualitative evaluation. As a result, it should not be viewed like quantitative approaches. Subjectivity should not be viewed as a weakness but as part of the process in making evaluation more understandable. Concerns about biases are addressed by triangulating the data. Triangulation helps to enhance the credibility of qualitative evaluation.

In 2004, Stake published a book entitled "Standard-Based & Responsive Evaluation". The book focuses on the two main approaches to evaluation - standard-based and responsive evaluation. The approaches may as well be referred to as quantitative and qualitative approaches in evaluation. This is evidently Stake's view: "*The main theme of the book is that there are two grand ways of approaching the task of evaluation, a measurement-oriented way and experience-oriented way.*" (2004a:xi). Instead of using the words *"measurement"* and *"experience"*, Stake chooses to use words like *"standards and criteria"* as key concepts for the measurement or the quantitative approach, and *"evaluator responsiveness and interpretation"* as key concepts for experience or the qualitative approach.

Stake (2004a:xii) highlights some of the changes that he went through when he was writing this book. In some of his earlier papers he advocated for the use of qualitative approach in programme evaluation (See "Pedagogic and Psychometric Perception of Mathematics Achievement" (1992), "Teacher evaluation" (1998a), "Some Comments on Assessment in the U.S Education" (1998c), "Hoax?" (1998d) and "Evaluating of Testing and Criterial Thinking in Education" (2001). However, now Stake concedes a change in his approach when he writes,

"You have to use some of both". (2004a: xii). So this is not about using *either* a quantitative *or* a qualitative approach. It is more about contrasting them and highlighting the features of each.

In his 2004 book Stake points out some of the differences between standard-based evaluation and responsive evaluation. Some of the examples are outlined below:

Table 2.1 Differences between standard-based evaluation and responsive evaluation

Standard-based evaluation	Responsive evaluation
• It uses large number of methods that rely on criteria thinking	• It relies heavily on personal interpretation
• It relies on *"aggregate analysis"*	• It relies on *"Interpretative analysis"*
• Judgement of merit and worth is done by numerically comparing a performance indicator to a standard	• Judgement of merit and worth is made incrementally by successive refinements of judgement
• The evaluation work is guided by criteria made clear in advance	• The evaluation work changes as the programme changes
• It focuses on programme theory or stated goals	• It is responsive to stakeholder concerns
• Goals, needs, chronology, hypotheses, input-output flowcharts and social or economic equations are used as starting point for evaluation	• Issues are more often chosen as *"conceptual organizers"*
• It gives more attention to measurements	• It gives more attention to interpretive observation
• There is pride in the instruments developed	• There is pride in the meanings found in the programme

The table presents differences between standard evaluation and responsive evaluation, and also shows the strategic choices that programme evaluators have in programme evaluation. They can evaluate the programme by using the standard-based approach, or evaluate the programme by responding to the issues as raised by different stakeholders in the programme. They can also mix

the two approaches, as already highlighted, depending on the situation and the circumstances under which the programme is being evaluated.

2.3.8   Limitations in the use of test scores

The other theme that emerges from Stake is his frustration with test scores. To him, they do not give a true picture of the abilities of learners. This is evident too from some of his other papers.

In "Teacher Evaluation", presented to a public audience at the University of Alberta, Edmonton in November 1998, he makes the point that one cannot evaluate a programme properly without experiencing the programme. (He had already stressed this in earlier writings, like "Pedagogic and Psychometric Perception of Mathematics Achievement" in 1992.) The argument is that for a person to know the quality of something, the person has to experience it. A person who tries to explain something without having experienced it may not be able to give the best explanation. Stake (1998a:2) explains:

> *Those of us not in a classroom do not know the quality of teaching in that room. Those in the classroom know the teaching better, but still not well. None of us know the quality of teaching in a big collection of classrooms and schools. We don't know how good or how bad is the teaching on our campuses. We sometimes know some folks who like the teacher and some who don't, but we barely know anything about the quality of the actual teaching. You know much better how Barbara Budd does her job, how Bob Essensa does his, and how Bill Clinton does his job, than how your daughter's teachers have done theirs.*

Without having experienced what the person is talking about, the explanation given is usually superficial. Teaching becomes worse because of the complex nature of the teaching process and the education of the child as such. The individual scores that students obtain in the tests cannot be used to explain the complexity of the teaching process. Stake's comment is that:

> *Student test scores are only weakly related to quality of teaching. What determines level of student performance is some rich mix of genetic predisposition, infant nurturing, sibling rivalry, early childhood experience, peer interactivity, teen rebellion, exposure to language and word games, television, and schooling.* (1998a:3).

Test scores do not serve as reliable indicators of quality teaching. They are just superficial indicators of the student's abilities. Stake elaborates on this by writing that *"Teachers are engaged in vital teaching functions, most of which are too complex and too unobservable for others, and sometimes even for themselves, to know"* (1998a:5).

Stake (1998a:5) continues to outline what functions he thinks are not usually captured in test scores:

- *awareness and protection of teachable moments*
- *discerning when a student has made a quantum leap*
- *contending with students who would wrest away classroom control*
- *honouring parent aspirations and fears, and*
- *linking new concepts with old.*

Towards the end of the paper Stake (1998a:6) gives some guidance on what should be done in order to properly evaluate teaching. He gives three helpful points:

- *No instrument or procedure should be used alone. If we don't have three or more ways of getting a look at teaching quality, we shouldn't use any. One view of the Indian elephant is not better than no view at all.*
- *A teacher should be evaluated on contributions to the entire instructional program, not just to his or her own classes.*
- *We can use existing research on teaching to suggest ways of improving teaching but we cannot use it for evaluating.*

There is more to evaluation than what scores indicate. To do justice to teaching evaluation, there is a need to go beyond the scores and provide a holistic picture of the situation.

Stake also presented a paper entitled "Hoax?" (1998d) at the symposium on Educational Evaluation that was held in his honour for the contribution he made in the field of programme evaluation. This coincided with his formal retirement on May 9, 1998. In this paper Stake (1998d:354), told how he initially became interested in tests and test scores in schools.

> *Back in San Diego, I was impressed by one of my eldest cousins, Richard Madden, a professor of education at San Diego State and co-author of the Stanford Achievement Tests. Richard would spread his charts on a table of Cherry Creek, Colorado, explaining how changes in the teaching of spelling had reconfigured the scores. I marvelled at Richard finding connections between teaching and testing.*

Later on, after some research studies on the relationship between testing and the curriculum, he came to realise that there is no link between teaching and testing. He indicated that there is no connection between testing in the schools and the curriculum. Tests did not reflect what the students were capable of. In his words at the symposium, Stake (1998d:355) said, "*A year later, as a graduate assistant at the Educational Testing Service, I continued my fascination with test*

items. It was a while before I realized these items were just another version of showing off. I could devise analogy items that stumped even the cleverest of my friends."

He continued to explain his criticisms of test scores.

> *But as many of the critics of testing have noted, such test scores did not correlate well with success in later work, with practical ingenuity, aesthetic sensitivity, raising a family, being a good citizen, or becoming an effective teacher. And many of the people who became good at these other things found life harder because their test scores suggested their aspirations were less worthy of support.*

Stake (1998d:355) discusses his training background in the same paper. He reveals that he was trained in psychometrics and mathematical theories of measurement of human characteristics and not in test development.

The paper ends with his criticism of the standardised tests. *"At the top of the list of deceits we have failed to expose are those of standardized testing. We have failed to show that the best testing has regularly not been an indication of what students can do, nor of the quality of the educational system, nor of what the teachers or the society should do next."* (1998d:358).

In July 1998, Stake published a paper entitled "Some Comments on Assessment in the U. S. Education" and again focuses on assessment in the US. Stake (1998c:2) maintains that the use of standardised tests is not enough in determining what learners do or do not know. His argument is: *"The felt purposes of education, aggregated across the profession, across researchers, the public and the primary beneficiaries, are far more complex than those represented in goal statements and formal assessment."* (1998c:2). He continues to argue that *"the grand manifold of purposes of Education held by any one person at any one time also is complex, and situational and internally contradictory. People, even those specially trained, are not very good at speaking of 'what all they expect' of an educated person."*

What Stake also does in the paper is to highlight the fact that even though standardised tests do not reflect the true potential of the student, it does not mean that they are useless. It is just that those who use them should always remember that there are risks involved in using them.

Categorisation of students based on the results from such tests is artificial. According to Stake (1998c:3), instead of relying on standardised tests,

> *[w]e need better descriptions, better evidence, of those consequences of assessment. And partly because we construct nuances of meaning faster than we invent measurements, we need to understand that we will never have a clear enough picture of the consequences of assessment. All findings should be treated as partial and tentative.*

Something that Stake (1998c:4) also does in this paper is to outline the disadvantages of emphasising assessment based on standardised tests. He did not do this in the other papers that focused on assessment using standardised tests ("Testing hazards in Performance Contracting" 1971, "Pedagogic and Psychometric Perception of Mathematics" 1992 and "Teacher Evaluation" 1998a). Stake (1998c:4) outlines the disadvantages as follows:

- *instruction is diverted*
- *student self-esteem is eroded*
- *teachers are intimidated*
- *the locus of control of education is more centralized*
- *undue stigma is affixed to the school*
- *school people are lured towards falsification of scores*
- *some blame for poor instruction is redirected toward students when it should rest with the profession and the authorities, and*
- *the withholding of needed funding for education appears warranted.*

As a result of the disadvantages highlighted, Stake (1998c:6) suggests that instead of relying on the test scores, more should be done. Other factors should also be taken into consideration.

In 2000, Stake published a chapter in Stake and Burke (2000b), "The evaluation of Teachers". The focus of the chapter is on the quality of the effort to measure the quality of elementary teaching in Chicago. According to Stake people who know best about the quality of teaching are those who are in that classroom. Like Stake did in some of his earlier writings, for example, "Pedagogic and Psychometric Perception of Mathematics Achievement" (1992), "Teacher evaluation" (1998a), "Some Comments on Assessment in the U.S Education" (1998c) "Hoax? (1998d) in Stake and Burke (2000:75), he continues to indicate the disadvantages of relying on test scores to explain the quality of education.

> *For most children in ordinary schools, who get almost continuous grading by teachers and periodic standardized testing, we have pretty good information on student performance on*

a large selection of academic tasks. But the marks do little more than rank the students from high to low. They don't tell how educated the children are becoming.

Stake also highlights the fact that the understanding of the quality of teaching is influenced by the political disposition of the different political groupings. It depends on whether they are liberals or conservatives. As a result, people cannot use one single criterion to judge quality teaching. According to Stake (2000b:77), *"It depends on who is talking. It depends on what schools need, what children need, what society needs. And needs change under changing circumstances."*

In the paper written in 2001, Stake (2001:13) outlined the disadvantages of test scores saying, *"It is a deceit. Students increasingly think of education as getting good test scores. But the calamity is the effect on teachers and schools. Teachers and administrators also increasingly think of education as getting good scores."*

In Kellaghan and Stufflebeam (2003:64) Stake continues to indicate the disadvantages of using tests in testing students. *"This is because such instrumentation has so often been found simplistic and inattentive to local circumstances. Available tests seldom provide comprehensive measures of the outcomes intended, even when stakeholders have grown used to using them."* Stake does however give room for the use of tests in this chapter: *"With the responsive approach, tests often are used, but in a subordinate role. They are needed when it is clear that they actually can serve to inform about the quality of the program."*

Stake's later position on test scores indicates the changes that he has gone through. After using test scores for some time, he came to realise that they do not represent the true picture of what learners are capable of.

2.3.9   Validity in programme evaluation

In 1996, Stake wrote a paper that specifically focuses on validity in programme evaluation. According to him the validity of the programme implies the quality of the representation of the programme as it exists. The closer the representation is to the programme, the more valid the representation is. Things that need to be represented to different stakeholders include the way in

which the programme operates, its productivity, its efficiency, the criteria by which it is to be judged and the needs of those who are being served by the programme. For the evaluator to know about the quality of representation, he/she has to know about the programme. To know more about the programme, Stake advises that the evaluator should triangulate issues that will be presented about the programme as already outlined on the theme on stakeholders.

In 2006, Stake and Schwandt (2006:407-408) further discuss the issue of validity when they indicate that evaluators should interact with the stakeholders in pursuing the quality of the programme. To them the interaction ultimately, leads to the validity of the representation of the programme. They say that the concept of quality can be viewed from two positions: either conceptualising quality as measurable by some standards or looking at quality as experienced by the participants. In a situation where evaluators believe quality is measurable, standards are used as to judge the quality of the programme. They highlight the disadvantages of this approach:

> *Various problems with quality-as-measured are well known. The evaluand is usually more complex and its functions insufficiently correlated to be fully represented by a few indicators.... Setting cut scores as standards of program success is problematic as well. Seldom can they be derived scientifically or obtained from an authoritative bureau or connoisseur or agreed upon by stakeholders. Setting weights and creating standards has traditionally been a matter of evaluator judgment.*

Viewing quality as experienced by the participants means that the quality is ascertained by understanding the language and the actions of the participants in the programme. The evaluator has to be with the participants in the setting to be able to come to this kind of understanding. This is what Stake and Schwandt (2006:408) refer to as *"practical knowledge"*. Unlike the standard-based approach, here quality is reported on via narrative accounts that reflect the perception of quality. This approach has its own disadvantages, as Stake and Schwandt highlight:

> *The problem with the quality-as-experienced approach is that too much rests on the acuity and credibility of the observer. We do not have good enough standards for recognizing an evaluator's practical knowledge that arises from a combination of observational skill, breadth of view, and control of bias. In a confrontational situation, few people are willing to accept personal perceptions of quality from opponents.*

The implication is that evaluators should be aware of the complexities involved in looking at the quality of the programme. This will help to avoid misrepresentation of the quality of the programme which ultimately affects the validity of the representation of the programme.

2.3.10 Ethics in programme evaluation

Stake presented a paper entitled "When policy is merely promotion, by what ethic lives an evaluator?) at the University of Tel Aviv in January 1998, in which he focuses on ethics in programme evaluation by using examples from evaluation studies that were conducted by the Center for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation (CIRCE) at the University of Illinois. The examples are taken from evaluation studies conducted at The Chicago Teachers Academy and The Youth Sports Program. Stake highlights the ethical dilemmas that evaluators come across in the evaluation of programmes. The dilemma is between evaluation being used as an instrument of institutional promotion and evaluation being used to understand processes and quality.

In The Chicago Teachers Academy evaluation, an ethical dilemma arose when the Director of the Academy asked the evaluators (Stake and his colleagues) to remove some of their findings in the report. The section that the director wanted removed was *that the Academy's newly developed training in matters of 'assessment' was short-sighted, that the workshop developer was not using good judgment in his choice of activities and resources"*. The reason for this request was that those who did not like what they were doing were likely to use this as a weapon to attack the Academy. This is the dilemma that evaluators face, especially in evaluation contracts. Should the report reflect accurately the quality of the programme, or should it be used as some kind of advocacy for the programme?

It is in situations like this that evaluators should be guided by codes of ethics. Stake (1998b:4) and his colleagues, in trying to strike a balance on some parts of the report, hid some information in the report. In so doing they violated certain ethical principles, as evaluation calls for a full and complete reporting of strengths and weaknesses. In some cases, even ethical principles may not be clear enough to serve as a guide for the evaluator. Then evaluators have to use their own judgement.

In 1996, Stake (1998b:4) and his colleagues were asked to evaluate a federally funded summer youth programme. In this programme, youth were bussed to campuses for lessons in swimming, competitive sports, martial arts, recreation, nutrition, career planning, drug education, and

community institutions. One of the challenges they faced was a request from the national director for Stake (1998b:5) and his colleagues to include one of the internal evaluators in the evaluation team. They refused. Another challenge was that the national director identified sites that should be visited and arranged for their visits. Stake (1998b:5) and his colleagues took some steps to arrange their own visits and they also insisted on visiting additional sites. Looking at the situation, they realised that it may not have been good for the programme if they were to disclose the methods that they were going to use in collecting data. They took a decision not to disclose these. This was an ethical dilemma because ethically they were required to disclose the methods that were going to be used. And due to the fact that methods could not be disclosed, much of what they did was responsive to the findings along the way. Stake explains this when he indicates that

> *Although the standards call for it, complete and accurate disclosure of methods was not possible, for much of what we did was responsive to findings along the way. It is obvious to me that we and other evaluators lack the conceptual power to describe any plan in full, to recognize the actual range of stakeholders, and to anticipate roles which change with the situation.*

Here, ethical standards did not help them much because of the nature of the situation they were faced with. They had to use their judgement. Stake's position is that in situations where ethical principles are not clear, the evaluator must make use of his or her personal judgement. As Stake (1998b:6) concludes the paper, he says that ethical behaviour is not a matter of following written principles but more of following one's conscience:

> *Ethical behavior is not so much a matter of following principles as of balancing competing principles. It is useful to have multiple codes, holding one up against another, not so we can justify what we want to do anyway, but so that we can recognize different manifestations of ethical value and better deliberate their implications. Deliberation is as much served by recall, storytelling, and intuition as by measurement of criteria. As with all good deliberation, input is needed from various points of view. But my final reminder is, in the end, realization and resolution of ethical conflict come largely from within.*

Stake's (1998b:7) advice is that as a way of respecting the evaluation profession, evaluators should continue to search for quality in the programmes and challenge unethical practices. They should avoid being used as programme advocates, but at the same time they should be sensitive to *"adversarial politics and the larger flow of social inequity..."*. Furthermore, evaluators should

report personal experiences of ethical dilemmas they face in programme evaluation, as this will help other evaluators in the field.

Stake, in Denzin and Lincoln (2000a:447) concludes the paper by looking at ethics again. He indicates the need for evaluators to observe ethical issues during evaluation, in particular because *"[t]hose whose lives and expressions are portrayed risk exposure and embarrassment, as well as loss of standing, employment, and self-esteem"*.

He also gives some guidance on what can be done:

> *Issues of observation and reportage should be discussed in advance. Limits to access should be suggested and agreements heeded. It is important (but never sufficient) for targeted persons to receive drafts revealing how they are presented, quoted, and interpreted and for the researcher to listen well for signs of concern. It is important that researchers exercise great caution to minimize the risks.*

In the book written in 2010, Stake (2010:206) continues to give advice to researchers on issues related to ethics. He writes that it even if there are rules, boards and associations set to look into the issue of ethics, it is the responsibility of researchers to protect the participants in the study. They should take upon themselves to always observe ethical issues and to protect the participants:

> *Rules of ethics give inadequate protection against violation of ethics. Just to continue being the nice people we are gives inadequate protection. Review boards are too far removed from the research to give adequate protection. The people being researched cannot be counted on to protect themselves. It is the researchers themselves who provide the bulwark of protection. Through empathy, intuition, intelligence, and experience, we ourselves have to see the dangers emerging.*

In conclusion then this means that rules on ethics are not enough, and that researchers need to be faithful in observing them whether there is somebody monitoring them or not. They should be aware at all times that they are dealing with human beings.

2.3.11 Juxtaposition of criteria and context

The last theme that emerges from Stake's work in this study is the juxtaposition of criteria and context in programme evaluation. In 1999, Stake with Migotsky, Chaves, Cisneros, Davis, DePaul, Feltovich, Dunbar Jr., Farmer, Johnson, Williams and Zurita published a paper entitled

"The Evolving Syntheses". The paper was initially prepared for a seminar on Theories of Educational Evaluation in 1996 at the University of Illinois. The paper was written as a response to Michael Scriven's paper entitled "The Final Synthesis".

Scriven argued that professional evaluators should develop and follow rules in coming to a conclusion about the merits of a programme. Stake et al. (1999:1) argued that the use of criteria developed by evaluators in evaluation is not a good way of judging the merit of the programme. Their argument is that the programme involves different stakeholders who have different perceptions of the programme. Their multiple perceptions should be accommodated in looking at the merit of the programme. This does not mean that criteria are useless, but rather that they should be used only as a guide. The concern of Stake et al. (1999:4) about the use of criteria is reflected below:

> *But criteria formally identified only partially represent the complex criteria of experience. Often the criteria fail to identify poorly measured ingredients of experience. So we worry about the distortions of formal criteria. Still, preordinate criteria should help keep the evaluator from overlooking important ingredient. Certainly the reliability of evaluation increases. So we welcome the guiding effects of criteria and resist their simplifications. In each new situation, we join Scriven in challenging preordinate criteria. We need to satisfy personal or collective judgment as to whether or not the criteria represent valid grounds for value resolution.*

Criteria do not represent all that is in the programme. Hence, relying on them may result in the misrepresentation of the merit of the programme.

In conclusion, Stake et al. (1999:9) indicate that Scriven's emphasis on indicators and the establishment of rules to govern how merit should be determined was meant to deal with bias and prejudice. However, in so doing, he also discouraged the use of personal and intuitive judgement which Stake et al. (1999:9) feel is an important aspect. The argument by Stake et al. (1999:9-10) against Scriven is that what Scriven advocates does not help to reduce bias. It instead increases the potential for bias.

> *In trying to reduce bias in the final synthesis, Scriven has increased the potential for bias at earlier stages, particularly in the selection and weighting of criteria of merit. Specifics on the conduct of needs assessment for setting criteria, etc., particularly with diverse target populations, remain to be developed, but clearly are a node of potential bias—thus*

bias is not eliminated, not reduced, but shifted. The illusion of objectivity is strong, but personal interpretation is not avoided.

The other issue that Stake et al. (1999:10) raised is that a preordinate approach to evaluation which involves developing indicators before going to the field is restrictive, as evaluators come to understand some issues only *after* coming into contact with the programme.

> *Upon first contact with an evaluand, meaning is constructed. The assessment of quality is part of that natural meaning-making process. We undoubtedly will refine our first impressions, and criteria and standards may appear along the road to determining merit, but they are only part of the dialectic process.*

After extensive work in the field, evaluators develop knowledge that helps them to determine the quality of the programme. This cannot be done using indicators that were developed before going into the field.

On the 24 August 2001, Stake delivered a paper entitled "Evaluation of Testing and Criterial Thinking in Education" at the annual meeting of the American Psychological Association, in San Francisco. In the paper Stake (2001:2) argues that education cannot be well understood by making use of criteria which he refers to as *"criteria thinking."* This is due to the fact that educational phenomena are context based. Furthermore, according to Stake (2001:2), they *"come to be known through episodes, happenings, activities, events"*. Trying to convert them into criteria tends to misrepresent what is happening in education. Instead of converting things that are happening in the setting into criteria, it is important to reflect the context in which events are taking place. Context plays a major role in shaping events and activities in the setting. Criteria tend to ignore the influence of the context and as result; they do not give a full picture of events as they happen.

2.4   Conclusion

Looking back over the work by Stake several issues emerge. A significant shift occurred over time in his approach to programme evaluation. Initially, he emphasized the use of experimental approaches to programme evaluation, mainly because of his training as a psychometric fellow. As a result of the challenges encountered (ranging from not getting the data needed to being unable to respond to some of the evaluation questions while using experimental approaches) he

was compelled to look at alternative approaches. He also discovered that relying on tests and indicators in educational evaluation did not reflect the abilities of the students. Predetermined indicators were not useful in explaining the quality of a programme. He started to emphasise the need to focus on experiential knowledge in determining what students were capable of and in explaining the quality of the programme. That led to a shift from his original ideas of using an experimental approach to using responsive evaluation.

His move away from the experimental approach was a gradual process - instead of adopting purely qualitative approaches in the place of quantitative, he started using a quasi-experimental approach, incorporating additional data from qualitative approaches. The shift to quasi-experimental approaches with additional data did not work well because he was then confronted with different issues. He was faced with challenges like being unable to answer some evaluation questions, political questions and questions of validity and legitimacy. These challenges, coupled with reading other people's work on evaluation methodology, led him to develop an alternative approach to programme evaluation that is more aligned to a qualitative approach.

The shift is first evident in a paper entitled "The countenance of educational evaluation" in 1967. It was only in the paper entitled "Program evaluation: Particularly responsive evaluation" presented in at a conference in Sweden in 1973, that he first explicitly spoke about responsive evaluation though.

His move from a quantitative approach to a qualitative approach was also influenced by a philosophical shift, where he moved from being a realist to a constructivist. Initially, Stake believed in depersonalizing programme evaluation as a way of striving for objectivity, in line with his training as a psychometric fellow where the emphasis was on test scores as good indicators of student performance. In the process of using test scores, he realised that they were not good indicators of student ability. That led to his writing a paper entitled "Testing hazards in performance contracting" in 1971. He realised that test scores do not take other issues into consideration and are not a good reflection of what the student knows. This was the beginning of the shift from realism to constructivism. He started to believe that knowledge is a construct. As a construct, it also means that knowledge is situational and context bound. To understand the

programme, the evaluator should go to the setting and experience first-hand how the stakeholders live and think in the setting.

Reflecting on the responsive evaluation approach as advocated by Stake, one realises that it has certain strengths that benefit programme evaluation practice. The strengths of the approach can be summarised as follows:

It is flexible - in that the evaluator is not bound to the design developed before going to the field. The design emerges as the evaluator gets more informed about the programme. This flexibility helps the evaluator to change things as the study progresses. The flexibility helps the evaluator to give a report that is relevant about the programme.

It is inclusive- in that it gives different stakeholders a chance to raise their concerns and issues. This is a way of empowering those who are usually side-lined on issues that are related to the programme. It gives a voice to the voiceless, which is not the case with the more traditional forms of evaluation.

Its strength also lies in the fact that it relies on the use of case studies where context is regarded as important. This gives the evaluator a holistic picture of the situation and allows for an embedded investigation of the programme. The evaluator gets an insider perspective of the programme which strengthens the claims that can be made about the programme and means he/she can note activities which are not recorded elsewhere.

The approach also emphasises the use of more than one method of data collection. This helps the evaluator to triangulate the data collected. The triangulation process in his case study approach helps to maximise the validly and reliability of the study.

Looking at his work drawn from a period of thirty years several themes emerged - responsive evaluation, issues, stakeholders, case study approach, naturalistic generalisation, Stake on constructivism, contrasting standard evaluation and responsive evaluation, limitations in the use

of test scores, validity in programme evaluation, ethics in programme evaluation and juxtaposing of criteria and context.

The following chapter focuses on examples of responsive evaluation studies conducted by Stake and others in actual evaluation studies, and further discusses a critique of responsive evaluation as presented by others on Stake.

Chapter 3

RESPONSIVE EVALUATION—APPLICATIONS AND CRITICISMS

3.1   Introduction

This chapter discusses examples of actual responsive evaluation studies that have been conducted by Stake and others. I also discuss different critiques of responsive evaluation as presented by Stake and others. These studies are not necessarily representative of all studies using responsive evaluation but were selected to show the different approaches in responsive evaluation.

3.2   Examples of how responsive evaluation has been used

3.2.1   Examples of studies by Stake and others in actual evaluation studies

Stake, in Kellaghan and Stufflebeam (2003:67), gives examples of studies that can be referred to as responsive studies.

> *It is difficult to tell from an evaluation report whether or not the study itself was "responsive". A final report seldom reveals how issues were negotiated and how audiences were served. Examples of studies which were clearly intentionally responsive were those by Barry MacDonald (1982); Saville Kushner (1992); Anne McKee and Michael Watts (2000); Lou Smith and Paul Pohland (1974); and Robert Stake and Jack Easley (1979), indicated in the references below. My meta-evaluation, Quieting Reform (1986), also took the responsive approach*

In Stake and Easley's study entitled "Case Studies in Science Education Vol. 1&2" 1978, and the study by Stake entitled "Quieting Reform: Social Science and Social Action in an urban youth program" 1986, are given as examples where responsive evaluation has been used in actual studies by Stake. These two examples are amongst the earliest studies that focussed on the use of responsive evaluation approach as advocated by Stake.

3.2.1.1 Case Studies in Science Education (Vol.1& 2)

As Stake and Easley (1978) indicate, "Case Studies in Science Education" is a collection of field observations of science teaching and learning that was done in American public schools during the school year 1976-1977. The study was done in order to give the National Foundation a portrayal of conditions in K-12 science classrooms. K-12 classrooms are kindergarten to grade 12 classrooms. This was meant to help the foundation's programmes of support for science education to be consistent with the national needs.

The proposal that the team sent did not follow the usual trend where strong sampling strategies, with formal instruments and detailed issues were outlined. Instead it followed the responsive approach where sites were chosen to fit the research human power that they had at the time. They had to wait until they were acquainted with the conditions in the field before they could come up with issues. They slowly developed research questions focussing on *"emic"* issues. As Stake and Easley (1978:2) indicate, they paid *"most attention to the perceptions of teachers, other education people, students and parents there in the ten (and later eleven) clusters of schools"*. The intention was to give a description of what they found in such a way that it would be useful to a person who could not be in the setting. They also proposed to conduct a small national sample in an attempt to get confirmation for the major findings from the case studies.

In the report, the sampling section used both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The qualitative sampling strategy followed an ethnographic or anthropological style. In line with responsive evaluation approach, experienced field researchers were sent to the different sites and they were free to record things as they happened, instead of following a uniform conceptual plan. This was meant to accommodate diversity from different sites. Eleven high schools and their feeder schools were selected as sites for the study. They selected a diverse but balanced group of both urban and rural schools, and included schools from different geographical directions. They were also diverse racially and economically, and included constructing schools and closing schools, both innovative schools and traditional schools. A quantitative sampling strategy was used to select a national stratified-random-sample of about 4000 teachers, principals, curriculum supervisors, superintendents, parents, and senior class students to survey. Survey questions were based on observations drawn from the eleven case study sites. The survey was done in order to

confirm findings of the ethnographic case studies, and to add what they regarded as special information.

Researchers with extensive relevant field experience were placed at each school. The researchers were supposed to look at what was happening, what was felt as important in science (including mathematics and social science) programmes. Research questions which emerged early in the field were attended to by a team of researchers from the University of Illinois. Findings were triangulated by making use of reports of site visit teams. Each observer prepared a case study report which was kept for later inclusion as part of the final collection.

They also had to deal with biases during the study.

> *We continually had the problem of dealing with our predilections. We recognized that we were prejudiced in various ways, such as against letting test scores and other social indicators represent the conditions of a child's mind or a teacher's emphasis or preparation. At the outset we thought generally that inquiry teaching is a superior way of getting children learning about science. (Stake and Easley, 1978:2)*

They had to use strategies to deal with their biases, for example, deliberately looking for counter evidence and by increasing the number of people who had an influence on what should be observed, and how they should interpret what had been observed.

Adding more people was in line with Stake and Easley's belief (1978:5) that *"in reality, reality is multiple, rooted in the different perceptions of people"*.

The findings revealed that sites were quite different. Each teacher made a unique contribution. They found that science education at a national level was given a low priority. Instead there was an emphasis on basic skills like reading and computation. Other findings are explained by Stake and Easley (1978) as follows:

> *School people and parents were supportive of what was chosen to be taught, complaining occasionally that it was not taught well enough. The textbook was usually seen as the authority on knowledge and the guide to learning. The teacher was seen to be the authority on both social and academic decorum. He or she worked hard to prepare youngsters for tests, subsequent instruction, and the value-orientations of adult life. Though relatively free to depart from district syllabus or community expectation, the teacher seldom exercised either freedom.*

3.2.1.2 Quieting Reform: Social Science and Social Action in an Urban Youth Program

The other study that Stake carried out using a responsive evaluation approach was a meta-evaluation of a study coordinated by the American Institutes for Research. This was a study on the Cities-in-Schools programme. The programme was meant to help troubled young people from the ghettos. Stake (1986:5) explains the goal of the programme as follows: *"The goal was to find the most estranged youth of the urban ghetto and to bring them into the mainstream of urban society-ultimately to become educated and employed, legally respectable and humane."*

The meta-evaluation study that Stake conducted was responsive in the sense that Stake (1986: X) focussed on themes and issues that he found in the work of other evaluators. He also tried to orient himself to the concerns and vulnerability of different stakeholders in the evaluation with the hope that he would help them understand what happened during evaluation. Furthermore, Stake also featured ordinary events, witnessing and documentation in order to help the readers to add to their own experience.

The evaluation methods that Stake (1986:xii) relied on are interviews and documents. Amongst other people that Stake, interviewed was Murray (the leader of the project), programme people, leaders of the community, superintendents and members of the Technical Review Panel (See Murray, Blair and Susan, 1981). Documents consulted included the evaluation proposal, the design, letters, agendas of meetings and evaluation reports. In trying to maximise the validity and reliability of the data, he used key interviewees to confirm what he was hearing from them and to react to what he was saying about them.

In his findings, Stake (1986:155) indicates that people who were responsible for the Cities-in Schools programme got discouraged after reading the evaluation reports. As a result, they could not continue and the reform dissipated. Hence Stake entitled his study "Quieting Reform: Social Science and Social Action in an Urban Youth Program".

3.2.2   Examples of studies that used Stake's responsive evaluation approach by other writers

3.2.2.1   Thornton and Chapman, 2000 - Student voice in curriculum making

In Australia, a study by Thornton and Chapman (2000) employed a responsive evaluation approach. The approach in the study demonstrates that responsive evaluation does not necessarily mean using a qualitative approach only as indicated in Chapter 2. It can also be used within the quantitative approach.

The study was carried out in an Australian university's School of Nursing, focusing on undergraduate student nurses. The students were asked to reflect on their psychiatric clinical learning experiences and identify the strengths and weaknesses not only in the actions and behaviours of others, but also in their own. The aim of the study was to evaluate the clinical experience in a psychiatric setting from student perspective and, in so doing, generate information that would lead to the improvement of clinical nursing education. It was meant to advocate for a student voice in curriculum decision making.

The research question was formulated as follows: *"From the student's perspective, what constitutes a quality clinical learning experience in a psychiatric context, and how do facilitators, clinical nursing staff and students contributes to quality?"*

There were 117 participants drawn from a possible 377. They were in their second year of a three-year undergraduate nursing education degree programme. As far as methodology is concerned, the researchers adopted a quantitative approach. A self-administered questionnaire was constructed around a concept of quality in relation to clinical practice, with special reference to the quality of relationships between students, facilitators and clinical nursing staff.

The construction of the questionnaire was done by first observing the students when they were talking in the corridors of the university. It was found that they generally talked about their clinical experience in terms of a *"good"* or *"bad"* practice. Their talk directed the wording of the questionnaire. Four predetermined categories were developed. Collected responses were also searched for emerging concepts, themes, or issues.

The study generated many issues and concerns which the respondents used to evaluate the quality of their clinical practice. The students were able to reflect on their learning experiences and identify their strengths and weaknesses, not only in the actions and behaviours of others, but also in their own.

The study used Stake's responsive approach but within a quantitative framework. This is in line with Stake's (1995b:115) assertion that responsive evaluation should not be thought of as an approach that could only be used within qualitative approaches. In practice, evaluators draw from the strength of each of the two approaches, depending on the focus of what they are doing. The limitation of this study is that it did not highlight the weaknesses and limitations of using responsive evaluation approach in programme evaluation.

3.2.2.2 Kerr, 1997 - A responsive evaluation of a graduate distance education course offering: Education 6104 Foundations of Program Evaluation

Kerr (1997) in Canada evaluated a distance education course known as Education 6104, a graduate level offering from Memorial University of Newfoundland. The purpose of the study was twofold: firstly, to evaluate the distance education course as offered at the Memorial University of Newfoundland, secondly to validate the responsive evaluation approach as refined and used by other responsive evaluators. The choice of the responsive evaluation approach was based on the fact that it had been tried and tested in the evaluation of distance education and graduate education settings. Furthermore, its emergent design offered flexibility and the opportunity to use naturalistic, qualitative methods.

Stake's clock which reflects prominent events in responsive evaluation (as presented in Chapter 2 of this study) was modified into eight events. The modification was done because it appeared to have the right combination of flexibility and comprehensiveness. It also seemed to have worked well in prior applications within distance education settings. The events that remained were:

- Identify audiences, programme scope
- Identify concerns, issues
- Set standards

- Select/develop methods, instruments

- Analyse concerns, issues

- Observe programme transactions/outcomes

- Apply criteria/standards

- Summarise data/report results.

Concerns and issues were solicited from different stakeholders. Concerns and issues raised were classified into three categories which focussed on what graduate level distance education course should strive to achieve, elements considered to be indicators of course success, and specific aspects of the course offering that should be addressed by the evaluation study. Stakeholders included the decision-makers, the instructors, the students taking the course and other students.

Data were gathered through different methods. They included student profile sheets, pre-tests and post-tests, questionnaires, telephone interviews, observations, document analysis that included student exams and assignments. Student profile sheets were used to get demographic data on learners, whereas a pre-test was used to get the entry-level knowledge of students. The post-test was meant to determine whether learning had taken place or not.

Standards were developed for evaluating the course from concerns and issues as presented by the stakeholders, and goals and objectives were obtained from the course documents. The standards Kerr developed (1997:65-68) from issues and concerns were:

"There is administrative and logical support for the course."

"The curriculum for this programme should satisfy participant needs."

"The course results in positive cognitive outcomes for the student."

"The course should provide opportunity for sufficient participation, discussion, and the sharing of ideas."

"The instructional materials for the course should provide comprehensive content coverage and should be presented to the student in a manner consistent with their level of prior knowledge and training."

"Evaluation measures are suitable to the course."

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The study found that the students viewed the Education 6104 course as a valuable and worthwhile experience. They enjoyed the course. There was also evidence that learning had taken place. Weaknesses in the delivery of the programme were also noted. According to Kerr (1997:103) weaknesses *"ranged from technical production problems to simple difficulties experienced by students in terms of their adjusting to the independent nature of the course"*.

3.2.2.3 Hertzog and Fowler 1999 - Evaluating an Early Childhood Gifted Education Program

The study by Hertzog and Fowler in the USA focused on the evaluation of the Early Childhood Gifted Programme. The programme was for children between the ages of 3-7 who were identified as gifted at a school known as Oakwood Laboratory. The purpose of the study needed to represent two different perspectives: early childhood and gifted education, as Hertzog and Fowler (1999) explain:

> [To] *"provide insight for others attempting to evaluate the worth of any program, but in particular to provide insight into the complexity of the perspectives of both early childhood and gifted education, and dynamic changes that have taken place both within the program, and within the two fields of study, since the program was established"*.

The evaluators opted to use Robert Stake's responsive approach due to the fact that there were many stakeholders in the programme who represented different views. They (stakeholders) also raised various questions about the evaluation of the programme.

Issues and concerns were raised by the different stakeholders. Some of these were about the appropriateness of the programme, the goals of the programme, its focus on developing the ability of the child, its help in future learning, the happiness of parents about the participation of their children in the programme, the implementation of the programme by the teachers and child identification procedures.

The stakeholders identified were students, parents, administrators and teachers at Oakwood Laboratory School (OLS), and University of Illinois personnel. Other interested parties were University of Illinois students.

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Methods of data collection included documents like curriculum-based assessment, student portfolio, observations, follow-up studies, focus group discussion, semi-structured interviews, surveys of parents from OLS former students and the parents of those in the programme at the time of the evaluation study.

Amongst other issues, the study found that OLS could serve as a model for best practices in early childhood gifted education, as the researchers concluded that the programme was serving to develop the children's ability.

The study unfortunately does not provide any insight into the lessons learnt in using responsive evaluation approach. It does however provide the justification for the use of the approach.

3.2.2.4 Carnwell and Baker, 2007 - A qualitative evaluation of a project to enhance pupils' emotional literacy through student assistance programme

This study focused on the evaluation of the Student Assistance Programme (SAP) in Wrexham, North Wales. The SAPS were developed in the USA in the 1970s, as Carnwell and Baker (2007) indicate, to deal with problems of violence, alcohol and drug abuse among children and adolescents in schools. They are typically school-based support programmes which are meant to support and help adolescents with high risk behaviours.

The SAP programme has twelve components. Carnwell and Baker (2007:9) list some of them as the management group, a regional coordinator, facilitator, training programme, identification and referral pupils with emotional and behavioural disorders, support groups within schools known as Group, curriculum infusion, introduction to staff wellness and programme evaluation. The evaluation study that Carnwell and Baker conducted focused on only one element - Group. Learners were identified and referred to Group by teachers, pastoral professionals or themselves (self-referred). Learners referred to Group had to spend eight weeks participating in the program during school hours. It dealt with issues like sharing, grief and loss, divorce, school transition, anger and bullying. The purpose of the study was to evaluate the effectiveness of the programme. The aims of the evaluation, as outlined by Carnwell and Baker, were:

- *to illuminate changes in student behaviour as described by themselves, facilitators,*

> *teachers and peers and*
> - *to identify any wider implications of 'Group' in terms of its effects on peers, teachers and family members.*

Responsive evaluation approach was chosen for use in this study. Not much justification has been given for the use of responsive evaluation except that it is an approach that helps to focus on the programme activities rather than the programme intent.

The study does not reflect on the issues raised except to say that the concern was on the effectiveness of the programme. Stakeholders were identified as facilitators, head teachers, learners and their family members. Focus group interviews were used as a method of data collection.

The study found that SAP was effective in helping to change the behaviour of learners. A good relationship developed between learners and teachers. Examples of changes included less disruption of lessons in class, making new friends and interacting with people better.

The study presents no critical comment on Stake's evaluation approach nor does it mention anything about lessons learnt.

3.2.2.5 Wood, 2001 - Stake's Countenance Model: Evaluating an environmental education professional development course

Amongst the studies reviewed in this study, the study by Wood (2001) is the only study that focussed only on the use of the Countenance Model, as outlined by Stake (See Chapter 2 and Figure 2.1 on p.22). This approach was used to evaluate the Chesapeake Watershed Ecology Course, an environmental science professional development course designed to educate teachers about research and instructional strategies that are used to investigate community environmental issues. The teachers met for six hours daily for a period of two weeks.

As already explained in Chapter 2, in The Countenance Model Stake (1967:5) shows how programme evaluation involves antecedents, transactions and outcomes. Wood (2001) followed

the model, highlighting the antecedents, transactions and outcomes of the Chesapeake Watershed Ecology Course. To recap, these are as follows:

- Antecedents- mean *"any condition existing prior to teaching and learning which may relate to outcomes"*. This may include: Aptitude, previous *experience, interest and achievement levels, Teacher attitudes, years of experience.*

- *Transactions- They are "the countless encounters of students with teacher, student with student, author with reader, parent with counsellor-the succession of engagements which comprise the process of education"*. This may include a class discussion, working on the homework problem as well as the administration of test.

- Outcomes- The consequences of the program, immediate and long-term. They include *"measurements of the impact of instruction on teachers, administrators, counsellors, and others"*. They should also include *"not only those that are evident, or even existent, as learning sessions end, but include applications, transfer, and relearning effects which may not be available for measurement until long after"*.

Wood (2001) explains the **Programme antecedents** of the course as follows:

Teacher background - Were teachers in the study representative of the sample?

The appropriateness of the curriculum - Was the content and design of the course academically and scientifically appropriate?

Resource availability - Were resources available?

Programme transaction

Component participation - In which component did the teachers participate?

Behavioural interactions - How did the teachers interact during the course?

The way the course was running - Did the course run smoothly?

Programme outcomes

The evaluator used a pre-test and post-test version to establish teachers' previous knowledge of component procedures.

Eight methods of data collection were used. They included a pre-test, a post-test, teacher opinion survey, an expert review questionnaire, attendance records, background information card, teacher journals and an instructor journal.

Stake makes a distinction between descriptive data and judgement data. Descriptive data are divided into intents, which involve what the programme intends to achieve, and observations, which involve what was actually observed. Judgemental data are also divided into standards, which are then used to make judgements and actual judgements.

Information in the descriptive matrix is analysed by looking at the congruence between intents and observations. In the judgement matrix, the standards are used to make judgements.

The study by Wood (2001:22) follows Stake's model even further by making a description matrix and a judgement matrix. For example, for each of programme antecedents, programme transactions and programme outcomes, Wood presents intents, observations, standards and judgements as follows:

Application of the Countenance model

Description matrix		Judgement matrix	

Intents	Observations	Standards	Judgements
Programme antecedents			
Teacher background			
Treatment and control groups should be similar to the county population on Age, gender etc.	Teachers who participated were similar to the county teacher population	Schools should be evenly distributed for all groups	Teachers enrolled in the class are roughly representative of the county teacher population
Programme transactions			
Component participation			
All teachers complete all components	Teacher attendance averaged 96.4%	Teacher attendance rates exceed 90%	overall teacher participation exceeded standards for all components
Programme outcomes			
Improved performamce			
Teachers are able to perform all skills specified in the instructional objectives	The pretest and the posttest indicated significant gains for	Posttest results are significantly higher than	The course accomplished the

the treatment group   the pretest   instructional

objectives

Findings

Congruence

The congruence in the study was achieved by looking at the outstanding characteristics of each course feature. Outstanding characteristics were summarised as teacher background, an appropriate curriculum, resource availability, component participation, course choreography, behavioural interactions, improved performance, teacher attitudes, intent to use and unexpected outcomes.

- Teacher background

The teacher background feature focused on the representativeness of the teachers to the population. It was found that teachers who participated in the course were representative of the county teachers in terms of age, gender, years of teaching experience, academic degree status, school distribution and their level of familiarity with the components of the course.

- An appropriate curriculum

All the components of the curriculum were found to be appropriate with the exception of the experimental design. The experimental design was considered inappropriate because it emphasised basic knowledge that was already familiar to the teachers rather than developing extra skills needed.

- Resource availability

The study found that most equipment and materials were in place and functioned as planned but there were challenges. Challenges were that some of the materials were not well formatted and it was difficult to get access to certain equipment like computers.

- Component participation

Teachers did not go through the entire experimental design component, as they spent too much time on introductory concepts rather than advanced skills. Consequently, many portfolios were incomplete.

- Course choreography

Course choreography focused on the organisation and the coordination of the course. It was found that most of the activities ran smoothly even though the pace of the course was considered to be too fast.

- Behavioural interactions

Behavioural interactions focused on the level of teacher engagement. It was found that teachers seemed interested and engaged in all the components of the course.

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- Improved performance

A battery of pretests and posttests revealed that the course was effective, except in the case of experimental design. Their scores in the experimental design component did not improve significantly after the intervention.

- Teacher attitudes

The teachers found the course useful and enjoyable and had a positive attitude towards the course.

- Intent to use

Teachers indicated their intentions of using the course material in their classrooms. They did not show much interest in using the internet and some other components of the course.

- Unexpected outcomes

The programme did have unexpected effects, which Wood outlined as follows:

> *(1)The teachers displayed a marked enhancement of professional confidence related to knowledge gains; (2) the teachers reported that the concentrated schedule of the course did not allow them enough time between lessons to study and reflect; and (3) the teachers perceived strong administrative barriers to science field trips that they believed would hinder incorporation of these activities into their own curricula.* (2001:25)

Looking at each of the features in terms of congruence, the study found that the Chesapeake Watershed Ecology course was effective. As a result of its effectiveness, it was concluded that they should continue with its implementation.

Contingencies

The analysis of the contingencies tied the outcomes to an antecedent condition. It provided a solid base to give judgement on the worthiness of the course. Relationships were established. The study found that four relationships were affecting the course. The findings of the study are outlined as follows:

- The availability of resources was a critical feature because the technical course depended on the equipment and supporting materials.
- The curriculum was supposed to be adapted in order to accommodate the various abilities and interests of the teachers. The value teachers placed on course activities was related to the match they perceived with their professional needs.
- Gains in learning influenced the teachers' intentions to use course activities in their

classrooms.

- The context in which teachers worked (professional and political), was another factor affecting their curricular choices.

The study illustrates the advantages of using this approach. According to Woods (2001:26),

> "*Stake's evaluation facilitated an in-depth understanding of all aspects of the course programme. It not only allowed the evaluator to determine both the anticipated and unanticipated outcomes of the course but also uncovered reasons and consequences for the effects.*"

Looking at the studies that have applied Stake's approach, we may learn some lessons. It is clear that evaluators have interpreted and used Stake's approach in different ways. Some of the evaluators adapted the approach to what they want to achieve. Further, as already indicated, we also learnt that the use of responsive evaluation did not necessarily mean adopting qualitative evaluation approaches. It can also be used within quantitative approaches, as in the study by Thornton and Chapman. The other lesson is that some evaluators chose to use some of Stake's earlier approaches to programme evaluation like the "Countenance Model, even though Stake later distanced himself from this. Furthermore, we saw that Stake's approach was used for different purposes like focusing on the implementation or determining the effectiveness of a programme.

3.3   Critique of responsive evaluation

3.3.1   Criticism of the responsive evaluation approach by Stake

Stake criticised his own approach at various times. Most of these criticisms are drawn from his comments on qualitative evaluation in general. As much as there are some positive points about qualitative approach in general, and responsive evaluation in particular, Stake does raise some criticisms. For example, Stake criticises the approach for trading off measurement precision in order to increase the usefulness of the findings of a programme.

Further, Stake (1995b:117) also commented critically on the slow returns of this approach:

> *It is subjective. The contributions toward an improved and disciplined science are slow and tendentious. New questions are more frequent than answers. The results pay off too*

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little in the advancement of social practice. The ethical risks are substantial. And costs are high.

The other criticism that Stake (2004a:101) listed is that the approach may be found to be "intuitive". This is due to its nature and approach to programme evaluation.

3.3.2   Criticisms of Stake by other commentators

Subjectivity in responsive evaluation

Several commentators have commented critically on the responsive evaluation approach. Some of the early critics of Stake's responsive evaluation approach were Fitz-Gibbon and Morris (1975:3). They criticised some of the ideas Stake presented in a paper entitled "The Countenance of educational evaluation". In the paper, Stake (1967:13) wrote: *"Deciding which variables to study and deciding which standards to employ are two essentially subjective commitments in evaluation. Other acts are capable of objective treatment; only these two are beyond the reach of social science methodology."* Fitz-Gibbon and Morris (1975:3) maintain that the choice of variables for the study should not remain a matter of opinion. They state that:

> *Eventually, we will want to study those variables which explain the most variance in the outcomes of interest. Hopefully some of these variables will be manipulable and yield powerful positive results in improving educational practice. Discovering what these variables are is a major task for educational research, and not one that we can assume has already been accomplished.*

Fitz-Gibbon and Morris (1975)'s comments attempted to highlight the fact that responsive evaluation is subjective. Some of the activities depend upon the decision and the judgement of the evaluator. Years later, Kerr (1997) and House (in Greene and Abma, 2001:28) also commented on the subjective nature of responsive evaluation. The evaluator is the one who ultimately decides on what should be done. The evaluator gives judgement on the programme. Hence evaluation is a matter of individual taste and preference. Judgement on issues depends on the values and personality of the evaluator. Schwandt in Greene and Abma (2001:82) add to this criticism. His argument is that subjective judgement in responsive evaluation may be impaired by irrational beliefs and misunderstandings. The question, of course, is whether these criticisms apply to the responsive evaluation approach or to all evaluation approaches where some form of judgement is required.

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But this is a kind of criticism that evaluators within the qualitative approach are usually confronted with. Critics view it as being "irrational" and "naïve". Stake (1995a:95), is unapologetic about this …*"research is not helped by making it appear value-free. It is better to give the reader a good look at the researcher"*.

Another criticism by Kerr (1997:35) is that the needs of some of the stakeholders who are more vocal and assertive may dominate the needs of those who are unable to express themselves. Furthermore, lack of clear procedure in using responsive evaluation approach may also be problematic to evaluators especially those who are not familiar with the approach.

Responsive evaluation as being conservative

Shadish, Cook and Leviton (1991:297) criticise responsive evaluation as advocated by Stake for being conservative in that it proposes an incremental approach to social change. Stake maintains that change should not be radical, but gradual, that power relations between the stakeholders should not change as a result of the evaluation process and that the evaluator remains the person who should take decisions. The critics see this as conservative. Shaw (1999:26) also considers Stake's approach as conservative, and echoes the criticism made by Shadish et al. when he writes: *"He makes a virtue of gradualist, incremental change, and tends to be politically conservative..."*

House in Greene and Abma (2001:28) also repeats this criticism. According to House, stakeholders themselves should decide on whether they want power relations to change or not. The aspect of power relations remaining the same portrays responsive evaluation as conservative.

Contradictions

Other commentators feel that Stake sometimes contradicts himself. One of these contradictions is highlighted by House in Greene and Abma (2001). House (2001:28-29) says that in some instances Stake advocates that issues should emanate from the stakeholders, but in others of his writings he maintains that issues should emanate from the evaluator.

It would seem that the changes that Stake made later on to some of his earlier positions have been interpreted as contradictory. Earlier he did think that issues could only emanate from the stakeholders, and responsive evaluation was then done based on the issues and concern that stakeholders raised. However, he later came to realise that in some instances some of the issues emanated from him as an evaluator.

These kinds of contradictions might have occurred as a result of his move from his initial theoretical position due to the experiences he gained when doing evaluation studies in the field. So even if issues are generally expected to emanate from the stakeholders, in some cases he feels that issues should emanate from the evaluator. This is a tension that Stake tries to deal with.

The issue of knowledge

Shadish et al. (1991:301) criticise Stake on the issue of 'knowledge', as gleaned from the stakeholders. Their argument is that as the concerns of the stakeholders are diverse and are sometimes at odds with each other, whose information should count as 'knowledge'? This is a tension that the evaluator has to deal with. Ultimately, as already indicated, the evaluator needs to use his or her judgement in dealing with the situation. Hosking and Pluut (2010:65) commenting on Stake's work are emphatic when they write that *"It should be stressed that, although Stake values the voices of those involved in an inquiry, the Researcher-evaluator continues to be centred and is expected to remain in control of all the aspects of the study..."*. The evaluator determines what counts as knowledge. As already indicated, he remains in control of the evaluation process.

Validity of the study

Stake has also been criticised on issues related to the validity and credibility. According to Shadish et al. (1991:305), Stake confuses the validity of the study with the credibility of the study. This criticism seems to be based on the fact that Stake focuses much on the validity and reliability of the study, but pays less attention to the credibility of the study. In his writings he stresses the importance of efforts in trying to maximise the reliability and validity of the study, advising evaluators to use more than one method of data collection or triangulation. Shadish et al. (1991) say validity and credibility are not one and the same thing

and that it is possible for a study to be valid while at the same time being not credible. Credibility of the study involves several aspects - rigour, evaluator credibility and the acceptance of naturalistic evaluations by the reader or the reviewer of the study. They feel that this distinction seem to be lacking in Stake's writings.

Criticism on his constructivism

As indicated in some of his writings, Stake does admit that he is a constructivist and regards reality as a social construct, although, Stake nowhere gives explicit details of his understanding of the concept "constructivism". He only acknowledges that he is a constructivist when other people have asked him about it or he has referred to it in passing. Shadish et al. (1991:306) criticise Stake for not explaining constructivism in detail. Failure to explain the concept in detail leaves readers in a difficult situation. They have to read his work in order to get a picture of his understanding of the concept and the kind of a constructivist he is. Only after one has read his work do you come to the conclusion that even if Stake regards himself as a constructivist, he does not believe in relativist constructivism. For example, Stake (1995a), says that even if there are different interpretations to realities, some interpretations are better than others, and as a result, there is no need to treat every participant's reality as equally important. This is different from what relativist constructivists like Guba and Lincoln believe, as they believe in the equivalence of interpretations of reality and treat all interpretations as equally important.

Report writing

Schwandt (2001:81) criticises Stake on his views of report writing aimed at facilitating vicarious experience, done by *"drawing experiential understandings from the narratives of others"* (Stake, 1995a:173). Stake holds that the evaluators should write research reports that give thick descriptions so that the readers can judge for themselves the quality and the usefulness of different values as reflected in the report. This should lead to *"naturalistic generalisations",* meaning that readers should be able to judge for themselves if they can use the evaluation findings in other contexts just from the report.

Schwandt (2001:81) considers that there is some kind of ambiguity in the kind of report writing that Stake is proposing: *"What is not always apparent in this call for a new form of*

reporting is how responsiveness as a different form of rationality and knowledge requires a different way of expressing evaluation judgments." This seems to be a call for details and clarity in terms of report writing in responsive evaluation.

3.5 Conclusion

Following what has been outlined in this chapter, it is evident that Stake's approach is significant and has been used by evaluators in different countries for different purposes. It is an approach that is adaptable and suitable for use in different situations depending on what the evaluator would like to achieve. For example, the twelve prominent events can be reduced to a number that the evaluator wants, depending on the situation. Its usefulness is also seen in how it provides opportunities for evaluators to have prolonged interaction with the participants and in the process get a holistic picture of the programme. It also serves as a platform for the participants in the programme to have a voice, in that they are given an opportunity to raise issues and concerns, and the different views of the various stakeholders are all captured. Furthermore, its value lies in the fact that it can be used to evaluate different kinds of programmes. This approach is also flexible in that evaluators are able to use different kinds of data collection methods depending on the data needed for the evaluation process. They can even use methods associated with quantitative approaches and methods associated with qualitative approaches within the same study. Evaluators can respond to emerging issues and concerns as they arise, and the approach can be used to focus on different stages of the programme, for example, just the implementation of the programme or the effects of the programme.

Some of the criticisms directed against responsive evaluation are by Stake himself, as he refines his views over a thirty-year period. Most of the criticisms, however, are raised by other commentators: about the presumed subjectivity of the approach, its politically conservative nature, Stake's "constructivism", as well as confusion of the imperatives of validity and credibility. In spite of these, from this discussion it can be concluded that responsive evaluation definitely has something to contribute in the evaluation field.

<div align="center">**Chapter 4**</div>

<div align="center">**SAFE SCHOOL INITIATIVES:**

INTERNATIONAL AND NATIONAL EXPERIENCE AND ACTION</div>

4.1   Introduction

In this chapter a review of the international and national literature on school safety is presented. The following countries have been selected because of their diverse nature and the different initiatives they have undertaken in dealing with issues of safety in schools: United States of America (USA), United Kingdom (UK), Australia, New Zealand and Botswana. An overview and brief description of the SSP and CFS Programme in South Africa is subsequently presented. The chapter concludes by giving a summary of categories of different initiatives and approaches to issues of safety and security in schools.

4.2   Comparative perspective on Safe Schools initiatives

A comparison of Safe Schools initiatives in other countries was done by looking at different initiatives on issues of safety in schools. The initiatives were grouped in terms of problems they were meant to address, their aims and target groups. That was followed by what these initiatives wanted to achieve, a typology of interventions and lessons learnt from different countries for South Africa to apply.

4.2.1 Grouping initiatives in terms of problems, aims and their targets

Initiatives from international perspective differ in terms of the problems they were meant to deal with. There are initiatives that were meant to deal with the problem of guns and gangs, others were meant to deal with youth violence and aggressive behaviour, while still others were meant to deal with the problem of drop-outs and delinquency and bullying.

4.2.1.1 Guns and gangs

The problem of guns and gangs amongst learners seem to be more prevalent in the USA. Volokh and Snell (1998), explain that the nature of the problem includes gang activity, locker thefts, bullying and intimidation, gun use and assault. Events in Pennsylvania in the Amish community where some girls were brutally murdered at school (BBC World, 4 October 2006,

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10h00), give an indication of the nature of the violence in schools in the USA. According to Kim, Payne and Dierkhising (2011:3), the problems of gangs centres around the money, power and prestige that is associated with gang activities. Where learners belong to gangs, this problem spills over into the schools, bringing with it violence and other criminal behaviour.

The initiatives take different forms since situations differ from one place to the other. Since gang activities are community based, some of the initiatives that deal with guns and gangs are not school-based, but more community-based even though they work with schools.

The Vera Institute of Justice, 1999, outlines a few examples of well-developed SSPs found in different districts in the USA that have problems with guns and gangs. These are Chicago, California, New York and Los Angeles. According to Kim et al. (2011:3), the intervention programmes can be classified into three types: prevention, intervention and suppression. Prevention programmes aim at preventing the youth from joining gangs by giving them education programmes. Other programmes focus on diverting youth from crime by giving alternatives like after-school programmes, counselling and job training. Suppression strategies use enforcement approaches like punishing criminal offenders. Examples of selected programmes are Gangs Resistance Education and Training Programme (GREAT) and Gang Risk Intervention Programme (GRIP) in California.

GREAT is a prevention programme and one of the school-based programmes that was used to deal with issues of guns and gangs in the USA. According to Sheikh, Sarwar and Reed (2010) this kind of programme uses a multi-modal approach, in the sense that different institutions work together as partners to deliver the programme. Partners may include schools, the community, uniformed law enforcement officers, youth offending teams, youth centres and families. Uniformed law enforcement officers play an active role by teaching some of the modules to the learners covering areas like crimes/victims and youth rights, cultural sensitivity/prejudice, conflict resolution, meeting basic needs, drugs/neighbourhoods, responsibility, goal setting. In some cases, they also involved agents from The Bureau of Alcohol, Tobacco and Firearms.

The programme targets learners aged between 12 and 13 years with the conviction that if young people get skills and information about gangs, they will realise that there is nothing to be gained by joining a gang and be empowered to resist.

Gang Risk Intervention Programme (GRIP): GRIP addresses youth involvement in gang activities. In some instances, the problem leads to shootings, robbery and city damages. Nieto (1999:13) explains: *"[There was a] concern about gang involvement on school campuses, increasing acts of violence and assault, and general problems of discipline…"*.

The GRIP in California started as collaboration between the city of Paramount and Paramount Unified School District. According to Philp (2006), it was originally established with funding from the California Department of Education in October 1999. This programme targets youth involved in gang activities, with the goals of reducing gang membership, juvenile crime and delinquency and substance abuse. It uses different activities to keep the youth unarmed. GRIP, like GREAT, uses a multi-stakeholder approach in dealing with issues of guns and gangs. According to the Hamilton Fish National Institute on School and Community Violence (1999:14), it involves different stakeholders like parents, teachers, school administrators, community organisations and gang experts. It also deals with issues like school daily attendance, alternative ways of dealing with conflicts, drug prevention, teenage pregnancy and anger management. Further, it is also involves graffiti removal programme, dealing with local gang issues and helping law enforcement agencies with gang training, (Philp, 2006:1).

According to Brand and Ollerearshaw (2008:6), the problems of guns and gangs are on the rise in the United Kingdom. As a response, several government-led initiatives have been put in place focusing on enforcement and justice system interventions. Later several local initiatives were also put in place. Among other examples of initiatives are programmes like Tackling Gangs Action Programme (TGAP) and The X-It programme in Lambeth.

Tackling Gangs Action Programme (TGAP): The TGAP was launched in September 2007. The programme consists of a team from the government, the police, local authorities and regional government offices and focuses on serious gang violence. There since has been an

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increase in police activity through the programme, as it targets gangs with the view to reducing serious and firearm violence. According Brand and Ollerearshaw (2008:10) this government-initiated intervention programme has been tailored to serve as an enforcement action and to provide reassurance to the community.

X-It programme in Lambeth: The X-It programme is an example of an intervention that is a local initiative. It targets youth who are between 14 and 19 years who are offenders or have been identified 'at-risk' of offending and of joining gangs, and who are often also involved in drug abuse and are unemployed. Participation in the programme is by invitation and self-nomination. It includes repeat offenders who are notoriously hard to reach. The aim of the programme is to reduce the level of weapon use and crime, develop self-awareness and a sense of identity and to help youth to withstand peer-pressure. The programme also offers support to a group of young leaders who may be involved in future initiatives. It consists of four-part modular programme which runs over 32 weeks and focuses on issues like weapon carrying, the economics of crime, drug abuse, conflict resolution and peer pressure.

The use of guns and youth gangs in countries such as the USA far exceeds those in Australia (Lozusic, 2003). However, the problem seems to be on the rise in Australia (White, 2004). The response to the problem in Australia has been varied. They introduced initiatives like Gangs Squad which at some stage was known as Gang and Organised Crime Strike Force (Lozusic, 2003) and Innovative Models of Police and Community Training (Impact) (White, 2004).

Gangs Squad: The Gangs squad is a law enforcement initiative meant to target all forms of gang activities in Australia. It is supposed to work with other crime agencies and spearhead police intelligence gathering and anti-gang operations and is able to call on police from the region target action group and local area commands. It is meant to encourage police visibility using intelligence gathered by detectives Gangs squad. The police are supposed to go to places using the evidence of gang activities in the area. The aim is to reduce gang activities like drug trafficking, extortion and violence. This is more of a suppression programme.

Innovative Models of Police and Community Training (Impact): Another response in Australia has been the use of Innovative Models of Police and Community Training (Impact). The project identified a number of local issues and the tension that was there between the police and the Arabic speaking youth. The aim of the project is to create a good relationship amongst members of the community and to reduce violent confrontations between the police and the Arabic youth. It also helps to raise police morale and job satisfaction. It involves the induction of new constables through visits to the community, some government agencies, youth centres and religious institutions like mosques. The police are also given a two-day intensive training course on local and cultural issues and how to provide a service that is culturally competent to the ethnic minority in the community. There are also some mediation group discussions between the police and young people aimed at giving a greater understanding of the perspectives of each of the two groups and their mutual support. As White (2004:5) indicates, they also look at other issues like policing, community expectations, crime prevention and public safety. This is meant to foster a good relationship between the police and the community.

In New Zealand the response to dealing with guns and gangs amongst youth has historically been done through suppression and intervention strategies, (Parliamentary support research papers, 2009). During the 1970s the approach was to use suppression via legislation. The police were also given more powers to stop and search any vehicle suspected of carrying dangerous weapons. In the 1980s, they came to realise that to deal with the problem more effectively, they needed to look at the issue more comprehensively, focusing on the causes of gangs. That resulted in the establishment of interventions like the Community Education Initiative Scheme (CEIS) in 1981 and the Group Employment Liaison Scheme (GELS) in 1982.

Community Education Initiative Scheme (CEIS): The CEIS initiative was aimed at reducing youth gang recruitment by responding to the needs of young people who had been classified as underachievers and who had difficulty in moving from school to employment. The initiative also provided young people with recreational and sporting activities outside school.

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Group Employment Liaison Scheme (GELS): The main goal of GELS was to involve disadvantaged groups, including gangs, in various government-funded schemes. This was done to keep disadvantaged groups occupied so that they would have less time to engage in anti-social behaviour.

The problem of guns and gangs is relevant for South Africa as the phenomenon is on the rise in schools (Frank, 2005; Casella and Potterton, 2006; Mnyaka, 2006 and Methi, 2010). Young children are getting involved in gangs and armed violence and in some cases this spills over to schools. There is therefore a lesson to learn from these studies conducted in other countries, especially as Frank (2005) indicates that existing programmes for children engaged in gangs in South Africa are limited, and that their focus is more on diversion than prevention. Furthermore, the programmes most required - those that help young people to exit gangs and reintegrate them into homes and schools - are non-existent.

4.2.1.2 Youth violence and aggressive behaviour

Another major problem that schools have to deal with is youth violence and aggressive behaviour. This kind of behaviour often leads to physical fights which results in some learners being injured. According to Aber, Pedersen, Brown, Jones and Gershoff (2003:3), the causes of violence are multifaceted. Some of the factors are *"violence exposure, conduct problems and some types of social-cognitive processes"*.

As a response to the problem in the USA, several initiatives have been taken. They include interventions like Resolving Conflict Creatively Programme (RCCP) and I Can Problem Solve (ICPS).

RCCP: The programme aims to address youth violence and aggressive behaviour. This prevention programme starts from the kindergarten through to the 12th grade, and was designed to promote a positive way of resolving conflicts and good intergroup relations. According to Aber et al. (2003:4), it was founded in 1985 as a result of the collaboration amongst community-based non-profit organisations, Educators for Social Responsibility Metropolitan Area (ESR Metro) and the New York City Board of Education. The programme focuses on reducing violence and violence-related behaviour by promoting the issue of caring

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and cooperative behaviour and also teaching learners about life skills in resolving conflicts and intercultural understanding. That is done with the aim of changing the culture of the school to be a non-violent one. As a result, the activities of the programme include the training of teachers and student-based mediation groups, school administrators and parents. From the curriculum, lessons are organised into units focusing on skills such as clear communication and listening, expressing feelings and dealing with anger, conflict management, cooperation, appreciating diversity and dealing with biases. Lessons are presented in a workshop format, where the teacher's role is to facilitate discussions and learning. Learners are trained to be peer mediators. The skills gained can be used to create a peaceful environment in schools.

I Can Problem Solve (ICPS): The ICPS is one of the initiatives referred to as prevention programmes. It targets learners in nursery schools, kindergarten and those who are in grades 5 and 6 (Office of the Surgeon General, 2001). The programme strives to train children to use problem-solving skills in dealing with interpersonal problems. This is done to help children to adjust well socially, to enhance their social behaviour and to reduce impulsive behaviour, which is one of the factors that causes violence and aggressive behaviour. It is delivered by putting learners in small groups (6 to 12 children) and giving them lessons for a three to four month period.

In the UK, the response to youth violence and aggressive behaviour has been via the introduction of the Safer Schools Partnership Project (SSPP), which originated in the USA, and other initiatives like Parenting Wisely (Parenting Wisely Fact Sheet, 2012).

SSPP: The SSPP was launched in September 2002. It was piloted by the Thames Valley Police in Banbury using the restorative principles by the Metropolitan Police in Southwark supported by Roehampton Institute. The programme was later adopted by the Department for Education and Skills as a response to Street Crime Initiative and developed collaboratively with the Youth Justice Board (YJB), the Home Office and the Association of Chief Police officers (ACPO), by introducing 100 police officers in 100 schools in selected street crime areas as a preventative measure and an intervention programme. The aim of the programme is to reduce violence and anti-social behaviour by creating a safe and secure school

environment and involving young people in challenging unacceptable behaviour. The programme involves placing a fully operational police officer full-time in a school. The police officer works closely with a member of the schools senior management team, project worker and the administrator. It also involves seconding police officers to Behaviour and Education Support Teams (BESTs) working with secondary schools and their feeder primary schools. Police officers are also supposed to give reactive support to a cluster of schools. Police officers or Police Community Support Officers (PCSOs) based in the neighbourhood policing team are expected to help part-time in solving problems in schools.

Parenting Wisely: Parenting Wisely is a computer-based training programme for parents of the children in the age range of between 3 and 18. It targets parents and teaches them constructive skills in dealing with substance use and abuse among the youth, schools problems, delinquency and other behaviour problems. The aim of the programme is to increase parental communication and disciplinary skills. It is also meant to improve relationships in the families and reduce conflicts through behavioural management and support. The parents are expected to complete the programme with their children. It uses nine videos to display typical family struggles, like a young person playing music aloud, breaching curfew or having problems at school. Each scene covers issues like communication skills, problem solving, speaking respectfully, self-confident, discipline and homework. Parents are given the opportunity to give a response to the problem displayed in the video.

In Australia, as in other countries, there are also challenges related to violence in schools. The nature of the violence includes bullying, fights and sexual harassment (Maslen, 2000). There are, however, as in other countries, difficulties in collating statistics on incidents of school violence. (Slee, 2006). It is difficult to find reliable data to use to gauge the prevalence, trends or patterns of incidents of school violence. (Grunseit, Weatherburn and Donnelly, 2005). As a response, several initiatives have been undertaken. Examples of some of the initiatives that deal specifically with violence include intervention programmes like PeaceBuilders (Christie, Petrie and Christie, 1999) and Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS) (Tully, 2007).

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PeaceBuilders: The PeaceBuilders programme is a prevention programme based in elementary schools. It uses the whole- school approach in dealing with issues of violence and aggressive behaviour amongst learners. In some cases, it involves parents and the community as well. It targets learners in elementary schools who are considered to be high risk in becoming violent in future. As a result of its approach, it has also helped to create a positive climate within schools and encouraged learners to attend school. The aim is to reduce violence and create a culture of pro-social behaviour in schools. This is done by using role modelling and a rewards system to enhance positive social skills and discourage negative behaviour.

The PATHS: The PATHS programme is a multi-component prevention programme aimed at preventing aggression, by promoting the children's interpersonal abilities, critical thinking skills and the improvement of classroom environment. It is also meant to improve children's ability to discuss and control their emotions. It is a school-based curriculum that includes materials for parents as well. It was designed to be implemented by teachers, and teaches social skills, problem solving skills dealing with emotions and peer relationship. Even though it is supposed to be taught by teachers in schools, it also includes materials for parents to reinforce learning at home.

In New Zealand the response has been to introduce intervention programmes like the Reducing Youth Offending Programme (RYOP) and Te Hurihanga Programme.

RYOP: The RYOP is an intervention programme implemented in New Zealand as a response to young people who commit crimes and other antisocial behaviour. Its target is young people who commit serious crimes repeatedly. The programme uses Multi-Systemic Therapy which was developed in the USA. As Ririnui (2004) indicates, it focuses on the youth, their peers, their school, their family and the communities in which they live. It uses a family- and community-based approach in working with young people. The aim is to reduce the frequency, severity and intensity of anti-social behaviours like violence and crime among young people by working with them in their natural environment.

Te Hurihanga Programme: The Te Hurihanga Programme is an intervention programme that was put into place as a response to the problem of youth offending. According to the Ministry of Justice (2012), this was a three-year pilot programme that focused on encouraging young people to turn their lives from being offenders to good citizens. It was an eight to nine month therapeutic programme targeting young males of between 14 to 16 years who had appeared before the courts. The aim was to reduce offending and hold young people accountable for their offence and provide them with tailor-made special support and their families so that they could change and live a positive life.

Botswana also experiences violence in schools, manifested in multiple ways, including physical fights amongst learners, sexual assaults, theft, vandalism and the use of corporal punishment by teachers. It would seem that there has been no particular programme developed to deal with these problems. According to Matsoga (2003:178), the response has been the use of corporal punishment sanctioned by the Botswana Penal Code (Section 26) and the customary Court Act (1992), which states that corporal punishment should be inflicted on child offenders, though there are certain restrictions. In some cases learners are forced to do manual labour. They also use Guidance and Counselling as subjects in schools to deal with violence, even though there the emphasis is mostly on preparing learners for the work place.

The lesson for South Africa is that responses to youth violence and aggressive behaviour from the cited countries are varied. Some programmes are meant to prevent the problem before it occurs. Such programmes focus on learners while they are still at an early age. They are meant to teach them life skills in resolving conflicts and intercultural understanding. Other programmes involve learners in challenging unacceptable behaviour, or are designed as interventions involving placing police officers in schools on a full-time basis, teaching parents parenting skills, involving different stakeholders outside the schools like community members and teaching children to control their emotions. Furthermore, another issue to note is that in developed countries there is no use of corporal punishment whereas in a developing country like Botswana, they still use corporal punishment.

4.2.1.3 Drop-outs and delinquency

A comparison of initiatives across different countries shows that there are different responses to the problem of drop-outs and delinquency. In the USA for example, the response was to develop several initiatives like The Adopt-A-Student Program in Atlanta and The Coca-Cola Valued Youth among others (Woods, 1995).

The *Adopt-A-Student Program* started operating in Atlanta, USA in 1983. It involved business people who came in as volunteers. Its target was learners who were regarded as low-achievers. Business people became mentors of these learners to help them focus on their future employment opportunities. The learners were also given help in identifying their occupational interests and jobs that would match their interests. The aim of the programme was to reduce drop-out rates and increase graduation rates.

The *Coca-Cola Valued Youth Programme* is an intensive tutoring programme that focuses on helping learners achieve well academically. Its aim is to reduce drop-out rates amongst learners who have limited English proficiency. It targets middle-school children who are at the risk of leaving school. Like other programmes that involve parents, it also involves learners, parents and teachers in setting goals, decision making, progress monitoring and outcomes. It uses learner-tutors and involves parents as well.

In the UK, the response to dropping out and delinquency has been to introduce several initiatives. Some of these are programmes like Families and Schools Together (FAST) and the Incredible Years Programme (Lindsay, Strand, Cullen, Cullen, Band, Davis, Conlon, Barlow and Evans, 2011).

FAST is a prevention programme that originated in the USA in 1988 and has been implemented in different countries. Its target is children in the age range of 3 to 18 years, but it does involve families as well. The aim is to foster parent-child relationships and parent involvement in the education of the children. It also aims at improving their academic achievement, their attention span and social skills, which help to reduce stress and ultimately reduce the drop-out rate and delinquency. The involvement of the family is regarded as crucial for the success of the programme.

The *Incredible Years Programme,* like FAST, also started in the USA in 1984 and has been implemented in other different countries, including the UK. This is a prevention programme that targets young people in the age range of 8-13 years. The aim of the programme is to prevent unwanted negative behaviour like delinquency, violence and drug abuse which ultimately lead to the problem of school drop-outs. As in the case of FAST, the programme advocates increased parent-child interaction in order to build positive parent-child relationships and more nurturing parenting that will then contribute to improved academic, social and emotional adaptation in school.

In Australia the response to dropping out and delinquency has been done by establishing a number of retention initiatives. According to Lamb and Rice (2008) the initiatives include amongst others Mini-School or The School-within-a-School Organisation and Check and Connect.

The School-within-a-School Organisation has its roots in educational reform. It tries to establish schools that can address issues that are not being addressed in the other schools. It is a way of trying to close the gaps left in existing schools. The argument for such schools is that academic achievement and learner-wellbeing are more likely to be better natured in small schools than in big schools. It started in the USA and has been used in different countries like Australia. Its target is learners who are at risk of dropping out and those coming from disadvantaged backgrounds. The aim is to reduce drop-out rates and improve academic achievement.

Check and Connect is an intervention programme used in dealing with the problem of drop-outs in Australia. According to Tully (2007), the aim of the programme is to enhance engagement and prevent young people who are regarded as high risks for dropping out of school. It involves using a monitor who worked closely with the learner, the family and the school personnel for a number of years to check on the progress and connect the learner and the family in providing the intervention. It is usually tailor-made for the needs of the learner but it also involves components such as monitoring of attendance, academic performance and behaviour. It includes problem-solving skills training, motivation and a commitment to be with the learner for a period of at least two years.

The response to drop-outs and delinquency in New Zealand seems to be different from other countries. Instead of focussing on delinquency per se, the initiatives seem to focus on factors that are likely to lead to dropping out and delinquency. Hence, as The Werry Centre for Child and Adolescent Mental Health Workforce Development (2008) indicates, they introduced programmes like Social Skills and Anger Coping Skills Training and Coping Power.

The *Social Skills and Anger Coping Skills Training* is a programme that emphasises social information processing deficits in young people. Its target is young people who have distorted appraisals of social events which then lead to anti-social behaviour. The programme is aimed at modifying and expanding the child's interpersonal appraisal processes to help them develop a more sophisticated system of beliefs and regulate their emotional responses.

Coping Power is a school-based multi-component intervention programme administered during school hours to primary school children who have conduct problems and are likely to drop-out of school. It is a highly structured programme consisting of 33 sessions. Each session has specific goals, objectives and practice exercises. It targets boys who are identified as high-risk for developing anti-social behaviour. It involves eight sessions in the first year and 25 sessions in the second year and focuses on goal setting, awareness of feelings, and the use of coping strategies, problem-solving skills and how to deal with peer pressure. Learners learn how to identify a problem, generate solutions and assess the solutions using pro-social judgements. Contexts include family- and sibling interactions and school situations. There is also a 16-session course for parents. The aim is to help learners to control their emotions in dealing with challenges and help them to cope and not drop-out of school.

The problem of drop-outs and delinquency in Botswana seems to be different from the developed countries included in this study. The difference is in that in the case of Botswana, the problem is more gender-based. Girls drop-out of school in larger numbers than boys. According to Molosiwa and Moswela (2012) girls drop out of school mostly because of pregnancy which, in turn, is often as a result of socio-economic factors that affect their level of education and accessibility to information about health issues. Thus Botswana intervention initiatives differ from other countries in that programmes are gender-focused, like the Teen Mothers Programme (Nyati-Ramaholo and Mabuse, in Thody and Kaabwe, 2000).

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The problems that the *Teenage Mothers Programme* intends to address are escalating teenage pregnancies and girls' limited chances of being readmitted to schools. It targets teenage mothers with the aim of giving them a second chance to acquire basic education. The programme director is also the General Secretary of the YWCA. The work is carried out with the assistance of the programme coordinator who directly supervises the other stakeholders - teachers, counsellors, the driver, the bookkeeper, the cook, the cleaner, nursery attendants and the messenger. The coordinator is also responsible for the curriculum, student registration in the programme, national examinations and keeping contact with the Curriculum Development Unit in the Ministry of Education in the case of curriculum changes. There is also a principal counsellor who gives counselling to teenage mothers and fathers. Through education, counselling and support for the babies, girls are able learn to care for their babies and return to school.

In summary, developed countries appear to pay attention to all learners at risk of dropping out using a variety of strategies. Strategies include the use mentors, the use of learner tutors, and helping families to foster parent-child relationship. Furthermore, the programmes encourage parents to be involved in their children's education. There is also emphasis placed on giving individual attention to learners by placing them in smaller schools. Some programmes focus on factors that are likely to make learners drop out of school, by focussing on the development of social skills and coping with anger. Botswana, a developing country, in contrast, focuses on teenage mothers who have left school by helping them to go back to school.

4.2.1.4 Bullying

Bullying is another problem that is common in all countries whether developed or developing, although it seems to be more prevalent in Australia and New Zealand. The difference is how countries respond to the problem.

Bullying is a serious problem in the USA schools (Smokowski and Holland, 2005; Smith, Cousins and Stewart, 2005; Milsom and Gallo, 2006 and Garringer, 2008). As a response, several initiatives have been made. Initiatives include programmes like Bullybusters and TeamMates Mentoring Programme.

Bullybusters is a play that deals with issues of bullying in schools. According to Milsom and Gallo (2006), it is a whole-school approach prevention programme where learners are supposed to learn from the actors how to handle issues of bullying in schools. It models positive attitudes and good behaviour. It does involve other stakeholders, like principals and teachers, who are supposed to encourage learners to discuss the drama in the classroom. Learners are also involved in the creation of anti-bullying rules and are required to sign an anti-bullying pledge. The school administrators and teachers involve the parents in the programme through newsletters that provide steps that should be taken in helping their children deal with bullying.

TeamMates Mentoring Programme, unlike Bullybusters which uses the whole-school approach, uses an individual approach. According to Garringer (2008), it uses one-on-one mentoring relationships to support bullies and victims alike. Its goals are the creation of mentoring relationships that would help improve academic achievement, school attendance, pro-social behaviours and post-secondary school planning.

The UK as well also has the problem of bullying in schools. The response has been to initiate interventions like the Sheffield Anti-Bullying Project and the Social Skills Training (SST) Programme.

The *Sheffield Anti-Bullying Project* was funded by the Department for Education. According to Smith and Ananiadou (2003), it is a whole-school approach project that targets risk factors for bullying victims, like the school's climate, the school's physical environment, the peer group, the behaviour of individual bullies and victims. Schools are requested to democratically develop a whole-school policy on bullying. The policy is supposed to be accessible to all stakeholders in the school situation. Schools are given support in the form of materials and teachers are trained in areas of the curriculum that involve dramas and videos, working with individuals and small groups, playground work and peer support schedules.

The Social Skills Training (SST) Programme was specifically designed to support learners who are recurrent victims of bullying. Unlike the Sheffield Anti-Bullying Project which focuses on the whole school, the SST programme focuses on individual learners only. The

general aim of the programme is to help learners improve their social skills which could help in reducing their chances of being victims of bullying. According to Farrington and Ttofi (2010), it involves an eight-week course during which learners learn about how to use problem-solving skills, relaxation skills, how to think positively, how to use their non-verbal behaviour and verbal strategies to deal with bullying. Victims of bullying are put in groups of ten and exposed to the aims of the programme for one hour per week. Two trainers are responsible for delivering the one-hour sessions throughout the programme.

Several initiatives were taken to deal with the issue of bullying in Australia, where it is a serious problem (Maslen, 2000, and Morrison, 2002). Initiatives put in place, as already indicated, include programmes like Responsible Citizenship Programme (Australian National University (ANU) reporter, 2001) and Friendly Schools and Families (Cross, 2012).

The *Responsible Citizenship Program (RCP)* is a prevention programme that is meant to prevent bullying in schools. The programme is grounded on several principles of restorative justice, including community building and conflict resolution. The students spend one hour with the facilitators twice a week for period of five weeks. This means a total of ten hours over five weeks. Concepts and ideas about bullying are introduced and presented through poster-making and role-playing that leads towards producing a video. It focuses on how to deal with shame, since shame is considered to be the major cause of bullying in schools.

Friendly Schools and Families provides whole-school strategies based on the Health Promoting Schools Framework. It promotes awareness and understanding of the bullying phenomenon, communication on issues related to bullying, responses to bullying and advocates for the support of learners who are bullied. It is distributed nationally and internationally by the Australian Council for Educational Research. Its target is different stakeholders in the school setting.

In New Zealand, as in Australia, incidents of bullying are common (Shaw, 2001:19). As a result, there is a well-developed anti-bullying network which serves as an intervention to such incidents. There is also a police-business partnership campaign that has sponsored several

programmes dealing with bullying in schools. Other initiatives that deal with bullying include Kia Kaha Programme and Cool Schools Programme (Carroll-Lind, 2009).

The *Kia Kaha Programme* is an intervention programme developed by the New Zealand police (Raskaukas, 2007). It uses the whole-school approach to improve the culture of schools and reduce bullying. It is delivered by teachers and Police Education Officers (PEOs) in schools and targets leaners, parents, caregivers and teachers. It covers issues like peer relationships, identifying and dealing with bullying, making choices, developing a sense of self-worth, respecting those that are different and working cooperatively with others to build a safe classroom environment.

The Cool Schools programme also focuses on bullying in schools and was developed by Aotearoa New Zealand Foundation for Peace Studies (Carroll-Lind, 2009). It has been operating since 1991 and has been delivered to nearly two-thirds of New Zealand's schools, funded by the ministries of Education and Health in many of them. Initially, it was implemented in primary schools and intermediate phases. Later it was introduced in secondary schools. Its targets are staff members who are then expected to train learners to become peer mediators, who are senior learners. They patrol the school playground in pairs at intervals and during lunch and intervene in cases where there are disputes. They are trained in listening and confidentiality, and are placed under the supervision of a nominated teacher who is the coordinator. The coordinator manages the duty schedule of the mediators.

The point to note is that countries respond differently to the issues of bullying. Most of them use the whole-school approach where they involve different stakeholders like learners, teachers, parents and police officers. Some of the programmes focus on individual learners, either as perpetrators or victims of bullying. Botswana responds by using violent approaches like corporal punishment.

4.2.2 Goals of the interventions

The initiatives discussed briefly above have different goals: to prevent problems, to intervene, or to supress problems. Still others want to help children develop certain competencies and abilities. A few of these initiatives focused on prevention: RCCP and ICPS in the USA, and

PeaceBuilders and PATHS in Australia. Most of the initiatives were intervention programmes. A few of the initiatives focus on suppressing the problems and tend to use law enforcement agencies, like the police, in dealing with problems, for example, Gang Squad in Australia. One of the few that focuses on the development of the child is TeamMates in the USA.

4.2.3   A typology of interventions

Looking at the initiatives discussed, it is possible to develop a typology of these programmes. A typology can be presented according to at least three dimensions:

- Programmes categorised according to main stakeholders, like multiple stakeholders versus single stakeholder group.

- Programmes categorised by site, for example, in-school, community-based and family-based programmes.

- Programmes categorised in terms of the nature of the implementation of the intervention, such as the use of mentors versus peer-mediation and peer-learning.

This typology is based on the nature of different programmes in dealing with different problems in schools. It was developed as a result of my analysis of the differences and similarities that were found in the programmes discussed above. This typology, is different from the one developed by Volokh and Snell (1998). Theirs focused on **changing the physical environment of the school**, **improving the social environment** and **curriculum-based programmes.**

4.2.3.1 Programmes categorised according to main stakeholders

Multi-stakeholder programmes

Multi-stakeholder programmes are programmes that involve different stakeholders both in and outside the school - typically schools, churches, families, business, law enforcement agencies and the community. Examples of such programmes are PATHS in Australia, Coping Power and APPLE (A Pilot Programme for Lifestyle and Exercise) in New Zealand and SNPI in the USA. Such programmes often get support from different stakeholders.

Single-stakeholder group programmes

Single-stakeholder group programmes are programmes that are driven by one stakeholder group in dealing with safety issues in schools. The single stakeholder group may either be the teachers, the principals, learners, the department of education or the government. Examples of such kind of programmes are CEIS and GELS New Zealand, SSPP in the UK, Adopt-A-Student Programme in the USA.

4.2.3.2 Programmes categorised according to site

Programmes can also be categorised according to where they are implemented. Programmes may be based in schools, community or in families.

In-school programmes

In-school programmes are programmes that are based in schools and often also delivered by the schools. They are in most cases integrated into the curriculum. They may be programmes dealing with gangs and guns like GREAT in the USA or programmes meant to reduce violence and anti-social behaviour in schools like the SSPP in the UK, PeaceBuilders and PATHS in Australia. Other examples of in-school programmes are those that deal with bullying. For example, Bullybusters Programme and TeamMates Mentoring Programme in the USA, Sheffield Anti-Bullying Project and the SST programme in the UK, Responsible Citizenship Programme in Australia, and Kiakaha and Cool Schools Programme in New Zealand.

Other kinds of in-school programmes are those that use the whole-school approach. These programmes do not focus on only one aspect but different aspects that have to do with the problems affecting schools. Examples are Sheffield Anti-Bullying Project in the UK and Kia Kaha in New Zealand.

Community-based programmes

Community-based programmes involve and are also led by members of the community. The involvement of community members helps them to develop a sense of ownership of the programme, and in turn advocate for and promote the programme. Examples of community-

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based programmes are GRIP in the USA, TGAP and X-IT programme in the UK, IMPACT (Involving Mathematics for Parents, Children and Teachers) in Australia.

Family-based Programmes

Some of the programmes are aimed at helping parents develop positive parenting skills and to build good relationships between parents and their children. This is based on the assumption that how children behave has got something to do with their parenting. One example of this is Parenting Wisely in the UK.

4.2.3.3 Programmes categorised in terms of the nature of intervention

In this category, programmes are categorised in terms of the nature of intervention. Examples as already indicated include programmes that make use of mentors and programmes that make use of peer-mediation.

Mentoring programmes

Examples of mentor programmes are Adopt-A-Student and TeamMates in the USA. These initiatives use a mentor - usually somebody who has experience and wisdom who is then used to guide and instruct the mentee, with the goal of facilitating growth and development of the mentee. Mentoring may also help the mentee in issues like developing positive self-esteem, positive attitudes towards school, strong parental relationships and engendering academic achievement.

Peer-mediation programmes

Peer-mediation and conflict resolution programmes involve learners as mediators in resolving problems between learners in schools. The involvement of learners in the programme contributes towards the sustainability of the programme in that learners tend to develop a sense of ownership of the programme. An example of this is a programme like Cool Schools in New Zealand.

Given the emerging trends, the question is: What can South Africa learn from the international initiatives in its quest to implement interventions in schools?

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Several lessons for South Africa emerge from the literature about intervention programmes in schools.

- A major lesson learnt is that in developed countries like the USA, UK, Australia, New Zealand, programmes typically reach learners via the curriculum. The inclusion of safety issues in the curriculum helps learners to learn about safety issues in a structured environment rather than as part of an extra-curricular activity. Teachers are obliged to teach learners about safety issues as part of the curriculum and not in addition to what they are already doing. They can teach learners to understand and behave in a socially acceptable way. For example, they can include topics such as human rights, democracy, tolerance, non-violence and multiculturalism in the curriculum.

- Many programmes also use a whole-school approach in dealing with problems in schools, so instead of focusing on learners only, they also focus on changing the physical and the social environment of the school. This suggests a prior assumption (and admission) that the problems to be addressed are multi-dimensional and complex.

- Another lesson that emerges is that initiatives should involve learners to ensure sustainability and ownership of the programme. Learners are seen as central in the implementation of programmes in schools because they develop a sense of ownership and as a result will advocate and push for the success of the programme. For example, if they are involved, they will also influence other learners to be positive about it and defend it against those who might be opposed to its implementation. This may make it easier for those who are in authority to implement programmes.

- What also emerges is that interventions in some countries involve families and the whole community in dealing with problems in schools. Families and communities play a very important role in the success of interventions in schools as some of the problems in schools emanate from the families and communities. This means that schools should develop partnerships with communities and families in order for programmes to succeed. Working together may also help schools get support and resources from the community for implementing programmes. For example, schools could form committees composed of parents and community members who could mobilise resources for the successful implementation of programmes in schools.

- As one would expect, initiatives differ in terms of their goals and anticipated outcomes and impact. As already indicated, some initiatives are meant to prevent problems before they occur (prevention programmes), whereas others intervene after problems have occurred ("treatment" programmes). In some instances, initiatives are meant to suppress the problem by making use government agencies like the police ("moderator" programmes).

4.3   South African experience

4.3.1   Nature of violence

The nature of violence in South African schools seems to be more severe compared to other countries. In other countries violence seems to be characterised by particular features like shootings or bullying; in South Africa, there seem to be multiple forms of violence in schools, ranging from assault, rape, carrying dangerous weapons, sexual abuse, emotional abuse, burglary, vandalism, criminal offences, theft, gang-related violence, suicides, alcohol-, drug- and medication abuse (Govender, 2006), pornographic material, shootings (Vally, 2002; Khan, 2008) and bullying (The Human Rights Commission of South Africa, 2008). However, comparing the South African situation with developed countries may be unfair, as Burton (2008) indicates. A better comparison may be with other developing economies like Botswana. But the fact remains that the comparison shows that violence in schools affects all communities and countries.

The nature of violence in South African schools affects teaching and learning in schools. Vally (2002:85) summarises the nature of problem on teaching and learning when he writes:

> *The rampant violence against students and school staff has been pervasive, disruptive and has severely impeded South Africa's schools in their efforts to improve education and address issues of equity in communities where it is most needed.*

The schools have become dysfunctional. This affects effective teaching and learning.

4.3.2   Initiatives to deal with violence in schools

In response to the nature of violence in South African schools, the South African government in collaboration with civic and private sector initiated several intervention programmes.

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Among these are interventions such as the Culture of Learning and Teaching Services (COLTS), Business Against Crime (BAC) and Tiisa Thuto (TT) (Domingo-Swarts, 2002) The Crime Reduction in Schools Programme (CRISP) in Durban, and the SSP (Shaw, 2001:18). The latest development is the introduction of the CFS Programme (Department of Education and UNICEF, 2008).

4.3.2.1 Culture of Learning and Teaching Services

Culture of Learning and Teaching Services or COLTS was launched by the former state president (Mr Mandela) on the 10 February 1997. It was launched at PJ Simelane High School in Soweto to help dysfunctional schools. According to the Status Report for the Minister for Education (1999), COLTS was launched as a campaign with the expectation that it would be turned into a programme. This was a national campaign run by the National directorate through Oversight Committees and Co-ordinating Committee which had links with the provinces.

The goal of COLTS was to turn dysfunctional former black schools characterised by crime, violence, vandalism, ineffective teaching and learning into schools that are conducive for learning and teaching, across the nine provinces of South Africa. To turn things around, five areas (components) of the COLTs were identified as areas that needed attention. These areas were discipline and commitment among learners and educators, transformation effected through functioning school governing bodies, the provision of basic resources essential for effective teaching and learning, the development of an education charter based on the country's educational values and aspirations of all South African citizens, and the creation of crime- and violence-free learning environments (Independent Projects Trust, 1998:3).

Activities designed in support of COLTS included: a mobilisation campaign which involved advertising, publications, workshops, media campaigns and a public launch. It also involved an awards programme meant to build public willingness to participate, to increase awareness and to mobilise multiple role-players, to offer information and promote local activities. Publications with the official programme policy, design and implementation were sent to provinces, school governing bodies and communities.

Victim empowerment programmes were initiated through educational materials and workshops for key personnel in the provinces. The programme also included monitoring and evaluation of the campaign outcomes by provincial COLTS personnel.

As part of the activities, SABC Television was commissioned to produce a drama known as Yizo Yizo. The drama projected problems experienced in schools to raise awareness in the public.

The anticipated outcomes of the COLTS were:
- A new awareness on issues of crime, violence and sexual abuse in schools
- A new level of discipline and commitment among learners and educators
- Functioning school governing bodies
- The provision of basic resources essential for effective teaching and learning
- Stakeholders mobilised into working together to create safer schools
- A representative school safety committee appointed by the SGB (School Governing Bodies) in every school by June 1999
- A safety strategy drafted by the school safety committee and approved by the SGB by June 1999.

I could not find any evaluation study of the COLTS.

4.3.2.2 Business Against Crime and Tiisa Thuto

Business Against Crime (BAC) is an organisation of businesses that have collaborated in fighting against crime in South Africa. The organisation came into existence in 1996 as a response to the request by the then president of the country to fight against crime in general and crime committed in schools in particular.

BAC developed a programme known as Tiisa Thuto which was implemented in schools. The goals of Tiisa Thuto are to reduce crime levels by building partnerships among different stakeholders. This means involving parents, educators, the South African Police Services (SAPS), Department of Education and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs). By introducing non-violent methods for resolving conflicts and improving relationships amongst the stakeholders, they hope to reduce crime.

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As Domingo-Swarts (2002:4), indicates, activities in the programme include developing modules to help stakeholders resolve conflicts in a non-violent way. Modules developed include educators' empowerment, which is meant to help educators deal with trauma in schools. The leadership and resourcing module is meant to equip principals and SGB members with relevant skills. The HIV/AIDS and sexuality module is meant to create awareness, preventative education and ways of dealing with teenage sexuality and parenthood. There is also a module that focused on sport, promoting teamwork and positive communications among peers.

Expected outcomes are that:
- The rate of crime is reduced
- The rate of violence is reduced
- Safer schools are created.

According Shaw (2004:99) the Tiisa Thuto programme was evaluated and found to be effective. As a result, the programme was supposed to be implemented in all the schools in Gauteng Province. It was not possible to get more information on this because not much has been written on its evaluation. A report on the evaluation of the programme by Swart, Mackenzie and Seedat (2005) could not be accessed at the time of the study.

4.3.2.3 The Crime Reduction in Schools Project

The Crime Reduction in Schools Project (CRISP) is the result of a partnership between the University of Natal, the Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology and different participating schools. It was originally based at the University of Natal with the Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology being the major funder of the project. The first pilot phase was implemented between 1999 and 2000.

The goals of CRISP were to reduce the level of crime in schools and create an environment conducive to learning and teaching. According to Independent Projects Trust (IPT) (2011), CRISP was meant to develop a model project on safety in schools using the strengths and assets of learners to create an environment conducive for teaching and learning.

As Domingo-Swarts (2002:4) indicates, the programme involved the development of modules that focus on basic counselling and trauma debriefing in schools. It also focused on character building which was meant to provide educators with skills that include content around values, critical thinking and self-esteem. For self-esteem, educators were provided with materials and skills to help them facilitate the development of self-esteem of learners via the curriculum. It included HIV/AIDS awareness.

The desired outcomes of the programme were outlined as:

- The reduction of crime
- The reduction of violence
- The creation of safe schools.

According to the IPT (2003), the project was evaluated in 1999 and found to be successful. The difficulty is that no further information about its effectiveness is available.

Other proposed interventions, include security guards, fencing, metal detectors, floodlights and in some cases closed-circuit television. (Govender, 2006). Mkhondo (2006) adds other interventions like developing a curriculum that teaches children the attitudes and skills they need to avoid violence, and programmes that enable parents to participate in the education of their children. They also include the involvement of education district officers (Botha, 2006:41).

Currently, there is another programme that is being piloted in schools in Limpopo, KwaZulu Natal, the Eastern Cape, the Western Cape and the Northern Cape. The programme is known as Child Friendly Schools (CFS) and is meant to have a whole-school approach to issues of safety in schools. The focus of the study later became implementation evaluation of not the SSP, but rather the CFS Programme as my preliminary findings revealed that there was no implementation of the SSP. Furthermore, during interviews, the stakeholders kept on making reference to the CFS Programme instead of the SSP. They seemed to know more about the CFS Programme than the SSP. As a response, I decided to include the CFS Programme since it had been implemented in some of the schools in the Limpopo Province.

4.3.2.4 Classification of the SSPs in general

Using Volokh and Snell's (1998) typology, SSPs can be classified into three categories. They are programmes that focus on **changing the physical environment of the school**, **improving the social environment** and **curriculum-based programmes.** Safe school programmes in South Africa, as already indicated, seem to be focussing on changing the physical environment, whereas CFS seems to have a holistic approach and focus on the different aspects that are essential for dealing with safety issues in schools. SSPs that focus on the physical environment are programmes that focus on the outside appearance of the school.

According to Verdugo and Schneider (2005:98), such programmes focus on three broad issues which are visibility, organising the school in such a way that the receptionist should be the first contact person when visitors visit the school, and paying attention to the entrance and exit of the school premises. Visibility involves the use of television monitors and cameras, as well as lighting in the hallways, and the removal of barriers. It also involves locking gates, the use of metal detectors and the installation of burglar bars on the windows.

Programmes that focus on the social environment focus on, for example, improving teacher expectations of learner's behaviour, and norms of how learners should speak to other learners and teachers. They are programmes about social interaction among learners and between teachers and learners. Curriculum-based programmes are programmes that are meant to control and shape the behaviour of learners. They are programmes like peer-mediation, conflict resolution and gang prevention.

Since the SSP and the CFS Programme were the two programmes selected for my evaluation study, they are discussed in much more detail.

4.3.2.5 An overview and brief description of the SSP

The SSP emerged out of the Culture of Learning and Teaching Services Campaign (COLTS) that was launched in February 1997. Its focus was primarily on **creating an environment conducive to teaching and learning in the schools and was drawn from one of the pillars of COLTS which was "Let there be no Crime in our Schools"**. According to the officials in the Department of Education who are in charge of the programme, the shift from the other

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pillars of COLTS to safety was made because it was difficult to create an environment conducive for teaching and learning if issues pertaining to safety of the schools are not attended to.

As already indicated, incidents identified as threats to the safety of schools in South Africa are crime, sexual abuse, alcohol abuse, drug abuse and peddling, bullying, assault, murder, homicide, suicide, trespassing, theft, arson, kidnapping, vandalism, vehicle hijacking, verbal abuse, hate speech, armed robbery, intimidation, and so on. Christie (1998:283) emphasises the point when she describes some of the common features which threaten the safety of schools:

> *… disputed and disrupted authority relations between principals, teachers and students; sporadic and broken attendance by students and often teachers; general demotivation and low morale of students and teachers; poor school results; conflict and often violence in and around schools; vandalism, criminality, gangsterism, rape, and substance abuse; [and] school facilities in a generally poor state of repair.*

The SSP was designed as an intervention in 2000 to curb such threats in schools and has been incorporated in the Tirisano Corporate Plan of the Department of Education as School Safety.

According to the Independent Projects Trust (1998, 1999), the SSP is a nationally coordinated programme but decentralised in all the nine provinces of South Africa. In each province, there is a directorate that coordinate the programme. COLTS officers in all districts and regions are the drivers of the programme, with the support of Regional Managers (RMs), District Managers (DMs) and Circuit Managers (CMs). Consultations with other departments and NGOs will be made to seek their assistance in the delivery of the programme.

The goals of the SSP are to eradicate violence and crime in schools and to build a safe and disciplined environment in which effective learning and teaching can take place.

The aims of the programme are to:
- Make schools safe.
- Re-build the culture of learning and teaching by creating conditions conducive to effective teaching and learning.

- Nurture children in schools and harness their potential so as to empower them to resist the lure of crime.

- Inculcate a culture of respect for human rights as detailed in the SA constitution (Chapter 2).

The anticipated outcomes of the programme are listed as follows:

- A new awareness of the extent of crime, violence, sexual harassment of girls and women in schools and community

- Mobilising members of schools, communities, local government to deal with issues of safety

- Reduced school- and community-based criminal incidents

- Reduced vandalism and gang activity

- A new approach to learning and teaching

- A partnership between schools and government departments, NGOs, municipalities, Community Policing and Safety forums, communities, etc.

- The development of Schools Access Policy/regulations

- The development of a fencing programme for targeted schools

- A safer and more learning-conducive environment

- A new awareness of "Alternatives to Corporal Punishment" as a policy document that enforces the provisions of South African Schools Act (IPT, 1998, Department of Education, 2002).

Activities to meet the objectives were supposed to include:

- Creating widespread awareness of the extent of crime and related factors that inhibit effective teaching and learning in schools through the medium of Creative Arts Festivals

- Training schools to involve learners in safety issues at schools

- The Department of Education holding workshops on how to build partnerships with the other stakeholders on issues of safety in schools.

- Training schools on how to involve learners on issues related to safety in schools.

- Prioritising particular crimes such as vandalism, sexual abuse and violence, drugs and weapons in schools, as well as violence on farm schools. Engaging structures

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such as the South African Human Rights Commission in inculcating respect for human rights in education and the society. Monitor effectively, improving coordination and communication within the department, specifically sharing best practices on learning and teaching (IPT, 1998, Department of Education, 2002).

How the programme was supposed to be implemented

School level interventions were meant to identify the physical school safety needs and work on the creative strategies to overcome the needs. This meant that different stakeholders at each level had to identify their safety needs. It also involved developing implementation guidelines with the SAPS on signposts for safe schools through training.

Issues

Educational initiatives included training educators, parents and learners by developing victim empowerment and support programmes for victims of sexual violence and rehabilitating school offenders (Department of Education, 2002).

For the SSP to be successfully implemented, stakeholders were expected to build partnerships. This meant school/community partnerships involving stakeholders such as Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), Community Based Organisations (CBOs), School Governing Bodies (SGBs), Churches, and the like.

One hundred and five schools were selected in the Limpopo Province for a pilot implementation in 2001-2002. These were considered "high risk" schools and three or four were chosen per district. An audit was supposed to be conducted of the conditions at the various schools, using a questionnaire to identify schools that were in need of help. Orientation workshops were then supposed to be organised within all the pilot schools where each school was to be represented by the principal, educator, parent serving in the SGB and a learner. (Department of Education, 2002).

A further 30 schools per district were then going to be selected to participate in the Creative arts Initiative with the theme "Building Safer Schools Together for 2001" as part of advocacy. All districts were to have festivals featuring poetry, storytelling, visual art, drama,

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singing and dance. According to the COLTS Creative Arts initiative Newsletter (1999:1), the use of creative arts was meant to make the programme more fun while also being a *"practical way for schools to publicly air their views on establishing and sustaining a good culture of learning and encouraging debate and creativity in their districts"*.

Safety Committee	
Proposed Composition	**Roles and duties (school level)**
SGBs, School Management Teams (SMTs), Learner Representative Council (LRC) rep, police, religious and sport bodies, business, parent, local government, CBO, etc.	**Develop Safety Plans (Prevention, Intervention and Response Strategies) in order to:** Create a safe school environment Create conducive learning conditions Implement COLTS Reduce drug and alcohol abuse, gang activity (if any) and attend to bullying, verbal and sexual abuse, assault in the schools context Interventions to help learners/educators at risk. **Empower learners, educators and parents through:** Conflict resolution and mediation skills Life skills and security awareness programmes Job creation and entrepreneurial skills **Improve basic infrastructure for school Safety** Fences, armed response, patrols, emergency services, call centre, etc.

Cluster Safety Committee	
Proposed Composition	**Roles and duties**
Geographical Grouping of School Safety Committees/Teams	Arrange Joint Workshops and programmes. Formulate cluster Safety Plan. Monitor School Programmes Advise/ recommend to Limpopo Province Education Department resources required such as budget, planning for appropriate interventions.

District/Area Cluster Committee	
Proposed Composition	**Roles and duties**
Geo-grouping of clusters within a geographical area	Monitor cluster programmes Arrange joint workshops and programmes Formulate Cluster Safety Plan same as in the cluster but at a higher level.

Figure 4.1: Proposed structures and functions for operations of the SSP

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The logic model of the programme

Causal theory		Intervention theory	Outcomes→

1	2	3	4	5
1. Violence 2. Crime 3. Vandalism and arson 4. Sex offences 5. Gang activity 6. Break in and entering 7. Weapon possession 8. Alcohol abuse	Unsafe schools	SSP 1. Creating widespread awareness of the extent of crime and related factors that inhibit effective teaching and learning in schools through the medium of Creative Arts Festivals. 2. Training schools on the involvement of learners on issues related to safety in schools 3. Workshops on how to build partnerships with other stakeholders outside the school 4. Training on how to prioritise particular crimes such as vandalism, sexual abuse and violence, drugs and weapons in schools 5. Providing information on engaging structures such as the South African Human Rights Commission in inculcating respect for human rights in education and the society 6. Monitor effectively, improving co-ordination and communication within the department, specifically sharing best practices on learning and teaching	1. Stakeholders gain awareness on issues of crime and other factors that inhibit effective teaching and learning 2. Schools gain knowledge on how to involve leaners on issues related to safety in schools 3. Schools gain knowledge on what to do to build partnerships with other stakeholders outside the school 4. Schools gain knowledge on prioritising issues related to safety in schools 5. Schools gain knowledge on the involvement of structures such as the South African Human Rights Commission 6. Schools gain knowledge on easy strategies in communicating with the department	1. Schools take action in dealing with issues of crime and other factors that inhibit effective learning and teaching 2. Schools involve learners on issues related to safety in schools 3. Schools build partnerships with stakeholders outside the school like parents, business, NGOs 4. Schools prioritise issues in dealing with of safety based on their needs 5. Schools engage structures such as such as the South African Human Rights Commission on issues of human rights 6. Schools communicate effectively with the Department of Education and other departments on issues of safety in schools

Figure 4.2 The logic model of the SSP as developed by the author

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Explanation of the logic model

Cause: Schools are not safe a result of violence, crime, vandalism, arson, sex offences, gang activities, break-ins, weapon possession and alcohol abuse.

Problem: Unsafe schools

Treatment: SSP

Activities: Creating widespread awareness of the extent of crime and related factors that inhibit effective teaching and learning in schools through the medium of Creative Arts Festivals

Training schools on the involvement of learners on issues related to safety in schools

Workshops on how to build partnerships with other stakeholders outside the school

Training on how to prioritise particular crimes such as vandalism, sexual abuse and violence, drugs and weapons in schools

Providing information on engaging structures such as the South African Human Rights Commission in inculcating respect for human rights in education and the society

Monitor effectively, improving co-ordination and communication within the department, specifically sharing best practices on learning and teaching

Skills: Stakeholders gain knowledge in making schools safe

Implement: Schools implement different strategies in making the schools safe

Outcomes

Effective school on learning and teaching

Percentage of time spent on Learning and Teaching and learning

Percentage of classrooms with good quality furniture

Frequency of management and staff meetings per quarter

Educator/learner contact time

Pass rates of learners

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A safe, protective and supportive school

Number of disciplinary hearings related to violent incidents held

Number of educators participating in awareness and training programmes to promote safety, security and protection

Distance from school that learners have to walk

School fencing in place

Number of incidents of fighting and violence, crime, vandalism and arson, sex offences, gang activities, break-ins, weapon possession and alcohol abuse

A partnership-building school

Number of parent/educator meetings on issues of safety in schools

The involvement of learners on issues of safety in schools

Number of home visits by educators/school staff related to issues of safety

Number of meetings with community based organisations, local businesses

Number of professional/social events on school grounds

Number of training and capacity development activities for SGB members and community members on issues of safety in schools

Outcome: Improved safety in schools

A discussion of the theory of change

The theory of change is that if schools deal with fighting, violence, crime, vandalism and arson, sex offences, gang activities, break-ins, weapon possession and alcohol abuse by implementing the SSP, they will change from being unsafe and become safe. A safe environment conducive for learning and teaching will thus be created and learners and educators will work without fear of being attacked in schools.

The status of the programme as of now

The study has established that the programme has as yet not been implemented in the Limpopo Province. Details of why this is the case are provided in Chapters 5, 6 and 8.

4.3.1   An overview and brief description of the CFS Programme

Background

The CFS Programme was developed as a response to concerns about the poor quality of education that learners were receiving in schools in different parts of the world. Poor quality education affects teaching and learning. The concern was highlighted after the reviews of The World Conference on Education (EFA), the World Summit for Children (WSC) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) ((Irvine and Harvey, 2010:3).

The reviews of the EFA and the WSC highlighted that there was a challenge for different countries to meet the targets that were set as follows:

- Expanded early childhood care and development (ECCD) provisions
- Universal access to and completion of primary or basic education
- Improved levels of learning achievement
- Reduction of adult illiteracy
- Expanded basic education and training for youth and adults
- Enhanced life skills for sustainable development through traditional and modern communication and social action.

As a response to the concerns, and UNICEF's UN mandate to support different states in the implementation and reporting obligations under CRC, UNICEF had to rethink their approaches to different programmes. They had to shift from a 'needs based' to a 'rights based' approach in terms of their programmes, which resulted in UNICEF starting to focus on the rights of children among other things. The focus on the rights of children led to concerns about children's protection, health, nutrition, care and how these are affected by the quality of the curriculum, experience in teaching and learning strategies, classroom conditions, schools and community environments. As a way of responding to these concerns, a rights-based framework evolved into 'Child Friendly Schools' (CFS). It is based on the concept that quality education involves meeting the total needs of the child.

It should however, be pointed out that CFS has not only been implemented in South Africa, but also in other countries. In Sub-Saharan Africa it has been implemented in Angola, Burkino Faso, Ethiopia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Niger, Rwanda and

Zimbabwe. The implementation and the approach differ in each country. In South Africa, the implementation focuses on the six features which are most important in providing quality education, namely that schools are supposed to be rights based and inclusive, effective, safe, protective and caring. They are also supposed to be health-promoting and health-seeking schools, and gender-sensitive schools that promote equity and equality, and partnership-building schools.

As already highlighted, the CFS programme aims to address the problem of poor education. It is a kind of education that is characterised by schools that ignore the rights of learners and are exclusive (by excluding other children, for example the disabled), ineffective, unsafe, uncaring, do not promote health, display gender insensitivity and do not build partnerships with stakeholders outside the school.

In South Africa the CFS programme is coordinated nationally but decentralised to different provinces. As it is a new initiative, only a few provinces have begun to implement the programme. These are Limpopo, KwaZulu-Natal and the Eastern Cape, the Western Cape, and the Northern Cape. This study focuses on the implementation of the programme in Limpopo.

The goal of the programme is to give learners an education of a good quality that also takes their wellbeing and rights into consideration and that provides a friendly environment. This will in turn help to improve access, retention, completion and learning achievement.

The aims of the programme are to make schools:

- rights-based and inclusive
- effective
- safe, protective and caring
- health-promoting and health-seeking
- gender sensitive and promoting equity and equality
- partnership-building.

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The anticipated outcomes of the programme are:

- Equal access to and enrolment in school for all children
- Improved academic performance
- Awareness and prevention of crime and violence in and around the school
- A clean and healthy school environment
- Gender issues taken seriously
- Parents and community members participate in the education of the child.

The activities of the programme include a Non-Governmental Organisation - Link Community Development (LINK) – that provides training to the different stakeholders. The stakeholders include School Governing Bodies (SGBs), School Management Teams (SMTs), educators (as part of SGBs or SMTs) and Representative Councils of Learners (RCLs). They attend workshops where they are introduced to the CFS vision of schools (characterised by the six features already outlined). They are supplied with documents - such as implementation guidelines and a workbook to use in the implementation of the programme. The NGO visits the schools after workshops are held to check on the progress of the implementation.

This is how the programme was implemented in Limpopo. Seventy-five secondary schools were selected by the Limpopo government of education and LINK. The targeted schools were schools that were marred by violence, vandalism, poor academic performance and inadequate resources. Before implementation, a base line study was conducted by LINK (2008). The purpose of the baseline study was to determine the extent to which the 75 schools can be referred to as learner friendly or not. The study looked at the schools using the six characteristics of a friendly school, as listed in the previous section. The findings of the baseline study revealed that schools were hostile environments where learners faced discouragements and obstacles. For example, just to take three of the ideal characteristics, in being rights-based, 65 schools were still excluding physically disabled learners; in school effectiveness, 72 schools needed to improve their management practices and development of policies; and in being safe, protective and caring schools, learners did not feel safe moving between home and school.

The study was followed by workshops that targeted some of the stakeholders involved in the education of the children. These were the principals, School Governing Bodies (SGBs), educators, School Management Teams (SMTs), and Representative Councils of Learners (RCLs). The workshops were guided by the findings of the baseline study and focused on how CFS should be implemented in schools, emphasising the six features of CFS. After the workshops they were expected to go and implement the CFS programme.

Once implemented in these 75 schools, the programme is supposed to be rolled out to all the schools in the province. The plan is to try to make all schools 'friendly' to learners. Furthermore, there are initiatives to involve universities in the area in the implementation of the CFS programme and they are expected to include the CFS elements in their teacher training programmes.

The logic model of the programme

Causal theory		Intervention theory	Outcomes→	
↓	↓	↓	↓	
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1. Schools not being rights based and exclusive 2. Schools not being academically effective 3. Schools not safe, unprotected and not caring 4. Schools not health-promoting and health-seeking 5. Schools not gender sensitive and do not promote equity and equality 6. Schools not building partnerships with stakeholders outside the school	Poor quality education	**CFS programme** 1. Training stakeholders on rights of learners and inclusivity in schools 2. Training stakeholders on effective approaches in teaching 3. Training stakeholders on issues of safety, protection and caring school 4. Training stakeholders on issues of health in schools 5. Training stakeholders on issues of gender and equity 1. Training stakeholders in building partnerships with other stakeholders outside the school.	1. Stakeholders gain knowledge on issues of rights and inclusivity 2. Stakeholders gain knowledge on how to make schools effective 3. Stakeholders gain knowledge on what to do to make schools safe, protective and caring 4. Stakeholders gain knowledge on issues of health promoting and health seeking school 5. Stakeholders gain knowledge on being gender sensitive what to do to promote equity and equality 6. Stakeholders gain knowledge on what to do to build partnership with stakeholders outside the school	1. Schools include the rights of learners in whatever they do and are inclusive 2. Schools teach in an effective way 3. Schools are safe, protective and caring 4. Schools become health promoting and health seeking 5. Schools are gender-sensitive and promote equity and equality 6. Schools build partnerships with stakeholders outside the school like parents, business and NGOs.

Figure 4.3 The logic model of the CFS Programme as developed by the author

Explanation of the logic model

Cause: Schools that are not friendly as a result of not being rights based and inclusive, not academically effective, not safe, unprotected and not caring, not health-promoting and health-seeking, not gender sensitive and do not promote equity and equality and do not build partnerships with stakeholders outside the school.

Problem: Poor quality education

Treatment: CFS

Activities:

> NGO provides training to the stakeholders on the following:
>
> The rights of learners and inclusivity in schools
>
> Effective approaches in teaching
>
> Safety, protection and caring school
>
> Health issues
>
> Gender and equity and equality
>
> Building partnerships with other stakeholders outside the school
>
> NGO provides documents like implementation guidelines and work books to the stakeholders
>
> NGO visits schools to check the implementation
>
> Feeder schools (primary schools near the participating schools were also visited

Skills: Stakeholders gain knowledge in making schools friendly using the six features

Implement: Schools implement the features as they strive towards making schools friendly.

Indicators:

A right-based and inclusive school

> Out of school children identified and enrolled in school
>
> The school has information about orphans, vulnerable children and child headed household

An effective school is characterised by:

Percentage of time spent on learning and teaching

Percentage of classrooms with quality furniture

Frequency of management and staff meetings, per quarter

Educator/learner contact time

Pass rates of learners

A safe, protective and supportive school is characterised by:

Number of disciplinary hearings related to violent incidents held

Number of educators participating in awareness and training programmes to promote

safety, security and protection

Distance from school that learners have to walk

School fencing in place

Number of incidents of drugs, alcohol, theft, bullying, etc.

Health-promoting and health-seeking school is characterised by:

Availability of sick bay/area in the school

First aid kit available

Safe water sources available on school premises

Appropriate waste storage facilities on school premises

Number of learners accessing nutrition or school feeding programmes

Number of cases of learners or educators smoking on school premises

A gender sensitive and gender promoting school is characterised by:

Number and percentage of learners enrolled in mathematics and sciences by gender

Matric scores by gender

Drop-rates of girls and boys

Number of educators by gender

Number of learner pregnancies reported annually

Number of pregnant girls assisted to stay in and/or return to school

A partnership building school is characterised by:

Number of parent/educator meetings

Number of home visits by educators/school staff

Number of meetings with community based organisations, local businesses

Number of professional/social events on school grounds

Number of training and capacity development activities for SGB members and community members

Outcome: Improved quality of education

A discussion of the theory of change

The theory of change is that if schools implement the six features of CFS as outlined, they will change from being hostile and unfriendly to learners and become friendly. That will lead to a situation where schools provide quality education which will result in increased access, retention, completion and learning achievement.

The status of the programme as of now

To date, however, only the selected 75 schools are implementing the CFS programme. The intention is still to roll the programme out to other schools later.

4.4 Conclusion

Our review of international initiatives showed that there are various approaches being used to deal with issues of safety and security in schools. Shaw (2001:21) outlines some of them that emphasise school safety. School safety is linked with the needs of victims and perpetrators, and is a shift from a punitive focus on the perpetrators of violence only to proactive approaches. There is an emphasis on school-community partnerships, targeting of schools that are regarded as at-risk schools, involving young people in the design and the assessment of the programmes, as well as gender-sensitive programmes.

From the reviewed programmes, a typology with three dimensions was developed.

- Programmes categorised according to the main stakeholders, like multiple stakeholders versus single stakeholder groups
- Programmes categorised according to site, whether they are in-school, community-based or family-based
- Programmes categorised in terms of the nature of intervention, for example, the use of mentors and peer-mediation.

Both the SSP and the Child Friendly Programme are school-based programmes involving different stakeholders (principals, teachers, SGBs, RCLs, Department of Education officials and programme coordinators). They do not use mentors or peer-mediation.

Another categorisation of programmes is the distinction of programmes in terms of what they want to achieve. For example, programmes can either be preventative, interventions ("treatment") or suppressive ("moderator"). The SSP and the CFS Programme can be classified as intervention programmes because as already indicated, they aim to make schools better places for learners and target unsafe schools.

Volokh and Snell (1998) categorise programmes in terms of **changing the physical environment of the school**, **improving the social environment** or those that are **curriculum-based programmes** that are meant to equip learners with skills in dealing with violence at school. Changing the physical environment of the school involves the installation of metal detectors and employing security guards whereas improving the social environment of the school involves after-school sports and hobby programmes. School programmes which may be developed to focus on the perpetrators of violence include anger management, conflict resolution, peer-mediation and anti-bullying. According to the Australian Department of Education and Training (2006), a mixture of these approaches may be referred to as the whole-school approach to issues of safety and security in schools. The SSP seems to put most emphasis on changing the physical environment whereas CFS Programme focuses on the physical environment, the social environment and the curriculum.

Recent proposals in South Africa (Govender, 2006; Mkhondo, 2006 and Botha, 2006) are meant to use the whole-school approach in addressing issues of safety and security in schools. The CFS, as has been highlighted, is meant to use the whole-school approach in dealing with issues of safety. Instead of focusing on safety and security only, it also looks at the other aspects as well. Hence its emphasis on the six features as indicated.

The chapter outlined international experiences of safe school programmes (the initiatives, problems, aims and targets, goals), the typology of interventions and lessons for South Africa on the issues of safety in schools. It also provided an overview of the SSP and CFS programme in South Africa, and their action plans. The following chapter focuses on the evaluation methodology of the implementation of the SSP and CFS Programme.

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CHAPTER 5

EVALUATION METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

5.1   Introduction

Different evaluation studies use different research approaches depending on the nature, purpose and questions of the study. Since this study assessed the implementation of the SSP (SSP and CFS Programme) at schools in their natural settings, and needed to provide a holistic understanding of the implementation process using Stake's responsive approach, a qualitative approach using a case study design was adopted. The case study design was adopted following Stake's Evaluation Procedure (Stake's original evaluative clock) outlined in Chapter 2.

Stake's Evaluation Procedure (Stake's original evaluative clock) emerged as a result of his experiences in the use of standards-based evaluation in a context of curriculum development and professional training (2004a:103). He realised that standard-based evaluation did not yield much success, which prompted him to focus on the issue of evaluation methods. He also came to find value in getting acquainted with the operations of the programmes that need to be evaluated, to collect both qualitative and quantitative data, to rely on his personal interpretation of quality and to present reports in ways that engaged the experiences and values of the readers. In the process, he developed steps that evaluators should follow in evaluating a programme. The steps known as "Responsive Clock" are as presented in Chapter 2 in page 31 above.

5.2   Evaluation Procedure (Stake's original evaluative clock)

The "Clock" as already outlined in Chapter 2, has 12 steps presented in the form of clock. In this study, the steps as outlined were slightly modified as well as reduced from 12 to 6 steps. The modification was done due to the nature and context of this study. For example, in this study, I could not select observers or judges because the study did not involve other observers and judges. I also realised that, some of the activities could be combined, as in the case of data analysis and validation of the study. Furthermore, the modification was done in line with Stake's advice - that evaluators should not rigidly follow the "Clock". The evaluator can modify the "Clock" as the situation demands.

> *"I know that some of you would remind me that a clock moves clock-wise, so I hurry to say that this clock moves clockwise and counter-clockwise and cross-clockwise." In other words, any event can follow any event. Furthermore, many events occur simultaneously, and the evaluator returns to many events many times before the evaluation ends"* Stake, 2004a:103.

The 12 steps in the "Clock" were reduced to six steps. The reduced steps are presented as follows:

- Stakeholder audience identification, consultation and issues exploration
- Stakeholder concerns and issues analysis
- Identification of evaluative standards and criteria
- Designing and implementing evaluation methodology
- Data analysis and validation
- Reporting.

Below are the details of the manner in which each of the steps have been used. Steps on data analysis and validation and reporting are outlined in Chapters 6 and 7 respectively.

5.3   Stakeholder identification, consultation issues exploration

Before starting with the fieldwork, several stakeholder groupings were identified as having an interest in the safety of the learners at schools. The following groups were identified: School Governing Bodies (SGBs), principals, teachers, learners, government officials responsible for the implementation of the SSP, LINK (the NGO responsible for the implementation of CFS programme), members of the community, and the police, nurses and social workers working the identified schools. Some of the stakeholders, especially government officials, SGBs,

principals, teachers and learners, raised concerns and issues about the implementation of the SSP and the CFS programme.

The identification of stakeholders was done through preliminary interviews with some of the officials in the Department of Education who were supposed to have implemented the SSP. Stakeholders in the CFS were identified through interviews with the stakeholders in the SSP. The purpose of the initial contact with the stakeholders was to identify concerns and issues in the implementation of the SSP.

5.4   Stakeholder concerns and issues

Responsive evaluation involves using stakeholder concerns and issues as advance organisers. Their concerns become the structure around which to organise the study. In this respect Stake (2004a:101) writes the following: *"To be responsive, the study is organized partly around stakeholder concerns. It is common for experiential input from staff and stakeholders to come in early and throughout the evaluation period."* In this study, concerns and issues were raised by some of the stakeholders about the implementation of the SSP. The concerns and issues were raised between February 2007 to June 2008 as I met some of the officials in the Department of Education responsible for implementing the programme in their offices and others in the corridors. This happened during my preliminary interviews and initial contact with the stakeholders in the Department of Education.

Concerns raised on the SSP include: (a) poor planning of the implementation of the SSP, (b) lack of proper training for the staff who are to implement the programme, (c) mismanagement of resources by some of the staff members, (d) lack of clear guidelines on the implementation of the programme and (e) lack of commitment to the programme by school-based managers.

After investigating the implementation of the SSP between May 2010 to June 2011 along the lines of the concerns and issues raised, I discovered that there had been no implementation of the programme at all. In response to these findings, and in line with responsive evaluation approach, I then included the CFS programme. I also did this because, as indicated, some of the stakeholders referred to the CFS programme during the SSP interviews.

In August 2011, I started with school visits focusing on the CFS programme. The CFS programme is coordinated by an NGO called LINK. Concerns and issues raised about the CFS programme include a lack of resources (finances, water, laboratories, libraries and halls, insufficient toilets), classroom overcrowding, lack of support from the government, and some of members of the community and some of the learners. The school visits for the CFS programme ended in October 2011. As a result of the shift from the SSP to CFS programme, the study ended up using Stake's approach to evaluate the implementation of two different school intervention programmes. The timeline for the whole study is presented below.

5.5   Evaluation standards and criteria

It was the intention of the researcher to establish evaluative standards and criteria that could be used to evaluate the implementation of the SSP. Standards and criteria could not be established because when talking to the participants during formal and informal interview sessions, they indicated there had been no implementation of the programme in the schools. Instead, they disclosed what they thought would be useful for evaluating its implementation. Evaluative standards and criteria were established in CFS schools; that is schools H, I and J. Details on this are outlined in Chapter 8 which presents the findings of the study.

The concerns and issues raised by the stakeholders, together with documents such as the Department of Education and UNICEF Implementation Guidelines (2008), provided the evaluator with the basis of a set of standards and criteria. The stakeholders all referred to the criteria and standards that had been presented to them in the implementation guidelines during the training workshops. The standards and criteria as taken from the Implementation Department of Education and UNICEF guidelines (2008) are summarised as follows:

Table 5.1 Standards and criteria for safe schools

Feature	Standard	Criteria
A rights-based and inclusive school	Equal access to enrolment in school for all children	School population profiles by age, gender, disability, orphan status
		Number of children from child-headed families
An effective school	Adequate numbers of staff	Educator/learner ratio
	Motivated staff	Staff volunteering to do extra work
	Curriculum understood and appropriately implemented	Number of curriculum workshops
	Learning Achievement improved	Relevant and adequate learning materials per learner
		Pass rates of learners
A safe, protective and supportive school	Disciplinary mechanisms in place and functioning effectively	Number of disciplinary hearings related to violent incidents held
		Number of suspensions or expulsions
		Number of cases of violence
	Awareness and prevention of crime and violence in and around the school	Educators participating in awareness and training programmes to promote safety, security and protection
	Safety on school premises	Number of buildings with minimum safety requirements on school premises
		School fencing in place
		Number of incidents of drugs, alcohol, theft, bullying, discrimination, physical and sexual violence at school
A health-promoting and health-seeking school	Health needs of the whole school community are addressed and support networks for the wellbeing of learners and educators are established	Number of learners and educators identified and provided with support for special health needs
		Availability of sick bay/area in the school
		Access to counselling services
		Number of first aid kits available and fully stocked
		Functional school-based support team in place
	Focus on HIV/AIDS	

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	A clean and healthy school environment	Number of orphans and vulnerable children identified by the school
		Number of sanitation facilities for boys and girls
		Number of hand washing facilities for boys and girls
		Safe water sources available on school premises
		Number of non-hazardous recreation facilities
	School-based nutrition programmes are in place and appropriately implemented and accessed	Appropriate waste storage facilities on school premises
		Number of learners accessing nutrition or school feeding programmes
A gender sensitive and gender promoting school	The education environment is inclusive, gender responsive and gender sensitive	Number of educators by gender
		Drop-out rates of girls and boys
		Number of educators trained in gender issues
	Gender issues are taken seriously	Number of learner pregnancies reported
		Number of pregnant girls assisted to stay in and/or return to school
		Number of cases against educators and learners of sexual and gender-based violence reported and addressed
		Number of referrals made to the police and other support structures for victims or survivors of violence
A partnership-building school	Parents and community members participate and there are strategic partnerships established with the school	Number of parent/educator meetings
		Number of home visits by educators/school staff
		Number of meetings with community based organisations, local businesses, etc.
		Number of professional/social events on school grounds
		Number of training and capacity development activities for SGB members and community members

5.6   Research design

Since the focus in this study was on implementation evaluation, a responsive evaluation approach using a case study design was adopted. The design was adopted because as Herman et al. (1987:22), Greene in Denzin and Lincoln (1998:388) and Stake (2004a:96) indicate it is suitable for evaluation studies that focus on programme implementation and delivery.

5.6.1   Case study design

Qualitative case study is an approach that allows for the exploration of the phenomenon in its context and where the researcher uses a variety of data sources. The phenomenon is explored from different angles with the purpose of gaining an in-depth understanding of the cases. Stake (1995a:xi) explains it as *"the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances"*.

In this study, the case study design helped in capturing the views and interests of different stakeholders. It also helped to probe in some depth the issues and concerns about the programme that stakeholders raised, while being flexible and responsive to the programme conditions, as Stake in Dockrell and Hamilton (1980:85; 2004a:94) advocates.

5.6.1.1 Types of case studies

Stake (1995a:3) distinguishes between different kinds of case studies: *"Intrinsic Case Study"*, *"Instrumental Case Study"* and *"Collective Case Study"*.

Stake (1995a, 2000a), uses the term *"Intrinsic Case Study"* for situations where the researcher undertakes the study because out of a genuine interest in the case. The study is not undertaken because it is a good representative of other cases, but because it is of interest to the researcher.

In an *"Instrumental Case Study"* the case is used to accomplish other things than just to get an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon. The case itself is not of primary importance but is used to help us understand other things better. The case may or may not be typical of other cases. As Stake (1995a:3) indicates, the study is done in order to provide a general understanding of the phenomenon by using a particular case.

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According to Stake (1995a) collective case studies are done where several cases are chosen for the study. Stake (1995a:3-4) explains it when he writes that:

> *In the same situation, we may feel that we should choose several teachers to study rather than just one. Or we might choose to use schools as our cases and choose several schools. Each case study is instrumental to learning about the effects of the marking regulations but there will be important coordination between the individual studies. We may call the work collective case study.*

In other words, a collective case study may also be explained as an extension of an instrumental case study in order to have a better understanding of the phenomenon. Stake (2000a:437) explicates further: *"With even less intrinsic interest in one particular case, a researcher may jointly study a number of cases in order to investigate a phenomenon, population, or general condition... It is instrumental study extended to several cases."*

In this study, an instrumental case study design was used because, as reflected in Chapter 1, the implementation evaluation of the SSP and CFS Programme was also meant to provide information that would contribute towards policy formulation in the programme implementation.

5.6.1.2 The aims of a case study

Stake (1995a:8) as indicated in Chapter 2, summarises the aims of the case study by writing that

> *The real business of case study is particularization, not generalization. We take a particular case and come to know it well, not primarily as to how it is different from others but what it is, what it does. There is emphasis on uniqueness, and that implies knowledge of others that the case is different from, but the emphasis is on understanding the case itself.*

Case studies are meant to generate an in-depth understanding of a single or small number of cases. Furthermore, they also focus on the uniqueness of a case and the lessons that can be learnt from a case. In this study, case study helped me to obtain an in-depth understanding of the implementation of SSP and CFS programme at the secondary schools in Limpopo. It also facilitated my interactions with the participants in the field.

5.6.1.3 Generalisation in case studies

Unlike quantitative designs, case studies do not put much emphasis on being able to generalise a study to the wider population in traditional notion of generalizability. There is, however, another kind of generalisation which Stake (1978; 1995a; 2004a) and Stake and

Trumbull (in Belok and Haggerson, 1982) refer to as naturalistic generalisation. This is a concept which was introduced by Stake and was discussed in Chapter 2 earlier. In Stake (1995a)'s view, these are conclusions that readers arrive at through their personal experiences or by what he refers to as vicarious experiences that have been so well constructed that people feel as if it happened to them. The reader, based on what the writer is presenting, is able to generalise this to other situations. Thick description has been presented in this study with the hope that it will help the reader to reach naturalistic generalisation.

5.6.1.4 Advantages of a case study in programme evaluation

Shaw (1999:135) summarises the advantages of case studies in evaluation thus:

> *Case studies are flexible and multi-purpose. They may be descriptive, exploring and providing portraits of little known entities. They may also be selective, pursuing more richly detailed accounts of process at work. They may also be designed to achieve a form of experimental isolation of selected social factors within real life context.*

In his 1978 paper Stake emphasises the importance of case studies. His comment was that *"case studies are useful in the study of human affairs because they are down-to-earth and attention-holding"*. In other words, this is a kind of a design that helps the evaluator to interact with the participants in the study. It also helps the evaluator to observe things as they happen naturally without some kind of manipulation.

Stake (1978:5) also argued that case studies are important because through them the writer can enhance the understanding of the readers *"by approximating through the words and illustrations of our reports, the natural experience acquired in ordinary personal involvement"*. The natural experience that the evaluator gains from the setting helps him/her to give a thick description in the report.

Unlike other designs, case studies are most helpful in gaining experiential knowledge. The evaluator reports on what he/she has experienced and gains an insight into the feelings that the stakeholders have about the programme, which makes a case study within a qualitative approach ideal for implementation evaluation.

Case studies are also important in capturing different views of the various stakeholders which, according to Stake (1995a:12), helps to give holistic picture of the programme because it also captures contradictory views.

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In Denzin and Lincoln (2000a:435), Stake adds another advantage saying that we can learn a lot from a case with *"our meager resources concentrated on trying to understand its complexities"*. So even if case studies are more time consuming, they are more helpful in conducting in-depth studies fairly inexpensively, unlike certain other designs.

5.6.1.5 Disadvantages of a case study in programme evaluation

Despite the advantages that case study design has in programme evaluation, it has certain disadvantages as well. For Stake (1978:6) the following are some limitations: *"When explanation, propositional knowledge, and law are the aims of an inquiry, the case study will often be at a disadvantage."* This highlights the limitations of a case study approach in situations where there is a need to confirm or disconfirm hypothesis.

Stake (1978:7) also pointed out that it is also *"seen to be a poor basis for generalization"*, especially when seen from the traditional notion of generalisation. In terms of the traditional notion of generalisation, case studies are not very helpful as the participants in the study do not necessarily represent the population.

In 2004, Stake (2004a:200-201) notes that others criticize the case study for being impressionistic and unscientific. This criticism is based on the unstructured approach of case studies, unlike the traditional experimental forms of evaluation.

It should, however, be pointed out that the use of the responsive evaluation approach in programme evaluation does not necessarily mean that one should use a qualitative case study design. The use of a qualitative case study design is informed by several factors. This becomes explicit when Stake (2004a:96) writes that:

> *Case study, with the evaluand as the case and the description of experience as the process, became my preferred way of portraying the activity, the issues, the personal relationships and performances that reveal program quality. Not all who have a predilection for responsive evaluation use a case study format. Many evaluators do their work responsively without calling it that. And some who call their work responsive are not responsive in the same ways I am.*

In this study, the use of a qualitative case study design was informed by the research question: **How are the Safer Schools Programmes implemented at the Secondary Schools of the Limpopo Province of South Africa?** This helped me to understand the phenomenon (programme implementation) and the interpretation of meanings within their context and

through the eyes of various participants in the study. It also helped, as Stake (1995a:12) indicates, in capturing different views of the stakeholders in the programme. This was done by being open and flexible in accommodating the different points of view of the stakeholders in the Safe School Programme and CFS programme.

5.7   Methodology

Greene in Denzin and Lincoln (1998:375) indicates that evaluation methodologies constitute frameworks of philosophical assumptions which the evaluator might hold about the world, knowledge and ethics amongst other things. These philosophical assumptions have an influence on the methods which the researcher chooses to use in the study, even though Greene in Denzin and Lincoln (1998:398) say that other authors like Patton argue that the choice of methods should also be influenced by the information needs of the users of evaluation. Silverman (2000:79) summarises these frameworks of philosophical assumptions by stating that in social science research they are broadly classified into two categories, which are the quantitative and qualitative approaches.

The choice of the evaluation methodology in this study was influenced by the needs of the stakeholders (as per Stake, 2004a:94) in the implementation of SSP and the CFS programme in the Limpopo Province. They raised issues and concerns about the implementation of the SSP and CFS Programme. As indicated earlier, these issues included poor planning, lack of proper training for the staff members who were supposed to implement the programme, mismanagement of resources by some of the staff members, a lack of clear guidelines on the implementation of the programme and a lack of commitment to the programme by the school-based managers.

In this study then, a predominantly qualitative methodology - embedded in Stake's responsive evaluation framework - was adopted. This is a framework which even though is predominantly qualitative, does incorporate quantitative methods. Stake (2004a:94), expresses his views on this when he writes that:

> *There is a common misunderstanding that responsive evaluation requires naturalistic inquiry, case study, or qualitative methods. Not so… Evaluation method depends largely on the situation. For it to be a good responsive evaluation, the methods need to accommodate to the "here and now" serving the evaluation needs of the stakeholders at hand.*

I adopted this approach as it helped me interact with the participants in their natural setting and enabled me to describe and understand the programmes through their eyes. It also helped me to get a sense of their feelings about the implementation of the programme, and also in collecting numeric data, like the number of educators and learners in schools.

5.8 The research site

5.8.1 Limpopo Province

This study was conducted in the Limpopo Province of South Africa. The province has five districts which are known as Mopani, Vhembe, Capricorn, Waterberg and Greater Sekhukhune. The five municipal districts are subdivided into 24 local municipalities which are Aganang, Blouberg, Lepelle Nkumpi, Molemole, Polokwane, Baphalaborwa, Giyani, Letaba, Tzaneen, Greater Marble Hall, Elias Motsoaledi, Makhuduthamaga, Fetakgomo, Greater Tubatse, Makhado, Musina, Mutale, Thulamela, Belabela, Lephalale, Mogalakwena, Naboomspruit and Thabazimbi. According to the Wikipedia, it has an area of 123.910 km^2. The total population is 5,238,286. It is composed of Black Africans, Whites, Coloureds and Indians or Asians. The languages spoken in the province are Northern Sotho, Xitsonga, Tshivenda, Afrikaans and isiNdebele. It shares international borders with Botswana, Zimbabwe and Mozambique.

Despite the minerals that it has, Limpopo is one of the poorest provinces in South Africa. Due to the economic situation in the province, most of people who are parents of the learners in the province's schools work in other provinces like Gauteng. This is more prevalent in the rural areas. As a result some of the families are headed by older learners who are expected to take care of their younger brothers and sisters.

5.8.2 The setting

Stake (2004a:173) highlights that the context of the evaluation is expected *"to amplify the meaning of program operations and the range of real but problematic outcomes"*. This implies that, as Patton (1987b:83-84) indicates, in programme evaluation it is helpful to explain the setting in as much detail as possible in order to highlight the environment in which the programme was implemented. In this study, ten schools were selected as the setting for the study. Seven for the SSP and three for the CFS Programme. For ethical reasons, the selected schools have been designated school A, school B, school C, school D, school E, school F, school G, school H, school I and school J. These schools were identified as having

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the highest prevalence of crime. The schools are situated in the Capricorn District and Waterberg District of the Limpopo Province. For details on the location of the schools (See Figure 5.1).
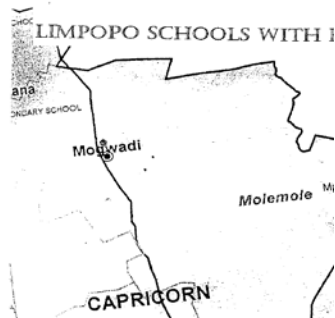
Figure 5.1 Limpopo schools with highest prevalence of crime

5.9   Selection of cases

Case selection in qualitative studies is different from statistical sampling. In line with Stake's (1995a:8) advice, a purposive selection strategy was adopted. This is a strategy which as

Stake (1995a:8) recommends allowed me to choose the cases (schools) that were the best for getting the required data and also *hospitable* to my study. Other principles of convenience selection were also employed in the sense that the chosen schools were easy to access because the participants were familiar with the researcher. They met the researcher when he was doing another study, also in the Limpopo province. Moreover, some of the schools were not far from where the researcher works.

The study was done in two phases. The first phase focused on the SSP. Preliminary findings revealed that there was no implementation of the SSP. Details on this are outlined in the chapter on the findings of the study. Lack of implementation led to some methodological and empirical problems because the study was to look at the use of responsive evaluation approach in the evaluation of a programme that was being implemented. Furthermore, it was confusing when some stakeholders consistently referred to the CFS Programme while being interviewed on the SSP. Experiences as outlined led to the phase 2 of the study which focused on the evaluation of the CFS programme.

Phase 1

Phase 1 focused on the SSP in seven schools in the Capricorn District of the Limpopo Province. School A is 104 kilometers in the southern side of Polokwane whereas school B is located 9 kilometres away in the western side of the city. School C is 74 kilometres from Polokwane in the south. School D is in the south eastern side 68 kilometres from the city. School E is 22 kilometres away from Polokwane. It is located in the east. School F is in the western side of Polokwane 105 kilometers away, whereas School G is 16 kilometres away from the city, also situated on the western side. The school furthest from Polokwane is 105 kilometres away.

All the schools except school C were easily accessible by tarred road. School C is only accessible by a gravel road that has potholes. However, it was included in the study because of its location and the potential it had for answering the research question.

Phase 2

Phase 2 focused on the CFS programme. Three schools were selected as already indicated. Schools selected are designated schools H, I and J. School H is a school situated in the Capricorn District, 15 kilometres in the western side of Polokwane. The other two are

schools, I and J, are in the Waterberg District. School I is 60 kilometres in the southern side of Polokwane whereas school J is 110 kilometres in the southern side of Polokwane.

5.10   Data collection techniques

As indicated in Chapter 2, the most appropriate research methods for responsive evaluation using a case study approach are observation, interviewing and documents. Guba and Lincoln (1981:xxi), refer to them as *"the backbone of naturalistic research and evaluation"*. These three methods of data collection (observation, interviewing and document analysis) were used in both phase 1 and phase 2 and helped in triangulating the data collected.

5.10.1 Observation

Observation is regarded as a very important method in responsive evaluation. This is reflected in the various papers written by Stake in 1970. In 2004, Stake (2004a:92, 98) refers to it as *"the modus operandi"* in programme evaluation using the responsive approach. As Stake (1995a) indicates, it helped me to see what was happening in the setting and to describe the context in detail as reflected in Chapter 6 and Chapter 7. Through observation I was able to see what is happening in schools in terms of the implementation. I was able to see whether the programmes are being implemented or not. Details of the manner in which observation was used in both phases are reflected below.

Phase 1

Observation for SSP was done between May 2010 and September 2010, when I visited each of the seven schools twice for observation. Each visit was an hour. Observations were conducted with the aid of an observation schedule to ensure that relevant data were collected. For the schedule, see Appendix A.

Phase 2

For CFS observations were conducted between August 2011 and October 2011. Two visits were made to schools H and I, each of an hour, observing the implementation of the CFS programme. School J was only visited once, due to time constraints. In trying to ensure that relevant data was captured during observation, the same observation schedule used in phase 1 was also used in phase 2.

5.10.2 Interviewing

As a result of the observation done in schools in both phase 1 and phase 2 there were other issues that arose which were not clear to me. The issues that arose included whether the programme was in fact being implemented or not, the involvement of different stakeholders, their understanding of the programme and contextual factors that had an influence on the implementation of the Safe School Programme. They also included issues like the manner in which they cope with challenges in the implementation of the programme, how decisions were taken, their acceptance of the policy guidelines and the criteria which they used to judge whether the programme was being well implemented, if at all.

Phase 1

In order to get clarity on these issues, a specific interview technique was chosen for use in the study. Patton (1987b:109) distinguishes three kinds of qualitative interviews as the informal conversational interview, the general interview guide approach and the standardized open-ended interview. Initially, I intended to use both the informal conversational interview and the general interview guide. After interaction with the stakeholders in the field during observation, the informal conversational interview and the semi- structured interview were adopted for use in the study.

The informal conversational interview helped me to talk with the participants on different issues about the schools in general and the implementation of the SSP. This usually took place while we were moving around the school yard. This helped them to relax and relate issues that they could not talk about in a formal setting. Semi-structured interviewing helped in that I could be flexible in asking questions and following up issues that were not clear, while being guided by questions that were in the interview schedule. This saved time and kept the focus on the issues around the implementation of the SSP.

Phase 2

In phase 2, the same informal conversational interview approach and semi-structured interview were used again, capturing issues that were not clear during observations of the CFS programme.

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5.10.3 Documents

Phase 1

Various documents related to the implementation of the SSP were consulted. These include: Protecting Your School from Violence and Crime: Guidelines for Principals and School Governing Bodies; COLTS Creative Arts Initiative; Status Report for the Minister of Education; Signposts for Safe Schools: Tirisano: Enabling Safe and Effective Teaching and Learning Environments; Three-Year Plan and Budget for the No Crime in Schools Component of the COLTS Campaign; SSP; South African Schools Act (SASA) (1996); Alternatives to Corporal Punishment (2000); Regulations for safety Measures at Public Schools (2001); and Signposts for Safe Schools Workbook (2002).

Documents from schools include their vision and mission statements and policies on safety and security in schools.

Phase 2

Documents consulted on the CFS programme include: Department of Education and UNICEF Implementation Guidelines: Safe and Caring Child-Friendly Schools in South Africa, Child Friendly Schools Manual and Final Draft set of Child Friendly Schools Standards and Indicators for Teacher Education: A Synthesis and Self-evaluation Tool, Mainstreaming Child Friendly Schools (CFS) Models and Approaches in National In-service and Pre-service Teacher Education. Documents from schools include their vision and mission statements and policies on safety and security in schools and any other documents relevant to the CFS programme (for example, records of pregnant learners and lists of orphans). Details of this are reflected in Chapter 7, which focuses on the profiles of schools.

5.11   Data collection

5.11.1 Observation

5.11.1.1   Access

Phase 1

Access to the schools was not as difficult as I initially thought it might be, as I had met the principals of the schools before this study began. They knew who I was and where I worked. Initially, I wrote letters to the schools but before I could send the letters I decided to make a telephonic contact with them. During the conversations, all the schools said that they were willing to be included in the study, so the letters were then unnecessary.

After access was granted, I visited the schools to observe what was happening in terms of the implementation of the SSP. Preliminary visits to schools were done between August 2008 and February 2009. Visits for observations and interviews for the SSP were done between 26 May 2010 and 16 September 2010.

Phase 2

After preliminary findings indicated there had in fact been no implementation of the SSP, I decided look at the intervention that was being implemented - CFS. That led to the phase 2 of the study, as already indicated. Access to the three schools in phase 2 was also not difficult. This was made easier by getting help from the office of an NGO that was responsible for the implementation of the CFS programme. Visits for observations and interviews for the CFS Programme were done between 7 August 2011 and 05 October 2011.

5.11.1.2   Challenges

Phase 1

Quite a few challenges were encountered and these varied from one school to another. In school A, the first date set for the visit was 21 July 2010. This was postponed to the 27 July 2010, as the school had another engagement (going to the memorial service of one of the teachers who died in that area). The same kind of challenge happened in school G. I was supposed to have first visited the school on the 26 May 2010. Instead the visits only started on the 1 June 2010. The reason given there was that there was an invitation to the schools from the MEC for education to meet the schools to discuss strategies that would help them to improve their grade 12 results.

In schools B, D, E and F the challenges were related to getting the members of the School Governing Bodies (SGBs) to the schools. Members of the SGBs were reluctant to go to the schools because they were not that committed to their work and hardly visit the schools. In school C, there were no challenges.

Phase 2

In schools I and J the challenges related to getting members of the SGB to schools. This was, as already indicated, because members of the SGB were not willing to come to the schools. Another challenge, especially in school J, was communication. The telephone line was

constantly engaged. This was resolved by getting the principal's cellphone number. School H was different. Members of the SGB came and were willing to talk during interviews.

5.11.1.3   The role

There are different observer roles that a researcher can adopt during field work. Dane, (1990:158-160), Le Compte, Preissle and Tesch, (1993:93), Hammersley and Atkinson, (1995:99-109) and Clarke and Dawson (1999:79) outline them as **complete participant**, **participant-as-observer**, **observer-as-participant** and **complete observer**. In this study, the researcher adopted **participant-as-observer role**. The purpose of my visit to schools was explained to the participants in advance so that as I interacted with them they were aware of my intentions. This was done in line with Stake's advice in Denzin and Lincoln (2000a:447) when he says that *"[i]ssues of observation and reportage should be discussed in advance"*.

I entered the sites openly with the purpose clearly explained to the participants in both phases of the study. This helped me, as Clarke and Dawson (1999:79) indicate, to enter *"the social world of those engaged in programme activities in order to provide a full and detailed account of the programme"*. I was able to capture the concerns, issues, emotional reaction of the participants in the study.

Observation was used but with an awareness of its disadvantages. Clarke and Dawson (1999:81) outline these as being costly, both in terms of time and money, concern about the reliability and validity of observational data, and that it can be a potential source of bias. Stake (2004a:59) comments on the issue of bias by saying: *"Becoming a professional evaluator, or a professional of any kind with expertise in evaluation, is partly a matter of learning how to deal with bias."* Bias was one of the threats during observation.

I was also aware of the experiences of Posavic and Carey (1997:219) during observation. This helped me to be cautious when observing – to not make the participants nervous about my presence. This was done to avoid provoking the participants in the study. Posavic and Carey summarised their experiences of this in this way:

> *The presence of observers can lead the program staff to act in guarded ways in an effort to control the impressions of the evaluator. Observers can also make staff members nervous and lower their effectiveness, as we have done when staff members had not been informed that their presentations were going to be observed.*

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In dealing with these challenges, I attempted throughout to establish rapport with the participants, during both phase 1 and phase 2, by visiting the sites before the research started. What also helped was that some of the participants, especially the principals and teachers, already knew me well. This helped me to mix freely with the participants where they raised issues during informal discussions. In school C I was even given a bag of oranges! The rapport established helped me to describe the schools in detail, as outlined in their profiles in Chapter 6, and to really see what was going on in terms of the implementation of these programmes.

Furthermore, care was taken to deal with factors which could undermine the validity and reliability of the study during observation. These, according to Guba and Lincoln (1981:147), *"include filters and selective perceptions that cause human beings to 'hear' certain things and not to hear others, to see or read into a person's actions something that is not there, or to fail to note what is clearly there"*. There was therefore a need to deal with biases and other threats to the validity and reliability of the study.

5.11.1.4   Efforts made to deal with errors and biases

In order to deal with potential sources of biases and disruptions during observation during phase 1 and phase 2 of the study, I had to adopt strategies for countering that. This was done by being as unobtrusive as possible during school activities. Even in situations where they wanted my opinion, especially on some of the issues that they felt strongly about with the Department of Education, I remained neutral, though at times the temptation was there to comment.

Furthermore, I followed Stake (2004a:60)'s advice when he writes that:

> *One initial strategy for dealing with bias is explication-that is, making everything as explicit as possible. That means getting it down on paper or up on the screen so it can be circulated, scrutinized, and wrung out. It means taking great care to define terms and operations. It means to try out data gathering in advance and to open the use of instruments and protocols to critical review. It means to be objective, allowing the least influence of personal preference.*

As indicated, my presence in the setting was made explicit to the participants. This was done in order to make it clear to the participants that I was there as a researcher. The other strategy was to present myself to them as a colleague and not an expert who knew everything. This

helped the participants to feel free to talk to me and confident in raising issues. Where they could not express themselves in English, they were free to express themselves in their mother tongue which is Northern Sotho. In some cases they used a mixture of English and their mother tongue to express themselves in both phases of the study.

I also tried to avoid actions that were likely to be disruptive, like answering a cellphone during conversation. I also had to be presentable and use a language that they were comfortable with. The experiences differed from one stakeholder grouping to the other since teachers and principals were comfortable with English, whereas others, especially the learners and the SGB members, were more comfortable with their mother tongue which is Northern Sotho.

Despite all these efforts, I cannot tell with certainty that my being present in the setting did not affect the data. It is possible that there might have been certain reactions that I did not notice during observation.

5.11.2 Interviewing

Phase 1

The use of observation as a method of data collection did not answer all the questions about the implementation of the SSP. During observation, I noticed that all schools had been fenced, as reflected in their profiles, and had gates that restricted access. Some schools, like school A, C, F, also had signs indicating items that are not allowed in the school yard, whereas schools B, E, D and G did not have signs. That raised questions that remained unanswered, even during informal conversations that I had with the participants in the study. As a way of getting answers to the unanswered questions, a semi-structured interview technique was adopted.

Phase 2

All the schools (Schools H, I and J) in the CFS programme had signs up showing items that were forbidden on school property. That raised questions that remained unanswered. In trying to get answers to the unanswered questions, a semi-structured interview was adopted.

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5.11.2.1   Semi-structured interview

Lack of answers from direct observation and informal conversation with the participants on some of the issues in both phase 1 and phase 2 of the study, led me to look for a technique that would be flexible but also focused on the questions that should be answered. That led to the use of the semi-structured interviews. Such interviews allowed me to introduce the topic and ask probing questions, as Rubin and Rubin (1995:5), Kvale (1996:124), Clarke and Dawson (1999:72), Arksey and Knight (1999:97) note. It was possible to pose follow-up questions where the responses needed more explanation. It also helped in terms of flexibility in the sense that the researcher did not stick to the sequence of questions as outlined in the interview guide.

Care was taken to deal with weaknesses inherent in using this method. Among other weaknesses which the researcher had to deal with are those outlined by Guba and Lincoln (1981:187-188) when they write:

> *Weaknesses in interviewing include its inefficiency and cost, although it does provide the richest information per unit of time invested. The materials are difficult or impossible to pretest (unless one is using a highly structured interview with pre-developed protocols). The results are unpredictable and may be non-aggregatable or nonequivalent over several interviews.... Nevertheless, interviews are difficult to replicate, since the data collection device is a human being, and the technique is also highly vulnerable to interview bias. The interviewer can influence the outcome of the interview enormously through the subtle cues he transmits. While the possibility exists that the interviewer can "train" the interviewee to be a good respondent by giving him cues, it is also possible to alienate the respondent by giving him the wrong kinds of cues, sometimes unconsciously. As a result, the maintenance of interviewer-respondent rapport is problematic....*

The weaknesses were dealt with by not trying to influence the respondents in their responses to questions. This was done by only nodding as they replied, without interjecting or disturbing them. Some orientation questions were used at the beginning of the interview to allow the respondents to relax and at the same time establish a cordial relationship. Furthermore, I also used words that the participants could easily understand to maintain rapport, and avoid situations where they responded to something that they did not understand.

5.11.2.2   Selection of Interviewees

Phase 1

Initially before going into the field the intention was to interview as many of the stakeholders involved in the implementation of the SSP as possible. This was meant to provide all the

stakeholders the opportunity to raise their concerns and issues about the implementation of the SSP. After talking to some of the stakeholders, especially government officials, who raised their concerns about its implementation at the school level, I decided to select stakeholders who were based in the schools, as they are regarded as the recipients of the programme. That included the principals, school governing bodies (SGBs), teachers responsible for safety in schools and Representatives of Learner Councils (RCLs). These stakeholders were selected because it was thought that they would shed more light on the implementation of the Safe School Programme at the school level. Other stakeholders initially included were the manager responsible for the Safe School Programme in the Department of Education and the deputy, as well as policy makers.

After informal conversation with the DOE manager, it emerged that there was no deputy. He coordinates the whole programme and is also involved in developing policies about the Safe School Programme provincially and nationally. Consequently, those interviewed for the study were SGBs, principals, teachers responsible for issues concerning safety in schools, RCLs and the manager responsible for the implementation of the SSP in the Department of Education. Due to time constraints, a focus group interview strategy was used when interviewing the SGBs, teachers and learners.

The selection criteria can be summarised as follows:

(i) Stakeholders who would shed more light on the implementation of the Safe School Programme

(ii) Stakeholders who held a position that had something to do with the implementation of the Safe School Programme

(iii) The managers and policy makers in the Department of Education responsible for the implementation of the Safe School Programme

(iv) Stakeholders who were willing to be interviewed.

Phase 2

Those interviewed during phase 2 of the study were the principals, school governing bodies (SGBs), school management teams (SMTs), teachers responsible for safety in schools, Representatives of Learner Councils (RCLs) and the director of an NGO called LINK that was responsible for the implementation of the CFS programme. These were all stakeholders who were recipients of the programme. Furthermore, the inclusion of SMTs in phase 2 of the

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study (which was not done in phase 1) was because they were the stakeholders who had been trained to implement the CFS programme. The director of LINK was also included because I hoped that as he was the person who coordinated the implementation process, he could shed more light on the implementation of the CFS. During phase 2 of the study, a focus group interview strategy was used to interview the SGBs, teachers and learners.

The selection criteria for phase 2 can be summarised as follows:

(i)   Stakeholders who would shed more light on the implementation of the CFS programme

(ii)   Stakeholders who held a position that had something to do with the implementation of the CFS programme

(iii)   The director of LINK, the organisation responsible for the implementation of the CFS programme

(iv)   Stakeholders who were willing to be interviewed.

5.11.2.3 The rationale for interviewing the manager and policy makers in the department and the director of LINK

Phase 1

Interviewing school-based stakeholders was the main focus in the study. But this was not sufficient because I needed to get some understanding of its coordination at government level, as well as the policy directives. I then decided to interview the managers and policy makers at the government level, which did help to get a picture of what was happening in terms of the implementation of the programme at the level of those who formulate policies.

Phase 2

During phase 2, the director of LINK was interviewed. As already indicated, this was done in order to get a broader picture about the implementation of the CFS programme in schools from someone who was not school-based.

5.11.2.4 The setting where interviews were held

Phase 1

Most of the interviews were held in the offices of the principals, except in school A where interviews were held in the store room.

Phase 2

Interviews in school H were held in a room that is used for hospitality studies. In school I some of the interviews were held in classrooms that were not being used at the time. In school J interviews were held in different places. Some were held in the principals' offices, others in a staff member's office or in the staffroom. The manager in the Department of Education and the director of LINK were both interviewed in their own offices.

5.11.2.5 The interviews

(a)   The interview schedule

Phase 1

Interview schedules helped to focus the interview sessions. They were composed of questions that were meant to get data on the implementation of the SSP. The questions were the same for all the stakeholders except that there were some variations in the interview schedule for the manager in the Department of Education. That was done so as to allow the manager to tell more about his role in the implementation of the SSP. For example, the manager had to also indicate whether the implementation was across all the schools or not. (For details of the interview schedules, see Appendices R-V.)

Phase 2

The interview questions in phase 2 of the study were slightly different from those in phase 1 of the study. The differences are due to the fact that phase 2 focused on the implementation evaluation of the CFS programme. The questions were more or less the same for the other stakeholders, except for the director of LINK. The director of LINK, like the DOE manager in the case of SSP, had to also indicate whether the implementation of the CFS programme was the same in all the schools or not. (For details of these interview schedules, see Appendices W-B2.)

Since the interview questions served only as a guide, there was a lot of flexibility during the interview sessions. As indicated, questions were not followed in the order they appeared in the schedule to allow the participants to express themselves without being channelled in any way. Follow-up questions were posed, especially on issues that were not clear and issues that were deemed relevant and important in answering the research question.

(b)   The process of interviewing

The process of interviewing resulted in many different experiences. The interaction with the participants helped to ease the tension that usually happens during interviews. The period of observation had been useful in familiarising participants with the researcher. Some of the participants started informal conversations with the researcher before starting with the formal interviews. This helped participants to relax.

Something to note, though, is that even the RCLs were more willing to talk during the interviews. They were keen to demonstrate how knowledgeable they were in terms of safety issues in their schools. Even though the participants showed interest in being interviewed, some challenges were encountered during the interviewing sessions.

(i)   Challenges encountered during interviews
         Phase 1

One of the challenges in school D was that during interviews, teachers and learners would come into the office of the principal for various reasons that ranged from looking for the principal to making photocopies on the copier in the principal's office. Another challenge in school E was when my tape recorder stopped functioning. I had to write down what the respondents were saying while listening to them.

Communication was also a challenge in most of the schools. In schools A, C D, E, F and G learners were not entirely comfortable using English but preferred their home language. In such cases I had to code switch between Northern Sotho and English. That was the same with the SGBs. In school A, the parent component in the SGB could not understand anything spoken in English and I had to ask the principal to translate the questions into Northern Sotho. In switching to Northern Sotho, I then had to help the principal to ensure that the meaning would not be lost in the process.

The communication challenges manifested themselves in different ways. Initially, the interviewees were hesitant to speak and after a while would ask me to repeat what I had said. In other cases they would say something that was not in line with the question, and in others they would indicate that they would like to speak in Northern Sotho.

The use of Northern Sotho was a challenge for me because although I could understand some of the words, others were not clear to me. In such cases I had to ask them to explain what they meant.

The manager in the Department of Education involved in policy making was more eloquent and comfortable in using English. He took time explaining how the programme started up to where it was at the time of the interview. He also talked about the different papers he had presented in conferences about safe schools nationally and internationally.

Another challenge encountered in school G was about the use of a tape recorder. The principal and the RCLs were not willing to be tape recorded. The reasons given by the principal were that a lot of journalists had visited their schools and written stories about the school which they did not like. Learners also indicated that they were not willing to be tape recorded. They were the only school that was not willing to be tape recorded. I had to listen to what they were saying and write at the same time.

Phase 2

There were not many challenges in phase 2 of the study. The only challenge encountered was in school J, when the stakeholders were uncomfortable with the use of the tape recorder. I had to write as they were talking and that took time.

(ii)   Ethical considerations during interviews

In line with Stake's (2004a:267) advice, ethical issues were taken into consideration during interviewing. The researcher was aware that interviewing involves "invading" the privacy of those who participated and did not take the access granted by the schools as permission to interview participants without their permission. I got permission from each of the participants before they were interviewed.

I also disclosed to the participants the purpose of the evaluation study at the outset of the interview and told them that they had the choice of declining the interview. I also explained that I had a tape recorder with me and what the purpose of using the tape recorder was - that it was to save time instead of listening and writing. The participants were also informed about their right to refuse to be tape recorded.

Furthermore, the other ethical issues taken into consideration related to confidentiality and anonymity. The participants were assured that the tapes would not be used for any other purpose but only for this evaluation study and that their identities (people and schools) would be kept anonymous. This was done to protect them from any possible consequences of disclosing names and places. Although, I was aware of possible benefits in disclosing the names and places, this was not as important as protecting the participants. This was in line with Stake's (2004a:269) view:

> *Anonymity of persons, places, and programs deprives audiences of potentially useful, legitimate information. They expect to tie together evaluation information with that they already have. With anonymity, more of a reader's interpretation of data will draw undesirably on stereotype. But information should not be obtained at the price of personal exposure. Privacy is often more important than additional interpretation from identities given.*

As a result, names of people and places have not been disclosed in reporting on the study. This was done to keep the promise made to the participants.

(c)   Time-scale of the interviews

Phase 1

Interviews started on 26 May 2010 and ended on 16 September 2010 for the SSP. During this period, a total number of 29 interviews were conducted in the Capricorn District of Limpopo Province. The length of the interviews was on average about 20 to 30 minutes. As a result, the transcripts are on average five pages long.

Phase 2

Interviews for phase 2 of the study, as already indicated, started on 7 August 2011 and ended on 5 October 2011. During this period a total number of 16 interviews were conducted in the Capricorn District and Waterberg District of Limpopo Province. The length of the interviews was on average about 20 to 30 minutes. The interviews resulted in an average transcript of five pages long. Only one example of a transcript has been included in the study. See Appendix C3.

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5.11.2.6   Documents

A variety of documentary materials that relate to the SSP and CFS Programme were consulted. The documents can be classified as those from the schools and those from the Department of Education.

(a)   Documents from schools

Documents from schools include school policies on safety, and the mission and the vision of the schools. They helped me to get an idea of the initiatives that the schools had taken in terms of safety issues. It should, however, be pointed out that not all the schools had what they referred to as policies on safety. For details of examples of documents referred to as policies on safety, see Appendices K, L and M.

(b)   Documents from the government

Documents from the government have already been outlined above. I had expected to get a policy document from the government about the SSP. After requesting one I was informed that there is no policy document, but that it is in the process of being developed. The only implementation policy guideline document that I found was the document from LINK that was produced by the Department of Education.

While analysing these documents, strategies were adopted to deal with the disadvantages of documents analysis in programme evaluation. These included checking the quality of records by not approaching them from the naïve understanding that one has struck the bedrock of truth (Plummer, 1983:13). Extra care was also taken to keep the materials presented confidential (Posavic and Carey, 1997:69).

5.12   Ethical considerations during the study

Due to the importance of protecting the participants from any harm that might result from the study, ethical issues were not only considered during interviews but throughout the period of the study. Stake (1998b:1), in a paper that he presented at the University of Tel Aviv, expressed its importance saying: *"The theory and practice of evaluation are of little value unless we can count on vigorous ethical behavior by evaluators."* In this study ethical consideration was given during the planning phase, during field work and during report writing.

5.12.1 Ethical considerations during the planning phase

Ethical issues were taken into consideration during the planning phase. This involved phoning the schools to request access, rather than going to the schools without permission. Telephonic requests for access were supposed to be followed up by letters, but it emerged that there was no need for letters once telephonic contact had been made, as some of the schools knew me because I had visited these schools on other projects.

During telephonic conversation I explained the purpose of the study and that they were free to choose whether to be part of the study or not. This was done as I did not want to coerce the schools into participating in the study. They had to participate on the basis of informed consent.

5.12.2 Ethical considerations during fieldwork

During fieldwork, before doing anything, I had to negotiate with the schools on how the study was going to be conducted. That involved explaining the purpose of my visit again to the participants. It was at this point that I indicated that names of schools and participants would be kept anonymous and that their responses would be kept confidential. This was done in line with Stake's (2004a:270) advice when he writes that: *"Confidentiality should be negotiated with organizations at the time of contracting, and the issue should be open for review along the way."*

During the study, informed consent was obtained from each and every participant to participate in the study, as already indicated. I avoided anything that would embarrass or harm the participants, for example, by not interjecting or showing disrespect to the participants who appeared to be digressing from the questions. The same courtesy was shown to those who took a longer time to understand the questions.

5.12.3 Ethical consideration during report writing

The anonymity and confidentiality of the participants were kept during the reporting phase of the study. Their names and the names of the schools were kept anonymous, for example, schools were given designations like A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I and J. Another ethical issue taken into consideration was how their views were presented in the report. Efforts were made not to distort their views and to present them as accurately as it is possible.

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5.12.4 Evaluation schedule

February 2007-June 2008	Informal interviews with some of the stakeholders on issues and concerns that served as advance organisers

The proposal for the study was approved in July 2008. The evaluation schedule after some revisions remained as follows:

August 2008-February 2009	Preliminary visits to schools; that involved identification of stakeholders, consultation, further exploration of concerns, issues and analysis
February 2009- March 2010	Literature that focused on Robert Stake and

his approach to responsive evaluation

April 2010	Continued with negotiating for access, stakeholder audience, identification, consultation, concerns and issues exploration and analysis
May 2010-September 2010	Designing and implementing evaluative methodology. That involved visits to schools which included: (i) Observation
	(ii) interviews
	(ii) Documents
October 2010- December 2010	Data analysis, Interpretation and validation
January 2011-June 2011	Report writing
August 2011-5 October 2011	Revisiting the schools for phase 2 CFS data collection
From 6 October 2011	Report writing

5.13   Conclusion

This chapter focused on the evaluation design and methodology using a responsive evaluation approach focusing on the implementation of the SSP. The use of the case study design has been helpful in that I was able to get a holistic picture about the implementation of the Safe School Programme and the CFS Programme in Limpopo. I was able to observe the activities in the school setting and thereafter had interviews with the different stakeholders in the study.

Stake's clock was reduced to the six steps due to the context and the nature of this study. For example, when talking to the participants during formal and informal interview sessions about the Safe School Programme, evaluation standards and criteria could not be established, because the participants indicated there had been no implementation of the programme in the schools. Instead, they highlighted what they thought could be used as criteria to evaluate its implementation. Details of this will be outlined in the chapter on findings as already indicated. Criteria were only established for the CFS Programme.

The approach helped in terms of its flexibility. After having some informal talks with some of the participants, issues developed that became advance organisers for the study. As already indicated, these issues included poor planning, lack of proper training for the staff who were supposed to implement the programme, mismanagement of resources by some of the staff members, lack of clear guidelines for the implementation of the programme and lack of commitment to the programme by school-based managers. These issues helped in the formulation of questions for the different stakeholders during interviews. Flexibility was also helpful in terms of the questions outlined in the interview schedule.

The next chapter focuses on the profiles of schools during phase 1 of the study. It also focuses on the analysis of data that was collected through interviews. Details of my experiences and lessons learnt in using responsive evaluation will be outlined in Chapter 8.

SUMMARIES, PROFILES AND RESULTS ON THE SEVEN SCHOOLS IN SSP

6.1   Introduction

This chapter presents the profiles of the seven schools selected as sites for the study in Phase 1, which focused on the SSP. The details on the rationale for selecting the schools were outlined in Chapter 5. The outline of the profiles of the schools is in line with Stake's (1995a:63; 2004a:156) emphasis on the importance of contexts when writing a report on responsive evaluation. He explains its importance when he writes:

> *To develop vicarious experiences for the reader, to give them a sense of "being there," the physical situation should be well described. The entryways, the rooms, the landscape, the hallways, its place on the map, its decor. There should be some balance between the uniqueness and the ordinariness of the place. The physical space is fundamental to meanings for most researchers and most readers.*

The school profiles are presented by firstly giving a summary table of basic information of the seven schools - the location, basic numeric and statistical data about learners and staff, and their quintile classification. Secondly, the profiles give a summary of the school resources, discipline, mission and vision statements and policies on safety and security, where these exist. The findings are then discussed by the themes that were generated during data analysis. Tables with raw data are presented as appendices. (See Appendices D4-K11).

6.2   Summary table of basic information of the seven schools

Basic information on the seven schools is presented in Table 6.1 hereunder. This is followed by a summary description of schools' profiles.

Table 6.1 Summary of basic information of the seven schools

| School | Location | | | Basic numeric and statistical data | | | | | | Quintile |
| | Geographic location | AREA (Urban/rural/ township divide) | Distance from Polokwane City (km) | Number of Teachers | | | School enrolment in 2010 | Grade 12 pass rate % | | |
				Males	Females	Total		2008	2009	
A	Southern side of Polokwane.	Rural area	104	2	5	7	109	12.5	34.8	2
B	Western side of Polokwane.	Township	9	15	25	40	870	56	51	2
C	Southern side of Polokwane.	Rural area	74	9	11	20	591	58.5	71.2	2
D	South-eastern side of Polokwane.	Township	68	6	4	10	307	87.5	68	3
E	Eastern side of Polokwane	Rural area	22	5	10	15	221	80	58.5	2
F	Western side of Polokwane	Rural area	106	4	5	9	305	91	79.4	2
G	Western side of Polokwane	Semi-rural area	16	10	14	24	544	62	64	2

6.3   Information on school resources, school vision and mission, discipline and policies on safety and security

This section discuses resources, vision and mission statements, discipline in schools and policies on safety and security, where they exist. The importance of the inclusion of the schools' profiles in the study is that they have a bearing on the safety and security of learners in schools. They also highlight the context in which the study was conducted.

6.3.1. School A

School resources and facilities

The school does not have enough facilities. It has four blocks of classrooms; one of which is used as a staff room. The other three are used for teaching and learning and one of the classes has been turned into a store room. There is no sports ground and no electricity. (The electricity was cut off due to the high number of illegal connections that were made by households living close to the school.) There is no running water at the school. The borehole that was used to supply water has stopped functioning because of the lack of electricity. There are no toilets. Learners and educators relieve themselves in the bushes around the school. Like many schools in quintile 2 in the province, and probably in the entire country, school A has no library and no laboratory. The school has a security fence with the gate, but there is no security guard at the gate. When visitors visit the school, learners are responsible for opening and closing the gate. They are expected to leave their classes to go and open or close the gate. The school has a feeding scheme and the food is stored in a classroom that has been turned into a storeroom.

Vision and mission statement

The school has a vision and a mission statement. School A's vision statement focuses on offering quality tuition to the learners and caring for all its stakeholders, including the learners. The vision seems to imply that there is an aspect of safety and security. The mission statement does not mention the learners, however. Looking at the vision and mission statement, it would seem that there is no link between these statements and what happens in the school, especially discipline. The statements seem to be well phrased but the conditions at the school bear no resemblance to the school they describe. This is evident from the poor conditions in the school and issues of discipline and lack of physical resources, as indicated. The issue about the lack of discipline is elaborated on below. (For details of the vision and mission statement, see Appendix B.)

Discipline

The school seems to have huge disciplinary challenges. During observation, some of the learners were roaming around the schoolyard. Those who were in the classrooms were generating a level of noise that was not conducive to teaching and learning. During the conversation with the Representative Council of Learners (RCL), they said that the problem was largely due to over-age learners who come to school with no intention of focusing on their studies, but merely to cause problems and disruptions. One of the classes was supposed to be taught by the principal but he was never in the classroom. The reasons given for this ranged from going to the circuit office to attending the principals' meetings. In the absence of the principal, nobody taught or disciplined the learners.

Policies on safety and security

The school has no policy on safety and security, but said that these were in the process of being developed. The school does, however, have a sign which indicates items that are forbidden on the school premises for safety and security purposes.

6.3.2   School B

School resources and facilities

The school seems to have relatively better facilities compared to other schools in the area. It has several blocks of classrooms which are of a fairly modern design. It has an administration block where the offices of the principal and the receptionist are located. Before reaching the principal, the visitor has to report to the receptionist who then verifies the availability of the principal. The office of the principal is spacious and equipped with good furniture. The school has most of the essentials for teaching and learning: electricity, running water, laboratories and a library. There are separate flushing toilets for girls and boys. However, the school has no sports ground, so learners do not engage in sport. The teachers also complained about a shortage of chairs and photostat machines. There is a palisade fence around the school yard and the receptionist is responsible for opening and closing the gate using remote control from the office. The school has no feeding scheme.

The vision and mission of the school

The school has a vision and a mission statement. The vision and the mission statements of School B focus on improving the future lives of people through education by empowering learners, but like School A, there seems to be no link between what the statements are

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articulating and what is happening at the school. This is evident when one looks at its disciplinary issues and the safety of learners at the school. (For details on the vision and mission statement see Appendix C.)

Discipline

This school seems to have serious disciplinary challenges. During my observation visits, some of the learners roamed around the schoolyard, while others were in the classes. Those who were in the classrooms were making so much noise that it was not conducive for teaching and learning. During my conversation with the educators, they said that the problem was due to the fact that the community is not supportive. Sometimes strangers from outside the schoolyard enter the school premises through holes in the palisade fence and cause problems for the learners, as gangs are rife in the community. Some of the learners have their lunch money forcefully taken from them.

Female educators complained about male educators as far as discipline is concerned. They complained that male educators make it difficult for the school to enforce discipline as they befriend learners to such an extent that some of them smoke cigarettes with the learners. They said that they call on the police to help them with safety and security issues, as they have a good working relationship with them.

Policies on safety and security

The school has no safety and security policy but say this is still being developed. The school does not have a sign that shows which items are not allowed in the school premises.

6.3.3   School C

School resources and facilities

School C, like School A, does not have enough resources and facilities. There are not enough classrooms to accommodate the 591 learners, and there is no administrative block. Instead, one of the storerooms has been converted into the principal's office. Teachers are so cramped in one of the classrooms and are surrounded by old papers and all sorts of litter. The few classrooms for learners are in a dilapidated state, with broken windows, doors that are falling off, cracked floors and walls. In winter classrooms are a hazard as they become very cold. Even though the school does not have enough resources, it does have facilities like a sports ground, electricity and water. Toilets for boys and girls are not separate, but during the visit,

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additional pit toilets were being dug with the intention of providing separate toilets for boys and girls.

As in the case of School A, School C has no library and no laboratory. There is no security guard at the gate and visitors open and close the gate themselves when visiting the school. The school has feeding scheme and food is stored in a room that has been turned into a storeroom.

The vision and mission of the school

The school has a vision and a mission statement which focuses on being a dynamic learning centre of excellence. To achieve that, they encourage the creation of a climate conducive for development. The vision and the mission of the school do not line up with the actual practice. For example, the school says it focuses on becoming a centre of excellence, but just a look at the resources and facilities shows that the school does not seem to be working towards this. There is also a lot more that needs to be done in making the school safe. For example, some of the classrooms are in a dilapidated state with broken windows, which threatens the safety of learners. (For details on the vision and mission see Appendix D.)

Discipline

The school seems to have good discipline. During observation, learners were in the classrooms learning and teachers were teaching.

Policies on safety and security

The school has several policies – a school policy, a uniform policy, a finance policy, a discipline policy and a sports policy. Included is a policy on safety and security. Taking Volokh and Snell (1998)'s typology as outlined in Chapter 4 of the study into consideration, their policy on safety and security focuses on changing the physical environment of the school. This is done by focusing on issues like closing classroom windows, switching the lights on or off, and keeping the gates locked during school hours. It also involves compliance with a set of safety rules and advising staff members to be vigilant and to try to prevent accidents. The policy does not mention improving the social environment of the school; neither does it include the use of curriculum-based programmes in dealing with safety and security at the school. For details, see Appendix K. The school has a sign that lists items that are not allowed in the school premises for safety and security reasons.

6.3.4   School D

School resources and facilities

The school has a reasonable number of classrooms - four blocks. It has an administration block where there is an office for the principal and the receptionist and a staff room. Before the visitors can see the principal, they have to consult the receptionist who checks the availability of the principal. The office of the principal is spacious and equipped with a computer and a photostat machine. Copies of exam papers and other administrative documents are made from this machine. As a result, the office of the principal is always busy with staff members making copies. There are separate flushing toilets for girls and boys, but some of the toilets seats were broken when I visited the school. The school has no sport ground and as result, learners are not involved in sporting activities. Like School A and C, School D has no library and no laboratory. The school is surrounded by an old fence with a lot of holes. There is no security guard at the gate. When visitors come to the school, they have to open and close the gate by themselves. The school has no feeding scheme.

The vision and mission of the school

The school has a vision and a mission statement. The vision of the school focuses on preparing learners for the world of work. They hope to achieve this by initiatives like providing excellent educational opportunities for learners, and the school community in general, through a range of learning activities. They also strive towards inculcating democratic processes and a culture of responsibility and accountability amongst all stakeholders, and to support both educators and learners. However, looking at the disciplinary issues of the school outlined below, there is a difference between what is articulated in the vision and the mission of the school and what is happening at the school. (For details on the vision and mission see Appendix E.)

Discipline

The school seems to have disciplinary challenges. During observation, some of the learners were seen playing outside the classrooms while lessons were on. Others were seen going to a shopping complex not far from the school. In some of the classes, learners were moving around and shouting at each other instead of listening to their teachers. From the discussion with the principal, he confirmed that the school has disciplinary problems. This usually happens during break when learners go outside the schoolyard to the shops. There some of

them drink beer while others buy drugs, and when they come back after break, their behaviour deteriorates.

Policies on safety and security

The school has a number of policies, including one on safety and security. As in the case of School C, this focuses on the improvement of the physical environment by dealing with issues of safety and security. It focuses on issues like maintenance of school buildings, controlling access at the gate and not allowing learners to talk to strangers through the fence. It also aims to improve the social environment in the school by dealing with the behaviour of learners, where they are encouraged to behave in line with code of conduct. (For details of the policy see Appendix L.) The school has a sign which indicates certain items that are not allowed in the school premises for safety and security purposes.

6.3.5   School E

School resources and facilities

The school does not have enough facilities for its over 200 learners. It has four blocks of classrooms. The office of the principal is small and congested, and can be accessed directly without going through the clerk. The school has both electricity and water, and separate toilets for boys and girls. However, as the other quintile 2 schools, it lacks other basic things which are important for teaching and learning like laboratories and a library. The school is surrounded by a security fence with a gate, but there is no security guard at the gate. When visitors come to the school, learners leave their classes to come and open or close the gate. The school has no feeding scheme.

The vision and mission of the school

The school has a vision and a mission statement. The vision focuses on issues like producing citizens who are self-reliant of high esteem, among others. The mission does not indicate how they hope to achieve this vision. It would seem that what they refer to as a vision was written for the sake of having a vision statement, without paying much attention to the content and the meaning thereof. For example, there does not seem to be a link between the vision and the mission of the school. Statements seem to be loose phrases that do not seem to have any connection to what they are doing as a school. (For details on the vision and mission see Appendix F.)

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Discipline

The school seems to have disciplinary challenges. During observation, some of the learners were not in the classrooms. Some were seen going home during school hours, while others stood around in groups chatting outside the classrooms.

Policies on safety and security

The school has a number of policies, including one on safety and security. The policy focuses on changing the physical environment at the school, for example by deploying security guards at the gate, amongst others. The policy does also strive to change the social environment, for example, by prohibiting fights in the school premises, by prohibiting the carrying of dangerous weapons like guns and knives in the school premises, by targeting undisciplined learners for guidance and advice by the teachers. The policy does not say anything about the use of the curriculum in dealing with issues of safety and security in schools. (See Appendix M). The school has no signage to show items forbidden on the school premises in the interests of safety and security.

6.3.6   School F

School resources and facilities

School F does not have enough facilities. It has three blocks of classrooms where one of the classrooms is used as a staff room. In the same room, a corner next to the door has been converted into the principal's office. The school does however have computers and a photostat machine. There is electricity, water and separate pit toilets for boys and girls. The toilets were dirty and there was a terrible smell coming from the toilets during observation. This was exacerbated by the fact that the toilets do not have doors. There is also a shortage of desks at the school and most of the learners use broken desks. Like all other quintile 2 schools, the school has no library or laboratory. The school looks clean and it is surrounded by a security fence with the gate. There was no security guard at the gate. When visitors visit the school, they open and close the gate by themselves. The school has a feeding scheme and the food is stored in a classroom that is used as a storeroom.

The vision and mission of the school

The school has a vision and a mission statement. The vision focuses on the total development of learners by discovering the learners' skills and equipping them with the right knowledge to choose future careers. The intention of the school in terms of the vision and the mission

statement seem to be a noble one, but the activities in the school are not in line with these intentions. This is evident when one looks at their resources, facilities and poor discipline. (For details on the vision and mission see Appendix G.)

Discipline

The school seems to have disciplinary challenges. Some of the learners are allegedly involved in criminal activities in the village around the school. This was revealed during my conversation with some of the learners at school. In other cases, learners vandalize the school. During observation, some of the learners were roaming around the schoolyard while others were in classes. Some of the learners bunk classes, do not come to school at all and go to a house near the school which they use as a meeting place. During conversations with the RCL, they said that there are learners who take drugs. Some of learners walk long distances from their homes to school, which is problematic as they have to walk long distances unprotected through the bushes.

Policies on safety and security

The school has no policy on safety and security; neither do they have a sign indicating items that are not allowed in the school premises for safety and security purposes.

6.3.7   School G

School resources and facilities

School G, like School A, C, E and F, also does not have enough facilities, although it has several blocks of classrooms and an administration block that houses the office of the principal, the staff room and the office of the clerk. Facilities that are missing include a sports ground, a library and laboratories. There is a shortage of desks and some of desks are broken. The school does however computers have and photostat machines. It also has electricity and running water, with separate toilets for boys and girls, but these are dirty, in poor condition and smell bad. There is a security fence with a gate, but there is no permanent security guard at the gate. The person guarding the gate is a volunteer and he sometimes leaves the gate unguarded. In his absence, when visitors come to the school, they open and close the gate themselves. The school has no feeding scheme.

The vision and mission of the school

The school has a vision and a mission statement. The vision focuses on motivating, supporting and transforming learners through effective teaching. They hope to achieve this by teaching and learning to the best of their ability, ensuring that discipline is maintained, promoting and encouraging participation in all school related matters and working as a team, amongst other strategies. These are well-phrased statements, but the conditions at the school, do not reflect the vision and the mission statement, as is evident from the resources, facilities and discipline. For details on the vision and mission see appendix H.

Discipline

The school appears to have disciplinary challenges. During observation, some of the learners were roaming around the school yard and there was a noise that must have disturbed those who were writing their half-yearly exams at the time. From conversations with some of the learners, it seems that bullying is a problem, with older learners forcefully taking money and food from other learners. Some of the learners are made to pay in order to make use of the toilets. Some boys smoke dagga and become aggressive. Strangers wait outside the school gate with knives to fight with certain boys when they come out of school. These reports were confirmed by the principal.

Policies on safety and security

The school has no policy on safety and security although there is a sign up indicating items that are not allowed in the school premises for safety and security purposes.

From this section on school resources, school vision and mission, discipline and policies on safety and security, it is evident that there is a serious lack of discipline in schools and safety and security challenges. All the schools have vision and mission statements that are full of impressive phrases written to fulfil certain requirements, but bear no relation to what is happening in the schools, as their multiple problems attest. In addition, not all the schools have policies on safety and security. This might be due to lack of capacity in schools with regard to policy formulation.

6.4   Results of the study organized in themes

6.4.1 Knowledge about the existence of the SSP

Reading tables 6.2 to 6.8 (See appendices D4-J10), it is evident that stakeholders differ in terms of their knowledge about the existence of the programme.

Principals in schools A, C, E and F knew about the SSP, but not in Schools B, D and G. In School B the principal said he knew about a programme that was run by a non-governmental organization known as LINK, which is the CFS Programme. The SGBs in Schools A, C, D and G knew about the programme, whereas in Schools B, E and F they did not. The teachers in Schools A, D and G knew about the programme, but not those in Schools B, C, E and F. In School B the teachers knew about the CFS Programme run by an NGO called LINK. RCLs in schools D, F and G knew about the programme, but not those in Schools A, B, C, and E.

The picture that emerges is that principals and SGBs and some of the teachers seem to know about the programme, whereas teachers and RCLs do not. This may be as a result of how the Department of Education communicates with schools, which is usually with principals, who in turn communicate with the SGBs, especially the parent component. This was emphasized by teachers in School D when they were asked whether they knew about the SSP policies or not. They said, *"No, perhaps it might be in the office of the principal. We never saw it. So we do not know about it."*

According to the South African Schools Act (SASA), teachers and learners are supposed to be represented on the SGBs and keep informed via these representatives. The teacher and learner ignorance about Safe Schools may be indicative of how some schools operate – not involving all the stakeholders. This may mean that the principal is working with the parent component of the SGB and exclude the other stakeholders.

6.4.2 Implementation of the programme in schools

The evidence is clear that there is no implementation of the programme. Even those who claimed that they were implementing the programme were not sure about it. Those who were not sure about the implementation of the programme expressed their uncertainty in different ways:

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We are trying although it is not 100% as it is supposed to be, but the little bit that we do, we try. We lock the gates during the teaching and learning hours and access to the school premises is strictly controlled. We try to check who gets in and what the purpose of the visit is. This is to make sure that learners are protected when they are in the school premises as well as educators - they should always be protected when they are in the school premises. Almost everybody like yourself, when you visit the school, you must feel safe when you are within the school premises.

Teachers in the same school were also not certain. *We think we can say we are partially involved because sometimes we search learners for weapons in the classes. Even the police are involved. We have adopted a police person through adopt-a -cop.*

The RCL in School A said that they were not sure. Although they are involved in certain activities related to the safety of learners, they are not sure whether that is part of the SSP or not.

Others seemed to have mistaken the SSP for other programmes that were running in schools at the time of the study. This is evident from some of the responses. This is how the RCL in School G responded:

We are involved in the implementation of NICRO programme. We help NICRO by searching learners at the gate. We also help by seeing to it that learners are not loitering around the school yard and they are always in a school uniform. We also focus on the issue of those who are coming late to school. The school uniform is very important on issues related to safety because it is not easy to carry a weapon when you are in a school uniform. We are not that worried. But if learners are not in a school uniform, they become very aggressive. They wear these very expensive labels and become jealous of each other. This also leads to a situation where they fight for girlfriends. Those who wear expensive clothes take other people's girl's friends and they start fighting. That is the reason why in this school we do not encourage casual days because learners end up fighting.

Teachers in Schools D and E referred to other programmes that are being implemented instead of the SSP. Teachers in School D said *"No, we only implement the CFS Programme"*, whereas teachers in School E expressed thus:

Er, mm, if that refers to the safety measures that we are implementing as a school, there are some of the measures that we are taking. We have a security guard who is looking after the property. He also searches learners in the morning when they enter through the gate. Again we are working jointly with the Mankweng police office that is the South African Police Services (SAPS). We have adopted a cop. There is this programme called adopt-a-cop. We are able to liaise with a particular police officer to help us. In some cases we have problems with learners, even if it is not that serious we are able to phone him and he responds to those cases.

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These responses clearly indicate that the SSP – for all practical purposes – is not being implemented in schools. This is borne out by the manager of the SSP in the Department of Education in Limpopo who confirmed that there has been no implementation.

> *The challenge we have on the organizational structure of this Department has been a problem in terms of delivery of services. That is, first you need to have an organ to be able to discharge this responsibility. From the Department of Education in Limpopo, this task was only acknowledged at the organizational structure in 2005. There was nobody to discharge it. I had to act and assist from 2005 to 2009. I was only appointed last year (2009). Now this has become my key responsibility area to focus on. The unfortunate set up is from the Province's side, it will be me only. I needed to have tentacles; you know the leg to stand on. I needed to have support staff in the office, support in the district, and support to the circuit level so that we are able to reach the schools. So it is not possible. It is not possible. It has not happened and now it is 16 to 18 months. So our implementation capacity is very limited. What I did so far is to work with colleagues from governance and to put them through some training to understand first just some concepts before anything else. The first exposure they had was through an induction which we did in 2008. The actual training on safety matters only happened this year (2010) in February and March.*

This response might indicate a lack of support to the section tasked with coordinating the implementation of the programme, which could be one of the reasons for this lack of implementation. The programme exists on paper only.

Since it became very clear early on in my study that the SSP was not being implemented, I decided to shift the focus of my observations and site visits to asking stakeholders about what they **would** regard as indications of a successfully implemented safety programme. Stated differently: What are the criteria or conditions that one **would** expect to find in place if there was such a programme?

6.4.3   Criteria to judge whether a Safe Schools Programme is being implemented

Different stakeholders developed criteria that they would use to judge whether the SSP was being implemented or not, based on their understanding of it.

Looking at responses from interviews, these criteria varied, but can be grouped as criteria related to learners, criteria related to teachers, criteria related to the physical environment of the school, criteria related to the social environment of the school and criteria related to the community and other stakeholders.

Criteria related to learners

- RCL helping to search learners at the gate.
- Dealing with pregnant learners.
- Learners disciplined.
- Learners should not leave school premises during break.
- Learners coming to school on time.
- Security guard at the gate to search learners.
- Dealing with substance abuse.

Criteria related to teachers

- Teachers should be on duty.
- Teachers teaching.
- The teachers no longer afraid of learners.

Criteria related to the physical environment of the school

- The fence, siren and an alarm system.
- Planting flowers.
- Learners and the community taking care of the school.
- Control access to the school premises.
- Doors should have handles.
- Signage about safety at the gate, no weapons, drugs and cell phones on the school premises.

Criteria related to the social environment of the school

- Regular meetings with the other stakeholders.

Criteria related to the community and other stakeholders

- Stakeholders doing what they are supposed to do.
- Police coming to school unannounced.
- Nurses and social workers should also visit the schools.
- Financial support from the Department.
- Taverns no longer selling liquor during school hours.

Schools B and D which are situated in townships added other criteria like financial support and developing a checklist on issues of safety and security in schools. Criteria in different schools seem to focus more on the threats from outside the schools than inside. This might be due to the fact that stakeholders see threats to their safety in schools as coming from outside the schoolyard. The principal in School B expressed this when he said:

> We just met and decided as a school because initially there was unlimited access to the school. So it was used as a short cut. It was an easy access. But as a school we met and decided we must lock all the gates and make sure that no one uses the school as a short cut. We decided as a school and we included the parents through the SGB, we decided to ensure that the gates are always locked and nobody should just use the school as a short cut. The palisade fence was destroyed because people were using the school as a short cut to the other side of the school.

There are however, other stakeholders who felt that their threats come from within the school, and for teachers this meant from the learners. Teachers in School E said:

> When learners do not bring weapons to school, no one is allowed to come with drugs. When there is somebody who monitors to see to it that there are no drugs, no cell phones and all the things that we agreed that they should not be brought to school.

Teachers in School A also expressed concern about their learners: *"Some of them smoke dagga and when you talk about issues of safety they never hear you."*

It is also interesting to note that some RCL members also felt that the main safety threats are other learners. RCL members in School C outlined their criteria saying that they would expect to see *"security at the gate, burglar proof[ing], handles for the doors, searching the learners and the police visiting the school. That is all."* They support the idea that learners should be searched.

The manager in the Department of Education in Limpopo also highlighted the threat that some learners pose to other learners:

> One child stabs another child in School X. By the way we have such incidents. We buried one who was a gangster, another one who has been sentenced to seventeen years or something. So I am receiving pockets of incidents but I do not have capacity to handle them.

The criteria tend to reflect the nature of violence in South African schools, as these concur with the picture given by Govender (2006). He describes the violence in South African schools, saying that this includes drug possession, assaults, killings, rapes and carrying dangerous weapons (like stones, guns and knives), sexual abuse, emotional abuse, burglary

and vandalism, criminal offenses, robberies and gang-related violence, suicides, alcohol and drug abuse, pornographic material, the use of sleeping tablets.

These criteria may change when schools start with the implementation of the programme. Change may occur as a result of stakeholder's experiences in the implementation of the programme. Stake and Schwandt in Shaw, Mark and Greene (2006:4) note that changes in developing criteria to judge the quality of a programme involve personal experience in the programme. They write that:

> *Judging quality criterially, thinking of quality-as-measurable (and measured), is met by the view that quality is a phenomenon that we personally experience and only later make technical, if need be. This view emphasizes grasping quality in experience - near understandings, that is, in the language and embodied action of those who actually are undergoing the experience of a program or policy. Criterial thinking is important, but it is rooted in interpretation of personal experience.*

Criteria depend on personal experience. As a result, the conception that one has before experience is likely to change after going through the experience.

6.4.4   The views of the stakeholders on whether they would like the SSP to be implemented or not.

Looking at the responses in tables 6.2 to 6.8 (See appendices D4-J10), it is evident that different stakeholders would welcome the implementation of the SSP. All the stakeholders want to be safe when they are at school, including the learners who might be causing problems. Stake (1995a:140) reflected in conversation with Hawkins at the Harper School that the safety of learners at school is a big achievement. They all want to feel safe especially at school.

Some of the learners who commit crime go back to school for protection, as they view school as a safe place. Learners in School G expressed this when they indicated that, *"It should be noted that other learners are not at school to learn. They are at school because they are afraid to go to jail. They commit crime and come to school [in order to] avoid arrest."* It seems that school is viewed as a safe place, which is in line with Smit (2010:115)'s observation when she writes that *"As far as safety is concerned, there should be no reason for learners not to feel safe at school, seeing that there are trained, professional adults that are supposed to create a safe environment for them to learn in."*

6.4.5   Factors likely to hinder or facilitate implementation

It is evident from tables 6.2 to 6.8 (See appendices D4-J10) that there are different views on factors that are likely to hinder or facilitate the implementation of a programme such as this. Factors that are likely to hinder the implementation include lack of support from the community; lack of training on issues related to safety; taverns, shebeens and beer halls near the schools; lack of resources and finances; lack of security guards at the gates; drugs; members of the community who are not cooperative; and lack of information about the SSP.

Not much was said about factors that could facilitate the implementation of the SSP, but those mentioned include capacity and the commitment of stakeholders and learners who are willing to participate.

It is interesting to note that some of the learners are also seen as part of the hindrance, particularly by the SGB in School D, by the RCLs in Schools D, F and G, and by the principals in Schools F and G. Only in School C did the teachers see the learners as an obstacle.

> *There are problems. As we indicated learners come from different families. Other learners you can see just by mere looking at them. When they come to school with a weapon, they do not realize that what they have is wrong. You can see that they come from different families. To mentor a person who is not well guided at home is difficult. We as educators are just secondary parents.*

The perception of certain learners held by some of the other stakeholders is pertinent. They view them as trouble-makers, which might be true as other learners like the RCLs also view them as problematic.

Lack of support from the community is also seen as one of the factors that are likely to hinder the implementation of the SSP. This may be due to their past experiences where there has been not much community support for other projects. It is crucial for the communities to support the schools but this is not always the case. This seems to be a universal problem, as Stake (1995a:138) also encountered this while doing a case study in the Harper School in the USA:

> *Community involvement in Harper School was not high. Only a few parent volunteers worked with teachers. It was even difficult to get Local School Council members to come to council meetings. In the words of Mattie Mitchell, teacher and school community representatives, "Who wants to make decisions? Who is ready to make decisions? Not many."*

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This may also be indicative of the importance of community support for schools to succeed in their work. It makes things easier for the schools to operate. This is in line with Khan's (2008) observation in a baseline study that was conducted to understand what was happening in schools. One of the recommendations was that schools, as an integral part of the community, need to have partnerships with stakeholders in communities.

Some of the stakeholders did not feel there would be any obstacles. These were the teachers in School E, and the principal of School C. This may be due to the fact that because they are in authority, they would facilitate its implementation.

Schools B and D, located in the township, see drugs as a potential obstacle to implementation of the SSP. This concern reflects problems in the surrounding neighbourhoods, as Schools A, C, E, F and G all list taverns, beer halls and shebeens as potential stumbling blocks.

6.4.6 Different stakeholders' understanding of what is expected of them in the implementation of the SSP

Some of the stakeholders indicated that they understood what would be expected of them, whereas others indicated that they did not. These differences might be due to not understanding the question. It might not have been clear whether they were being asked about their role in implementing the SSP in the schools or their roles at the school in general. Those who said they understood were the principals of Schools B, C, E, and F, teachers in Schools F and G, SGBs in Schools B, C, F and G. RCL members in all the schools (A, B, C, D, E, F and G) indicated that they understood. However, a closer look at their responses shows that they do not distinguish the duties of their normal roles and the part they would play in the implementation of the SSP. A good example of this is the response of the principal of School B. He said:

> *Yes, they explained that we must always support this project, it is within our job specification. It is part of our work to ensure that learners are always safe and then policies of the Department are always implemented and Acts of parliament are also implemented. Within the Acts, there are safety issues like in SASA, child protection Act and all these international Acts like the declaration of child's rights, human rights. So we feel that it is part of our duty as a school and as parents to implement them.*

Those who said that they did not understand what is expected of them were the principals of Schools A, D and G, and the SGBs in Schools A, D, and E. Teachers in Schools A, B, C, D, and E said they did not understand what would be expected of them in the implementation of

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the SSP. Some of the stakeholders said that since there had been no implementation of the SSP they could not even talk about the roles of different stakeholders. The principal of School A said, *"No, I do not understand because I do not have anything so far. But if you have something you may come to our rescue. Out of that we may be able to draw some policies."* Others said their lack of a clear understanding was because they had not been trained. This was expressed by the principal of School D: *"I do not have a clear understanding. We need guidance because you may find that we think we know whereas we are off track. We need to be trained on issues of safety in schools."* This might indicate that there is a need for the stakeholders to be trained in the implementation of the SSP. Khan (2008) highlights the importance of training thus:

> *Early detection of incidences of crime and violence at schools should form part of an effective crime prevention strategy at school level. Training educators to identify the early warning signs would assist the school to be proactive in its response to crime and violence at schools.*

The varied responses to the question might also be a confirmation of this response by the manager in the Department of Education:

> *Not all, some may have an idea. As of now I have a special meeting scheduled with Department of police on Monday (8/11/2010) where we need to thrash out what the roles and responsibilities will be for each of the stakeholders.*

6.4.7   Groups or individuals who may oppose the implementation of the SSP

None of the principals, SGBs, or the teachers believed that there were groups who might oppose the implementation. However, stakeholders like the RCLs in Schools A, B, C, D and F did feel that there could be some opposition – potentially certain groups of learners and people who sell liquor and drugs near the schools. The SGB in School D was also concerned that the learners as a group could oppose the implementation of the programme, saying, *"The problem may be learners who are stubborn, but we do not think of any group that may oppose the implementation of the Safe Schools Programme."*

Their views of learners as potential opponents to the implementation of the programme may be due to the fact that they are regarded as the perpetrators of the violence in schools. This is in line with Khan (2008)'s observation when he writes that:

> *-for example, the toilets, open grounds and playing fields, and classrooms- are sites where they are generally vulnerable to experiencing violence. Perpetrators were in most cases fellow learners and peers, and therefore known to victims. Access to*

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alcohol, drugs and dangerous weapons (guns and knives) are reported to be easily obtainable by learners, creating further challenges to achieving school safety.

Only the principal of School B, which is situated in a township, mentioned the liquor outlets and those who sell drugs near the school as potential opponents.

Yes, but not specifically one or two three people. Let us say for an example the liquor outlets which are closer to the school, if they are supposed to close and not sell anymore I think they may not agree to this as simple as we talk about it. They may oppose and say this is how we make money that is how we make a living, this is our business. I think such people may not be happy. Even those who are selling drugs although we do not have proper evidence that so and so are selling unwanted substance and other forms of substances which are making learners not to behave the way they are supposed to behave, may not be happy if we are to get them and say stop what you are doing. I think those people may oppose it.

Teachers in School E said that it was difficult to identify a particular group since they did not know about the programme.

We may not tell now because we do not know about the programme. At the same time we do not think we may have anybody opposed to it. Basically it is part of what we are looking for which is safety in our school because we hear that even in some other countries there is a problem with safety in schools. For example we heard recently that somebody in China just went to school and started stabbing children. So Safe Schools Programme will be a very good initiative by the government.

Lack of knowledge about the programme might explain these responses. Even the manager of the Department of Education said he was not aware of any groups or individuals who might be opposed to the implementation of the SSP. He said, *"So far not in my knowledge. All of them are very embracing [of SSP]."*

6.4.8   Concerns (Agenda)

When looking at tables 6.2 to 6.8 (See appendices D4-J10) different concerns about the implementation of the SSP are evident. These are the concerns or issues that stakeholders would like to be included in the agenda should they be given an opportunity to convene a meeting with other stakeholders. These concerns can be grouped into different clusters - concerns that relate to learners, concerns that relate to physical facilities and resources, and concerns that relate to the community and other stakeholders.

Concerns that relate to the learners
- Learners who come to school late.

- Learners who bring weapons to school.

- Drug abuse by learners.

- Learners who smoke cigarettes.

- Learners who bring cell phones to school.

- Learners who do not respect teachers.

- Lack of discipline on the part of learners.

- The attitude of learners towards teachers.

- Teenage pregnancies.

- Bullying.

- Learners who stab other learners.

Concerns that relate to the teachers

- Teachers who come to school but do not teach.

Concerns that relate to physical facilities and resources

- Lack of water.

- No security guard at the gate.

- Lack of resources like computers, laboratories, stationery, libraries, and a photostat machine.

- No alarm system or CCTV.

Concerns that relate to the social environment of the school

- Relationships between learners and between teachers and learners.

- Sexual harassment.

Concerns related to the community and other stakeholders

- Parents who sell drugs and liquor to learners.

- Lack of support from parents.

- Shebeens near the schools.

- Lack of involvement of other stakeholders.

- Lack of support and communication from the Department of Education.

- Stakeholders who come to school drunk.

- The views of the stakeholders on the implementation of the SSP should be taken into

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consideration.

- Lack of training in the implementation of the SSP.

- People who use learners to sell drugs.

- Lack of clarity on the activities of different stakeholders.

- Lack of the involvement of experts like the police and social workers.

The concerns seem to focus on the learners and the Department of Education. It would seem like the schools do not get enough support from the Department of Education, as expressed by the principal of School E:

> *We would like to see the Department helping us or supporting us. They should take these matters up to the highest level of the Department itself. Educators should be given the authority to discipline learners. Not that we need to always refer learners to the police. So somehow we are disarmed.*

The manager in the Department of Education seems to confirm the concerns raised by the schools.

> *Yes, there are factors. The Department must first show commitment. Our first constraint is not implementing the organizational structure. As it is structured now, it does now even have a room for school safety officers at the school level. I am sorry at the circuit level, just to support the schools. There should be a sub-unit with one or two people at the circuit level just to deal with issues. Can you see that the scope is so wide? You cannot have one person. For a start I would wish at least be one person, just for a start. This person as the work grows and he begins to understand the dynamics then he may get the second person to assist this person. And now, you may start working with a lot of stakeholders. They can be serving in the community safety forums with the police, schools sector and all that, and that can get into something else. The only strategy I am using now is to work with various stakeholders, but the return is very minimal. The return is minimal. I am trying the best I could, the return is very minimal. My hands are too full. I really feel it. That is the first constraint. The second constraint, which to me is a question mark is if the Department is committed to this programme, what about budget allocation. The current budget as it is given is non-starter. Can you imagine been given R 410, 000.00 to deal with the schools? It is a non-starter. Last year I was given 2.1 million, this year (2010) has been reduced to R 410, 000.00, that is worse. I draw a budget and say at least 3.6 million will do, but they give you R 410, 000.00. That is an insult in your face. You will not even do much. You will not even have a full workshop for these officers considering the cost of just the conferencing. It does not work out.*

The response from the manager in the DOE indicates the extent of the lack of commitment by the Department to the implementation of the SSP, and this is a major constraint, as schools cannot implement the programme without DOE support. Furthermore, without having a particular unit or section in the DOE to focus specifically on the implementation of the SSP

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there is no one unit to drive it. This might have contributed significantly to the non-implementation of the SSP.

Other stakeholders raised their concern over teachers who come to school but do not teach.

> *There is a need for RCL members to work together. We must be recognized as RCL because we are not recognized. We are supposed to have a uniform that identifies us as RCL, but they do not want to give it to us. There is also a need for us to attend a course in leadership. The other problem we have is that teachers are lying. They are not doing their work. We must have a permanent principal not acting all the time. That gives the school a negative picture. Some teachers do not do their work. They bask in the sun instead of teaching us and that contributes towards the school being unsafe. Learners have more time to do mischief because they are not taught.*

They link the core business of schools - which is teaching and learning - with matters related to safety. The link is in line with Khan's (2008) observation when he writes that

> *…safety cannot be separated from the core business of the school - that is, teaching and learning - and therefore a whole school approach whereby all stakeholders take ownership is not only encouraged but is critical to success in this regard.*

The other concerns are about sexual harassment and teenage pregnancies, which echo Shaw's (2001:10) comment:

> *School safety issues affect girls and boys differently. Girls are less likely to use aggressive behavior than boys and tend to use exclusionary or verbal tactics. They are more subject to sexual harassment. In South Africa, the incidence of sexual assault among girls is increasing, and 40 per cent of rape cases nationally involve girls under age 17.*

This may be indicative of the fact that sexual harassment incidences and teenage pregnancies are in part a result of the lack of safety measures in schools. It may also be indicative of the seriousness of the situation of such incidents.

6.4.9   Policy on safety and security

On the issue of policy on safety and security the question asked was *"Do you accept policy guidelines on the implementation of the SSP?"* As some schools do not have a policy on safety and security, certain stakeholders could not comment on whether they accepted the policies or not. These were the principal of School A, SGB in School B, and the principal and teachers of School C. However, where stakeholders indicated that their schools have a policy, they accepted it.

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There was some confusion about this question, which may indicate a lack of understanding of the question. This becomes evident when one looks closely at the responses, especially from those whose schools have a policy. Additionally, in some of the schools some of the stakeholders said that they did not have a policy but others said they did (the principal of School B, SGBs in Schools C and G, teachers in School F and RCLs in Schools A, D, F and G). They might have thought that the policy refers to the policy which they have drafted as schools. This becomes evident when looking at some of the responses. For example, looking at the responses in School F, teachers responded by stating that *"Yes, because at school we have policies that are dealing with drugs, policies dealing with discipline and the like which are also in line with creating the Safe Schools Programme."* They might have thought that the question was referring to the school policies. Furthermore, the SGB in school G also highlights the fact that they might have misunderstood the question. They responded by saying that *"Yes we accept it. The problem is that we are still busy. The other thing is that I do not remember the Department of Education inviting us for a workshop on safety in schools. We were only invited for a workshop by an NGO that dealt with Child Friendly Schools framework."* The RCL in the same school (School G), responded by saying *"Yes we do. We also have a policy guideline. It is reflected in our vision and mission of the school."*

The manager in the DOE seems to confirm that there is no departmental policy on the implementation of the SSP. *"Practice became something that is trying to inform policy. As I speak now, even at national level we still have that gap that one national comprehensive policy on school policy is not yet there."*

Lack of policy may be due to several reasons like perhaps being preoccupied with other pressing issues. Karlsson in Kgobe (2001: 22) makes an observation when commenting on the lack of policy guides for SGBs at the school level when he states that:

> The silence from education departments may have arisen through their preoccupation with more pressing policy formulation and implementation activities. Furthermore, district and head office level officers may themselves have had little capacity in this regard."

Further, lack of policy on the implementation of the SSP may have a negative effect on its implementation in schools.

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6.4.10 The way in which decisions are taken in implementing the SSP

The question on how decisions are taken in implementing of the SSP was deliberately included to check the consistency of the answers as to whether the programme was being implemented or not. It was also meant to look at how they take decisions. What emerges is that instead of responding about the implementation of the programme, stakeholders replied by describing how decisions are taken when they deal with general safety and security issues and not the SSP.

The principal of School A said there had been no implementation of the SSP but that decisions on other issues are taken in line with the South African Schools Act, saying, *"Yes we vote, but nevertheless even if we vote, it should be something in line with SASA and the other things we do not take it."*

On other issues related to safety in schools, responses from stakeholders varied in how decisions are taken. These can be grouped into approaches like voting, consensus, discussion until an agreement is reached, negotiation, the importance of the issue on the table, democratic process where majority rules, and instances where there is no discussion but they are told on what to do.

The principals of Schools A, D and F, claim that decisions are taken by a vote, whereas School B's principal claims that it through consensus. School C uses discussion; School E through an agreement and in G it depends on the importance of the issue under discussion. As far as SGBs are concerned, they claim that decisions are taken through a vote. Only SGBs in Schools D and E indicated that decision making is based on the particular issue. Those in School E said that on some of the issues they are just told what to do. *"It depends on the situation. Sometimes you will be told that this is what is going to happen and sometimes we are not told. The matter is taken to the meeting and people discuss and end up agreeing on what should be done."* This might be reflective of how SGBs operate where some stakeholders, like the principal, dominate the discussions. This is in line with Mabasa's (1999:107) observation when he wrote that *"I observed (frequently) that too much power is in the hands of the principals and the teachers whom parents take in high esteem. This may work against the SGBs, because only a few people direct events in the SGBs."*
Grant-Lewis and Naidoo (2004:105) make a similar observation about the SGBs in South Africa. They write that:

> *Across all the schools studied, but to a lesser extent at the former Model C schools, learners and parents faced real challenges in expressing their voices in governance through the SGB. These challenges were emphasized in such comments as, "The SGB doesn't involve all the parents", "The SGB is easily manipulated", and "The teachers dictate the terms in the SGB". In such an environment, it is hardly surprising that few school or community stakeholders envisaged participation in school governance in terms of democratic objectives and greater community involvement in decision-making.*

As far as teachers in Schools B, E and G are concerned, they claim that decisions are taken through consensus. This is an indication that they might be trying to cater for the contributions of all the stakeholders in decision making. Only the teachers in School A said that they use a vote in taking decisions, whereas teachers in School F claim that a decision is taken on the basis of the issue under discussion. A possible explanation of this is that they might use various mechanisms in taking decisions. Teachers in Schools C and D, claim that they have never had a meeting. A possible explanation of this is that they are giving a true picture of the situation and that there never was a meeting to discuss the implementation of the SSP, or that they missed the meetings.

Some RCLs claim that decisions are taken through a vote, whereas those in Schools A, E and F gave different responses. Those in School A claim that they never met. As indicated by most of the stakeholders, it might be true that there never were any meetings held to discuss the implementation of the SSP, or that they missed the meetings. In School E, the RCL claim that they are just told what to do. This is in line with Mabasa's (1999:107) observation when he reported on SGBs.

> *…most participants agree that learners should be excluded from discussing certain school issues with the participants. In my observation, this reflects their view of the learners in the SGB. And in the African culture, a child is not supposed to argue with an adult but must be told what to do, since adults are the ones who have the power to decide on matters such as these.*

The RCL in School F claim that they take decisions through agreements. They discuss issues until they reach an agreement. It might be that this is done in order to accommodate the views of the different stakeholders in the meeting.

Something to note though is that the different stakeholders in schools give different views on how decisions are taken. This could merely reflect particular preferences or could be due to lack of understanding of the processes which they use in taking decisions.

6.5   Conclusion

The profiles of schools highlight that schools do have vision and mission statements. They seem to be well outlined on paper with no relevance to what they do in practice. For example, others indicate that they want to produce good citizens but the conditions in schools in terms resources, facilities and discipline do not support what they want to achieve. This chapter also discussed the responses on the implementation of the SSP from various stakeholders. The discussion highlights several issues generated by making use of the responsive approach to implementation evaluation. The use of this approach helped me to be flexible, as I was able to adjust the questions to the responses from the participants. For example, where the participants indicated that there had been no implementation of the SSP, follow-up questions were asked like "What initiatives are you taking as a school on issues of safety?" Data were presented according themes identified as already indicated above. The presentation of data was done in order to give the reader what Stake refers to as vicarious experience of the setting which leads to *"naturalistic generalization."*

Furthermore, the use of responsive valuation in this study necessitated the use of multiple sources of evidence. This was done to maximize the validity and reliability of the study. That led to the use of three methods of data collection - **observation**, **interviews** and **documents**.

Observation was used when I visited the schools to see whether the programme was being implemented or not. I was able to obtain information to generate the profiles of each of the participating school as reflected in this chapter. Furthermore, I was able to observe in situ the conditions in which schools operate in terms of safety and security and the implementation of the SSP.

Interviewing was used to obtain data from the respondents about the implementation of the SSP. It also helped in getting clarity on certain issues that were not clear after the school observation. This also helped me to adjust the questions accordingly.

The written **documents** that were consulted were listed and discussed in Chapter 5. They provided a better understanding of the SSP. I was also able to read the various vision- and mission statements and safety policies of the schools, as reflected in their profiles.

As already indicated, in order to avoid bias, the findings were discussed with the participants. This also involved what has been referred to as "member check" and was done to avoid biases like the self-fulfilling prophesy and drawing conclusions that are based on preconceived ideas. The following chapter will discuss summaries, profiles and results of the three schools in the CFS Programme.

From the responses in the study, it is evident that there has been no implementation of the SSP in schools, which could be due to several reasons. One of the reasons might be a lack of commitment by the Department of Education to implementing the programme, evident from how the Department deals with the section tasked with implementing the programme. For example, they are hopelessly understaffed and their budget has been significantly reduced. Something to be noted is that even though there is no implementation of the SSP, stakeholders did outline what they regarded as important criteria that they would use to evaluate its implementation if it was implemented. Most of them mentioned having a security guard at the gate as a criterion to be used. Few mentioned the issue of planting flowers.

SUMMARIES, PROFILES AND RESULTS FOR THE THREE SCHOOLS IN CHILD FRIENDLY SCHOOLS (CFS) PROGRAMME

7.1   Introduction

This chapter presents the profiles of the three schools which were selected as sites for Phase 2 that focused on the CFS Programme (hereafter referred to as CFS). For this study, the schools are referred to as School H, I and J. These schools were added to the sample after the results in Phase 1 showed there had been no implementation of the SSP. Details of the rationale for selecting the schools were outlined in Chapter 5. In this chapter some of the information about the schools is presented in a summary table form, followed by a brief summary of the school profiles and a discussion of the results. The results of the study are discussed using the themes that were generated during data analysis. The themes generated in the second phase of the study were:

- Knowledge of the CFS programme.

- Implementation of the CFS programme.

- Criteria to judge its implementation.

- The views of the stakeholders on the implementation of the programme.

- Contextual factors that have an influence on implementation.

- Barriers to implementation of the CFS programme.

- Coping strategies in dealing with barriers to the implementation.

- Different stakeholders' understanding of what is expected from them in the implementation of the CFS programme.

- Plan to implement outstanding issues and concerns (Agenda).

7.2   Summary table of basic information of the three schools

The basic information of the three schools is presented in Table 7.1 hereunder, followed by a summary description of the schools' profile and the discussion of results. The profiles of the schools, as indicated in Chapter 6, help to provide the context for the study.

Table 7.1 Summary of basic information of three schools

School	Location			Basic Numeric and Statistical Data								Quintile
	Geographic Location	Area (Urban/rural/ township divide)	Distance from Polokwane City (km)	Number of Teachers			School Enrolment in 2011	Pass rate Grade 12 %				
				Males	Females	Total		2008	2009	2010		
H	Western side of Polokwane.	Semi-rural area	15	15	18	33	1042	98.5	100	92.6		3
I	Southern side of Polokwane.	Township	60	15	12	27	587	27.3	24.6	47		3
J	Southern side of Polokwane.	Township	110	11	36	47	1381	Not available	38%	49.3		2

7.3   Information on school resources, school vision and mission, discipline and policies on safety and security

7.3.1   School H

School resources and facilities

School H has facilities that need renovating. Several blocks of classrooms are dilapidated. The administration block houses the offices of the principal and the receptionist, but the principal's office is so small that it was not even possible to hold interviews in there. The school needs most of the basic things essential for learning and teaching. Even though there is electricity, the school has neither a laboratory nor a library. There are separate toilets for boys and girls but they do not flush. It has a sports ground, but the grass is so thick that learners are unable to use it, and as a result, do not engage in any sporting activities. They only have one photostat machine. The school is surrounded by a palisade fence which helps to keep the intruders away from the school. There is a gate, even though there is no security guard. When visitors come to the school, they open and close the gate themselves. There is no receptionist at the school. Walking into the school, one is immediately struck by the flowers planted around the old dilapidated buildings, of which a few have been repainted. The school has a feeding scheme and keeps the food in a storeroom.

The vision and mission of the school

The school has a vision and a mission statement. The vision of the school is to develop the community as a whole through life-long education, and to produce learners who are socially and emotionally balanced within the context of their environment. They hope to achieve this through quality education, community development and empowerment. The vision and the mission statements seem to indicate that the school has good intentions. When looking at the resources, facilities, the discipline and conditions of the school, it becomes evident that there is no link between the vision and mission statement and the actual practice in the school. As a result the vision- and mission statements, though well-crafted, remain statements on paper with no relevance to what the school is doing. For details on the vision and mission see Appendix I.

Discipline

The school seems to have serious disciplinary challenges. During observation, some of the learners roamed around the schoolyard, while others were in the classrooms. Other learners were seen going to the toilet in groups. When I asked the educators about the noise levels they said that this was because the learners were cleaning the classrooms that were used for the feeding scheme meals. The RCL indicated that strangers from outside the school make a noise to attract the learners to the gate, especially on Fridays. They also said that there was a problem with gangs in the community. Some of the learners who belong to gangs get involved in fights that start outside school but spill over into the schoolyard.

Policies on safety and security

Instead of having a policy on safety and security, the school has a learner's code of conduct. (See Appendix N). There is a sign at the gate forbidding certain items on the school premises for safety and security purposes. As part of the measures taken for safety and security, the school keeps a record of the numbers of orphans and pregnant learners, and the menus for their meals. The meals are meant to keep learners in school during breaks, thereby protecting them from the gangsters who used to attack them on their way home for meals. For details of this see Appendices O, P and Q.

7.3.2   School I

School resources and facilities

The school seems to have relatively better facilities. It has several blocks of classrooms surrounded by flowerbeds. It has an administration block where the office of the principal is located. The school has no receptionist. The office of the principal is spacious, even though it was full of boxes of A4 paper when I visited. Teachers who want to use paper are supposed to ask the principal beforehand, and he then determines the amount of paper to be handed out. The school has electricity, but there is no laboratory and or library. There are separate flushing toilets for girls and boys. It is surrounded by the palisade steel fence which helps to keep the intruders away from the school. There is a security guard who controls access to the school.

The vision and mission of the school

The school has a vision and the mission statement. The vision focuses on human development through innovative and inspiring life-long education. They hope to achieve this by delivering the curriculum in an innovative, effective and efficient way, and involving the community in the education of the child, amongst other strategies. The vision and the mission statements do not accurately reflect what happens at the school, especially the aspect of community participation. Some of the stakeholders like the School Management Team indicated that getting community participation is a challenge. Most of the parents do not live with their children as they work away from their homes. This poses a safety and security risk because learners who live without parental supervision resort to mischief and other forms of anti-social behaviour. For details of the vision mission statement see Appendix J.

Discipline

This school seems to have a reasonable level of discipline, even though a few learners were seen roaming around the schoolyard during observation. Some of the learners in the classrooms were making a huge noise, shouting and chasing each another.

Policies on safety and security

The school has no policy on safety and security as this is still being developed. There is however, a sign indicating prohibited items.

7.3.3   School J

School resources and facilities

The school seems to be well equipped in terms of facilities. It has better facilities compared with most other schools in the area. It has several blocks of modern classrooms and an administration block where the offices of the principal and the receptionist are located. Before visitors can see the principal, they have to get permission from the receptionist who verifies the availability of the principal. The office of the principal is spacious and equipped with good furniture. The school has most of the essentials for teaching and learning - electricity; laboratories and a library, even though the latter is not

well equipped and is not fully functional because they have no librarian. There are separate flushing toilets for girls and boys. Even though the school is modern and well equipped; it does not seem to be able to accommodate disabled learners as it has classrooms on three floors. It is surrounded by palisade steel fencing which helps to keep the intruders away from the school. It has the gate and a security guard, who controls access to the school. Visitors to the school have to sign a visitors' book. Walking into the school, one is immediately struck by the flowerbeds and beautiful buildings.

The vision and mission of the school

Although the school claims to have a vision and a mission statement, these were not made available to me. They did not seem to be comfortable providing me with a copy. When I probed as to why this was so, the principal seemed upset that those who were supposed to support the school in implementing the programme had not done so. This was in reference to LINK, the NGO responsible for coordinating the implementation of the CFS programme. He kept on saying that the programme had started well but as they continued there had been no further support. The conclusion I reached was that maybe some of his expectations of the programme were not met. Furthermore, he was not well disposed to my visit to the school as I too was not offering support.

Discipline

There seemed to be order and a degree of discipline in the school even though they have some serious disciplinary challenges. During observation, some of the learners were seen roaming around the schoolyard, while others were in the classes. Some of the learners were seen going in groups to the toilet, which I discovered was in order to gamble during school hours. Other learners complained that some of the learners smoke and come late to school.

Policies on safety and security

The school has a policy on safety and security but which could not be given to me since it was regarded as the property of the school. The school has a sign indicating items prohibited on school premises.

7.4 Results organized in terms of themes

7.4.1 Knowledge of the CFS programme

The stakeholders (principals, school governing bodies, school management teams, teachers and representative councils of learners) in Schools H, I and J differ in terms of their knowledge of the CFS programme. The differences range from those who focused on the six principles of the CFS programme to those who did not know or never heard about the programme. In School H, they all claimed to know about the programme whereas in School I and J the teachers did not know about the programme. In School J, the SGB and the RCL claimed that they had never heard about the programme. Since the stakeholders were trained in the implementation of the CFS programme, one would have expected all of them to know about the CFS. For example, the principal of School H responded by saying that:

> *CFS is based on six characteristics where it looks at effectiveness of the school in terms of performance and general effectiveness. It also looks at the school that it should be safe and a sound place that is secure. It is also looking at the health part of it, rights of all stakeholders particularly the learners. It also looks at gender equity in whatever form and also ensures that there is partnership with other organisations.*

The teachers in School I responded by saying, *"Obviously we cannot answer this one because we do not know about the programme"*. And in School J, the teachers' response was more or less the same. They said, *"No, we do not know about [it]",* and the RCL in School J went further, saying, *"We never heard about the CFS programme, we are just doing our duties as RCL"*.

What also seems to be clear is that some teachers do not know about the CFS Programme. This is the same with some members of the SGB and the RCL whereas some of the principals, members of the SGBs and RCLs have knowledge of the CFS programme. From what some of the teachers said, this might be due to the fact that some teachers have not been trained in the implementation of the CFS programme or the communications around the programme are simply inadequate.

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7.4.2   Implementation of the CFS programme

The majority of the stakeholders indicated that the CFS programme is being implemented. Those who said that it was not being implemented are the SGB members in Schools I and J. The RCL in School J said that they could not remember whether it had been implemented or not, whereas the teachers claimed to remember when the learners went for training. The teachers said, *"We remember a programme where they took learners; a boy and a girl for training"*. It appears that those teachers or RCL members who could not remember took up these positions after the training had taken place, and were consequently not informed or trained to implement the programme, as that had happened the previous year. Lack of training for the newer committee members may affect the implementation, which means that for sustainability of the programme, new members need to be trained in the implementation of the CFS programme. Nkonka in de Groof, Heystek, Malherbe and Squelch (2000:26), when commenting on members of the governing body, emphasizes the importance of training by saying, *"They need training in and exposure to decision-making and problem-solving skills; they need training in general and financial management - all this before they will be able to function competently..."*

7.4.3   Criteria to judge its implementation

The stakeholders use a range of criteria to determine whether the CFS programme is being implemented or not. They range from the establishment of committees to good learner behaviour. For example, the principal of School H focused on the establishment of committees and school performance. She said,

> *Well, we have established committees. For example, we have got the school safety committee; we have got a welfare committee that looks at health issues and gender issues, disciplinary committee that is looking at the rights, a code of conduct and so forth, and we have got the SMT and the committee that focuses on Quality Learning and Teaching Committee (QLTC) and that is meant to enhance effectiveness and performance of the school. For each of the CFS pillars we formed committees that give us reports which are discussed at the meeting.*

The SGB use different criteria - grade 12 results and when teachers and learners are no longer fighting each other. The SMT said, *"It is when learners are writing tests in*

whatever task they are doing and that should be done in a conducive learning environment…". The RCL focused on teaching and learning.

In School I, the focus was on the cleanliness of the school. The principal said, *"Yes, we have lots of criteria. As we said, the school must be clean. We have learners who are positive [about] cleaning and we advise them to be healthy."* The SGB used good learner behaviour.

In School J, school results, the issue of committees and good relationship amongst teachers and learners were their criteria. The issue of relationships used as a criterion was highlighted by a teacher who said she wanted to see a *"[c]hange in behaviour, [a] good atmosphere which is friendly towards teaching and learning. Good relationships between teachers and learners".*

The criteria as used by each school can be summarized as follows:

School H

- Establishment of committees to deal with different aspects of the CFS programme.
- Grade 12 results.
- Harmony amongst teachers and learners.
- Learners writing tests.
- Conducive learning environment.
- Parental involvement.

School I

- A clean school.
- Learner good behaviour.
- Coming to school on time.
- Learners wearing school uniform.
- School results.

School J

- School results.

- Worksheets to monitor how committees operate.

- Good relationships between teachers and learners.

- Learners respecting the RCL.

All the criteria above are covered by the six principles of the CFS programme, as outlined in the Department of Education and UNICEF (2008:3). A CFS school is one that is:

1. *A rights-based and inclusive school.*
2. *An effective school that provides quality education.*
3. *A safe, protective and supportive school.*
4. *A health-promoting and health-seeking school.*
5. *A gender sensitive school that promotes equity and equality.*
6. *A school that builds and has linkages and partnerships with the community.*

Some common criteria emerge from the different schools, like school results and good relationships between teachers and learners. Other criteria differ from one school to the other. For example, in School H, they also include parental involvement and School I includes the issue of school uniform and coming to school on time which are not criteria in Schools H and J. School J includes respect for the RCL as one of their criteria.

The schools were not expected to have a uniform approach in the implementation of the CFS programme. These criteria reflect different principles in line with each school's needs and context, as the coordinator of the programme notes:

> *Well, obviously to start with whether we managed to deliver what we were supposed to deliver. We did very well in 2009. I think that was the highlight of the programme and not much in 2010 because of the World Cup and the public service strike in the second half of the year. But I think you know there has been an external evaluation done and [they have] visited a sample of the schools and seem to have found some positive things in each school. But one of the challenges in evaluating the project is that different schools pick up on different things. I think that is a natural thing and it is a good thing, but if you say, 'Did every school become safer?', no, some schools became safer because that [safety] was what they were most worried about, but other schools became cleaner or healthier or the relationship between teachers and learners has improved. I would like to think that every school got something and I supposed if I go to every school*

with the six characteristics, one would find that every school has picked up on something.

What this means is that each school chose principles in line with their contexts and developed their own criteria. As a result, the stakeholders gave some very context-specific responses.

7.4.4   The views of the stakeholders on the implementation of the programme

From the responses, it is apparent that the stakeholders view the CFS programme as a good programme. The principal of School H said,

> *I think the CFS programme is an excellent thing for us, because since its implementation we have seen the school changing the attitude of educators. In fact, the attitude of all the stakeholders has changed. Even myself as the principal, it has helped me a lot in managing the school."* The SMT also endorsed this view saying, *"It is a good thing because since it was introduced; the escalation of fights dropped drastically. There used to be instances where learners would stab each other and others smell drugs like dagga but since the programme was introduced we are able to control their movements."*

In School I, the principal also expressed his appreciation for the programme. He said, *"The programme is good because it teaches us about hygiene. … if all the schools practice this, really education will be successful."* The RCL said, *"We can say that it is a good programme because - [from] our side- if we did not have CFS, our school at this moment would not be there."*

In School J, the principal expressed his concerns about the programme, especially its sustainability. He said, *"My views are that time and again they start with interventions, but there is no sustainability. At the beginning of the programme, they were promising [support] but now nothing is happening."* The SMT expressed their views when they said, *"It is a good programme because so far we can teach without fear of being stabbed by somebody."*

The stakeholders gave these reasons for saying that it is a good programme: a change in the attitude of learners; learners feel protected and safe; fights have been reduced; schools

are conscious of hygienic practices; and people no longer fear being stabbed in the schoolyard. Unlike the SSP, here the views of the stakeholders were based on the experiences of the stakeholders after the implementation of the programme.

7.4.5   Contextual factors that have an influence on implementation

Responses to questions about contextual factors (in Tables 7.2 to 7.4 of Appendices L12-N14) reveal that these answers were influenced by the location of the schools. In some cases, the responses were similar. School H, which is in a rural area, indicated contextual factors as drugs, lack of access control at the gate, and the presence of bottle stores and a beer hall near the school. The principal said,

> *Yes of course there are contextual factors. There was a shack claiming to be selling sweets, but we discovered that they were also selling drugs. We took this issue to the SGB who contacted the person responsible.*

The SGB said contextual factors play a role.

> *Yes, businesses around the school like spaza shops are said to be selling drugs and it is not easy for us to face the [people] responsible. We also have a problem of people coming from outside the schoolyard [and] standing at the gate especially on Fridays. Motorists who come and drive recklessly in front of our learners."*

School I, which is in a township, indicated that they were disturbed by lazy learners, music from nearby houses, shebeens, liquor, and a lack of parental involvement in the education of their children. The principal expressed this saying, *"We have a problem with the surroundings. Learners [were] lazy to work but now they are working." The* SGB mentioned the issue of disturbing music when they said,

> *Yes, there is music three meters from here. They [play music] full blast and that disturbs the learners. There are also some shebeens around, and before the children reach home they pass via the shebeens. There is also the problem of dagga and they take drugs like Nyaope.*

School J, which is in a township, said complicating factors for them were getting the police to come to school to search the learners, taverns and shebeens near the school, over-age learners, hawkers who sell cigarettes to the learners, teenage pregnancy and drug abuse. The SGB focused on issues like taverns and hawkers. They said *"We do have*

contextual factors like taverns. Over-age learners go to the taverns, and we have a problem with hawkers who sell cigarettes to the learners. The SMT highlighted the issue of teenage pregnancy. They said, *"Yes, we are surrounded by poor families and these results in [a] high teenage pregnancy rate.* Teachers highlighted the issue of drug abuse.

Drugs and liquor were common contextual factors irrespective of whether schools were in townships or rural areas. These and other common factors seem to be factors that are beyond the control of the schools, whereas the unique contextual factors relate more directly to where the schools are located and their surrounding communities.

7.4.6   Barriers to implementation of the CFS programme

Barriers to implementation also differed from one school to another, although there were commonalities too. For example, in Schools H and I, the principals, the SGB and the teachers raised the issue of finances as a major barrier to implementing the CFS programme. Another barrier which was raised by the SGB and SMT in Schools H and I and the teachers in School J was the lack of parental involvement in their children's education. This was an issue that emerged for the SSP as well. The SMT in School H said, *"Some learners stay alone at home. When you need to invite parents, they just pick anyone [off] the streets [to] come with them [and claim] to be their parents."*

There seems to be a problem with lack of parental involvement in the education of the children generally, but especially in the schools that are referred to as 'black schools'. The principal of School J and the SMT in School H also flagged the shortage of teachers as another barrier. They believe that for this programme to be well implemented, the department will need to hire more teachers. They also view the CFS programme as just another extra responsibility given to them, and say they will need more teachers in order to implement it properly. The principal of School J was emphatic about this:

> *The major barrier is lack of personnel. Look I cannot involve educators on issues that are outside their curriculum specification like the CFS programme. Educators are involved in many things, for example assessment. They do not have the time. Workload is a barrier. Another example is that of the feeding scheme. We are expected to serve all the learners with food. We [struggle] to serve the*

learners because the classes become very dirty. [This has] become a burden for us.

The views of the stakeholders on the CFS programme as an add-on programme seem to be a major barrier. They think that they should not have to implement the programme alone, but extra people should be hired to help with this.

7.4.7   Coping strategies in dealing with barriers to the implementation

As several barriers to the implementation of the CFS programme were cited, there was a need to look at how the stakeholders were nevertheless implementing the CFS programme, so I asked them about what strategies they were using to overcome these barriers. All the stakeholders in Schools H, I and J said they had implemented strategies. The principal of School H said that they had established committees. The SGB said that they had to use school funds. For example, they said, *"These barriers … like the one of buildings; they go deep in the coffers of the school as we try to fix broken furniture, broken windows and broken doors."* The SMT indicated that they were helping to control access at the gate, but said, *"It is hard. We sometimes help to control access at the gate but you cannot search learners because we are afraid [for] our [own] safety."*

In School I, the principal reported that they coped by using money from the Department of Education. The SGB said, *"We try to call the parents in cases where these learners stay with their grannies"*. The SMT was the only stakeholder that felt that they could not deal with the barriers to implementation. The RCL said, *"To cope, we always try to come up with a new method. For example [with] troublesome learners, we check their records and that [guides] us [in] what to do."*

In School J, the principal said, *"We create time, though it is difficult."* The SGB indicated that they coped by drawing in the different stakeholders. They said, *"We try our level best to involve stakeholders, even though some of them have [the] tendency to ignore us."* The SMT said, *"We cope by identifying learners [who are bullies] and sort[ing] them out. Police were supposed to come and scare them."* The teachers' strategy was to hold meetings, address the school and to invite the parents, the SGB and

organisations like the South African Student Congress (COSAS). The RCL also cope by involving the teachers and the police. Coping strategies by school can be summarized as follows:

School H

- Establishing committees.
- The use of school funds.
- Involving SMT in controlling access at the gate.
- Resolving conflicts amicably.
- Confiscating dangerous weapons.
- Involving the police.

School I

- The use of funds from the Department of Education.
- Involving the parents.
- Checking the records of troublesome learners.

School J

- Involving different stakeholders.
- Identifying learners who are bullies.
- Involving other stakeholders like parents, SGB and COSAS.
- Involving the police.

What emerged is that the stakeholders have found a variety of strategies to help them cope with the difficulties and barriers to implementing the CFS programme. The differences in the coping strategies are context-based, as are the barriers. Each school had to find ways of getting around the issues creatively and within their limited resources.

7.4.8 Different stakeholders' understanding of what is expected from them in the implementation of the CFS programme

All the stakeholders in School H appeared to have a clear understanding of what was expected from them, although the SMT members were a little unsure. The SGB admitted, *"Yes, it needs a lot of commitment to the extent that if they need us [urgently] tomorrow or now, we need to be present."* The SMT said *"We think we are in the process of a learning curve. This means we learn by doing. We are still learning. We [need] more information either from documents or the hierarchy above.* The teachers added to this saying, *"Yes, we can add by saying most of the time when we have meetings concerning this programme. Those who went for that course came and explain[ed] everything about this issue."*

In School I only the principal, the SMT and RCL seemed to understand what was expected from them. The principal said, *"Yes, we have discussed the CFS. We have discussed this with the RCL. We are all aware of what is expected of us"*. The SGB said, *"Not really. Maybe [with] the help of someone, we [might] be able to follow the programme."* The teachers said *"Not necessarily."*

In School J the principal and the SGB said that they did not understand what is expected of them. The principal said, *"I do not have a clear understanding because I was not here when the programme started"*. The SGB said *"No, [it is] not clear"*.

Where the various stakeholders had not been trained to implement the CFS programme, they seemed unclear about what was expected from them, which could account for these differences. However, this may affect the overall implementation of the CFS programme, and was contrary to what the project coordinator led me to believe.

As far as the project coordinator was concerned, the expectations of stakeholders had been made very clear. He said,

> *Yes I think so. Obviously, the department is supposed to direct the programme. UNICEF is obviously supposed to pay for the programme and hold us*

accountable in terms of financial management. The LINK and the University of Limpopo are supposed to do the work. So yes, I think it is all clear.

Lack of understanding of what was expected from them in implementing the CFS programme by some of the stakeholders, seems to indicate that there is something wrong with the implementation of the programme. This may mean that the DOE has not done its duty of informing the schools and the stakeholders of what their role should be and this will affect the implementation of the programme.

7.4.9   Plan to implement outstanding issues

On the issue of the outstanding issues, all the stakeholders in Schools H, I and J, even those who had initially said that they did not know about the CFS programme, said that they had plans to make the schools safer. They seemed to contradict themselves. Only the RCL in School H indicated that they did not have an immediate plan, but would like to be involved in the CFS programme in the future. They said *"No, we do not know about the plan but we know what could happen; that the CFS should be part of our learning…."* The fact that stakeholders had some plan, even if they had been unaware of the CFS programme and not received training, might be indicative that they would at least like the CFS programme implemented sometime in the future. The nature of their plans can be summarized per school as follows:

School H

- To revisit all that the school is doing and align that with the six CFS principles.
- To involve parents.

School I

- To involve other stakeholders like priests, the police and health care workers.
- To hold frequent meetings.
- To renovate the toilets.
- To fix the windows.

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School J

- To ensure that classrooms, especially window frames and doors, are secure.
- To engage the RCL and organize workshops to deal with outstanding issues.
- To involve the police.
- To have proper training on the implementation.
- To deal with the problem of alcohol or drugs in school.
- To reduce fights amongst the learners.

Looking at these plans, it becomes evident that they are not the same. They seem to be influenced by the contexts in which schools find themselves and their priorities.

7.4.10 Concerns (Agenda)

A question was asked about any concerns that stakeholders had about the implementation of the CFS programme. The concerns can be summarized per school as follows:

School H

- Health issues like toilet facilities.
- Finances.
- Lack of parental support.
- Learners coming to school late.
- Learners who come to school without uniform.
- Lack of security personnel.
- Infrastructure.
- Shortage of staff.
- Lack of water.

School I

- Lack of commitment of the different stakeholders.
- Lack of cleanliness.
- Child abuse.

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- Poor education and results.
- Toilets and sanitation in general.
- Finances.
- Lack of communication from the other stakeholders.

School J

- Outlets selling liquor and drugs.
- Over-age learners.
- Lack of parental support in the safety of learners.
- Learners who do not study.
- Drug abuse by learners.
- Teenage pregnancy.
- Teacher absenteeism.
- Lack of involvement by community stakeholders, like the police, psychologists and social workers.
- Learners who are ill-disciplined, including those who come to school late and despise other learners.

Schools in the townships such as School I and J were more concerned about lack of support from the parents, drug abuse and lack of the involvement of other professionals like the police, psychologists and social workers. Schools I and J seemed to be aware of the services that they could get from other professionals, but said they did not have access to their services. The SMT in School I were concerned about the *"lack of team work, parental and learner involvement"*. The teachers in School J listed the *"lack of involvement of different stakeholders like psychologists, the police and social workers"* as issues needing to be addressed.

The coordinator of the programme was more concerned about the priorities in the Department of Education. To him, the fact that the Department was already focusing on

the implementation of the new curriculum known as CAPS, may relegate the implementation of the CFS programme to the background.

> *Well, I think really what I have just mentioned; in addition, you know, I am not sure what the status of the Child Friendly Schools framework is now because the work was done with UNICEF, I think in 2008 really, with the development of the guidelines under the different Director General within the Department of Basic Education. I think now the government's priority has all to do with CAPS and delivering the new curriculum. So I think the main concern would be whether this framework is still visible and whether the government would be prepared to use it. I think it is an excellent programme because the six characteristics are comprehensive and coherent and a lot of other things ... schools do not experience interventions as coherent because they get a bit of training on school development planning, followed by a bit of training on HIV/AIDS, followed by a bit of training on curricula, and the package is never put together, and the Child Friendly Schools framework put that package together for them. So yes, to go back to the question, I would want to see the provincial and national departments using the framework systematically to really make this use of it.*

The comment by the coordinator seems to indicate that there has been no sustained follow-up on the implementation of the CFS programme, as he said that he was not aware of its status at the time of the study. If what he said is true, then there is very little chance of the CFS ever being properly implemented, and the DOE should be held accountable. It also suggests the DOE is not doing its job. They are supposed to offer on-going support and follow programmes up when they have been implemented in schools, but this does not seem to be the case with the CFS programme. If nothing is done, the CFS programme may end up being a failure.

7.5   Conclusions

Looking at the profiles of schools, they differ in terms of resources and facilities. They also differ in terms of disciplinary problems that they are faced with. The differences seem to have an influence on the manner in which they approach the CFS programme. Further, this chapter discussed responses from different stakeholders in Schools H, I and J. The discussion highlights several issues generated by the responses. As for CFS programme (like in the case of SSP as discussed in the previous chapter), multiple sources of evidence (**observation**, **interviews** and **documents)** were used instead of relying only on a single method of data collection.

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Developing themes provided focus during the data analysis, in sifting and winnowing data for the report, as Stake (1995a:121) says, telling what is needed and leaving the rest to the reader. The use of themes was done in line with Stake's (1995a:87) advice, as a way of helping readers to develop alternative interpretations from what has been presented.

On the implementation of the CFS programme, even in the schools where this process has begun, it does not seem to be properly implemented. This is evident from the different ways schools have been implementing the programme. The differences range from those who focused expressly on the six principles of the CFS programme to those who had never heard of the programme. And this in turn suggests that the DOE placed an extremely low priority on the CFS programme, and has not done its work in keeping schools informed and helping them implement it, to the extent that it has not been implemented at all in some schools. The following chapter will discuss the findings, the conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER 8

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1   Introduction and limitations of the study

This chapter concludes the study by reflecting on the purpose of the study, limitations, naturalistic generalization, findings, lessons learnt from the use of responsive evaluation approach, recommendations and contribution of the study to the field of knowledge.

8.2   Reflection on the purpose of the study

The purpose of the study was fourfold:

1.   To understand the way in which Safer Schools Programmes are being implemented.

2.   To provide information that will contribute towards policy formulation in programme implementation.

3.   To reflect on the use of the responsive evaluation approach in the evaluation of programme implementation.

4.   To contribute to decisions about programme implementation at secondary schools.

The data collected were in line with the purpose of the study - to provide evidence of the implementation of the programmes and to reveal information that will contribute towards policy formulation on safety in schools and the CFS programme. The data was also used to reflect on the use of the responsive evaluation approach, as discussed in Chapter 2. The study provided data that could contribute to decisions about programme implementation in secondary schools in the future.

8.3   Limitations of the study

The study has certain limitations. The main limitation lies in the scope of the study, as it only involved seven schools for the SSP and three schools for the CFS programme. It would have been beneficial to involve more schools than just those selected to participate

in the study, but this was not possible due to limited time and financial resources.

Secondly, the study involved mainly school-based participants (principals, SGBs, SMTs - in the case of CFS programme, key teachers and RCLs). Only the manager in the Department of Education and the coordinator of the CFS programme were not school based. It would have been more useful to involve the other stakeholders who are not school-based but who play an important role in implementing the SSP and the CFS programme. These are stakeholders like the police, social workers, nurses and psychologists. Leaving them out of the study might have failed to expose certain critical issues that are essential in the implementation of the programme. For example, as stakeholders outside the school, they may be able to highlight on the extent to which school-based stakeholders are committed to the implementation of the programme.

Thirdly, the little time given to school visits is also a limitation. As indicated, the visits were done between 26 May 2010 and 5 October 2011. In between, there was also a Soccer World Cup and a public servants strike that disrupted the visits to schools. More time in the schools might have produced other data that could have been beneficial to the study.

Fourthly, the absence of minutes of meetings held at the Department of Education (DOE) about the implementation of the SSP and the CFS programme is a limitation. I would have liked to read those minutes, but there are no minutes of any of these meetings.

8.4   Naturalistic generalization

This study focused on the implementation of the SSP and the CFS programme using the responsive evaluation approach advocated by Stake. I used a case study approach with the cases being the seven schools (for the SSP) and the three schools (in the case of CFS programme). Furthermore, I hoped to reflect on the usefulness of the responsive approach for evaluating the implementation of the SSP (during Phase1 of the study) and the CFS programme (during Phase 2 of the study), with a view to contributing towards policy formulation and decisions about programme implementation in secondary schools.

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On account of this approach, the results of the study should be generalizable, by using what Stake (1978:6; 1995a:63; 2004a:175) and Stake and Trumbull (in Belok and Haggerson, 1982) refer to as naturalistic generalization. As already indicated, this means that the details provided in this study and the experiences that the reader has should be able to help him/her to generalize to other cases. The difference between naturalistic generalization and standard generalization is that in standard generalization, generalization is based on a sample that is representative of the population (that is, the sample should be large enough in order to make inferences to the whole population). Naturalistic generalization is not based on large samples, but on the experiences of the reader instead. When a reader reads a report, they should be able to generalize the findings to other contexts, based on their own experiences.

8.5   Findings

8.5.1   The SSP

8.5.1.1 Knowledge about the existence of the programme

When asked if they knew about the SSP, there were varying responses from the participants as a result of several issues. It became apparent that different interventions were being implemented in the schools and there was also poor and confusing communication between the schools and the DOE.

First, I found that the participants confused the SSP with the CFS programme. Some of the stakeholders were trained by an organization called LINK that was implementing the CFS programme. The two different interventions confused the participants. The DOE seems to place more emphasis on introducing interventions without examining how well they are being implemented and whether they are making any difference. My experience confirms Bester and du Plessis's (2010) observation of this very thing. It also helps to account for the very different views that stakeholders have about a particular programme and their varied responses about the existence of the SSP. Some knew all about it whereas others had not even heard about it.

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Lack of knowledge about the existence of the SSP manifested itself in different ways. For example, except for Child Friendly Schools by LINK, the principal in School G only knew about SSP because somebody from the circuit office had told them about the adopt-a-cop concept. The RCL in the same school confused the SSP with another programme known as The National Institute for Crime Prevention and the Reintegration of Offenders (NICRO). This emanated during my follow-up questions when interviewing the participants.

I would contend that the lack of knowledge about the programme may be partly due to the manner in which the Department of Education communicates with schools. In some cases, the information reaches the office of the principal but it is kept there and not passed on to the other stakeholders. By withholding this knowledge, the principal has 'an edge' over the other staff members and stakeholders.

Other factors include a lack of advocacy by the DOE. Instead of visiting schools to advocate and support the schools in the implementation of the programme, they leave that to the schools, and especially to the principals, with the result that other stakeholders are not even aware of some of these programmes. Another issue is the lack of human resources in the DOE. There are simple not enough people to deal with the different intervention programmes in schools. This results in one or two people being responsible for the implementation of various interventions in schools, and they in turn do not do their work. There are also signs of a lack of commitment to the programme, evident, for example, in the reduced budget for the implementing office for the SSP. The DOE's commitment to the programme is certainly questionable.

8.5.1.2 Implementation of the SSP in schools

The majority of stakeholders indicated that there had been no implementation of the programme, and this was confirmed by the coordinator of the programme in the DOE. There were a few who said that they were implementing the SSP. However, looking closely, I found that they were confusing the SSP with other programmes in schools. This was also revealed by the hesitant manner in which they responded to the question. My

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site visits confirmed that there was in fact no implementation of the SSP at all.

Schools act on the issues of safety based on initiatives to deal with the circumstances that they face. These are outlined below. According to the documents I was given, implementation was supposed to have started in the year 2001/2002, but to date, there has been no implementation. This confirms what others have said on implementation issues. People like Dyer (1999) and Roper (2002) record that in developing countries in general there seem to be more emphasis on policy development and less focus on implementation. Concern over the lack of implementation of programmes was also raised by the Consortium for Research on Education, Access, Transitions and Equity (CREATE) in 2009. They write, *"A major concern is to find ways to ensure that the concerns of the Education Roadmap are integrated into new education policy and result in the implementation of programmes that have an impact"*.

My study has shown that there were a variety of factors in the DOE that contributed to the SSP not being implemented. These include inadequate commitment and lack of support, insufficient trained people on the staff and competing priorities. These reasons resonate with what Rembe (2005:303) found in the Eastern Cape:

…the implementation of education policies in the Eastern Cape encountered numerous problems and challenges that provided major obstacles in achieving transformation in one of the poorest provinces in the country. Lack of coherence and coordination of programmes and activities implemented at different levels led to contradictions and conflicts and deviations from goals of the transformation agenda. The situation was aggravated by lack of capacity, particularly at the senior and middle management levels, and among personnel from the two homelands that were incorporated in the new province. Lack of adequate financial resources coupled with unqualified financial managers led to the non-implementation of important curriculum delivery programmes.

Rembe's (2005:303) findings in the Eastern Cape indicate that the absence of support from the DOE is a major obstacle to the implementation of programmes. This means that even if the schools are willing and committed to the implementation of a programme, without assistance from the DOE, they may not be able to implement it.

8.5.1.3 Criteria to evaluate its implementation

For a programme to be evaluated, criteria have to be established (Stake, 1995a:141). In this study, even though it was found that there was no implementation of the programme; respondents were asked to outline criteria that they would use to evaluate it if it had been implemented. Taking the criteria into consideration and looking at literature, the stakeholders' criteria can be classified as criteria that focus on the physical aspect of a school. Verdugo and Schneider (2005:98) explain this when they write that:

The focus of a second set of safe school programs is the school physical plant. Thus, school appearance, design, and other policies about entry and leaving school grounds are important pursuits. Other physical plant activities include policies against offensive graffiti, and activities that focus on keeping school grounds clean and neat. Three broad issues are important for safety programs focused on the school physical plant:

- *Visibility is an issue. Educators need to have clear views of students and their activities. Some schools use television monitors or cameras, better lighting in hallways, the removal of barriers or obstructions. In building new schools some have designed them with curved hallways rather than squares to insure greater visibility.*
- *Some schools have organized themselves so that a receptionist is the first person a visitor encounters upon entering the school building. Other schools have turned to using school resource officers or security guards.*

From my observation, the focus on the physical aspect by the participants is as a result of the potential dangers at school. They do not feel secure and fear random attacks from outside the school premises. This is as a result of the levels of distrust that they have in their communities. They feel that the communities where the schools are situated are not supportive of what the schools are doing. Teachers in School A expressed this when they said *"How can we as stakeholders help each other to implement the programme? There are shebeens near the school … and parents who sell drugs"*. Teachers in School B also expressed their distrust of people in the community when they said, *"People who are selling dangerous stuff like drugs near the school - like a lady who seems to be selling sweets, whereas she is selling dangerous stuff"*.

8.5.1.4 The views of stakeholders on the implementation of the SSP

The participants in the study believed that the implementation of the SSP would be a good idea, as it would help them deal with the serious safety challenges they experience

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in their schools.

This is in line with what I observed during school visits. I found that all participants wanted to be safe at school and expected to be protected from harm, as is their constitutional right. Sections 12 and 24 of the South African Constitution stipulates that everyone has the right to be protected from all forms of violence and be in an environment that is not harmful to their health and wellbeing.

Something to note though is that even the learners, who are looked on as part of a problem in terms of safety in schools, want to be safe. They want to be safe from other learners and teachers. Teachers want to be safe from learners who come to school with dangerous weapons like guns and knives. Learners in School A singled this out as one of their concerns. They listed some of these, saying, *"shebeens, weapons that learners bring to the school and the working habits of [other] learners"*. Teachers in School E expressed their fear of learners as a concern when they said their concerns included *"learners who carry guns, [use] drugs and cell phones and [poor] communication from the Department…"*.

8.5.1.5 Factors likely to hinder or facilitate the implementation

From the researcher's observations, issues that are most likely to hinder the implementation of the SSP are issues that emanate from outside the school premises, such as lack of support from the communities and the DOE. These are the issues that the schools cannot resolve on their own, and they should be supported by the community. In my observation, I found no support from the community; even the SGBs are not available for school issues, and this was evident during the visits to schools. It was even difficult to get the SGBs to come to school for interviews. The principal in School A expressed lack of support from the community as one of the factors that was likely to hinder the implementation of the SSP. The RCL in School B also indicated lack of support from the community as one of the major issues. They said *"members of the community who are not cooperative"* were cause for concern. The RCL in School E hinted about the lack of support from their community when they said they needed support from the police, and

"the involvement of parents, SGB... may facilitate" the implementation of the programme. Rembe (2005:323) commented on non-availability of members too, noting that *"some principals ... excluded SGB members from meetings ... because they are not available most times due to commitment in other businesses"*. Similarly, Singh, Mbokodi and Msila (2004:301)'s wrote that *"... parental involvement in education is beset with problems because it is influenced by a number of factors that include the parent's social class"*.

Lack of support from the DOE was raised by some of the stakeholders as one of their concerns. For example, the RCL in School C when asked to outline their concerns about the implementation of the SSP said, *"School facilities like laboratories and support from the Department of Education"*. The principal of School D also raised it as a concern. He said, *"...we should also get the views of the other stakeholders like the learners, teachers and the community [and] support from the Department of Education"*. Teachers in School D said that *"not all stakeholders are fully involved. Finances may also hinder its implementation. Learners leave the school during the day. Lack of support from the Department of Education..."*. The official in the DOE admitted that there was no support or commitment to the implementation of SSP. Schools cannot be expected to implement programmes initiated by the DOE on their own.

On factors that are likely to facilitate the implementation, I found that there was great willingness on the part of all the participants to see the SSP being implemented in schools. They are so eager to deal with issues of safety that they have even started their own safety initiatives in their schools. More about these initiatives by the schools is discussed below.

8.5.1.6 Understanding of what is expected from the stakeholders
According to my observations, the majority of participants did not understand what was expected from them in the implementation of the SSP. Those who indicated that they understood what was expected from them were actually referring to the CFS programme that was being piloted in the schools at the time. This lack of understanding is therefore

not surprising because they did not know about the SSP and had not been trained for its implementation.

It is obvious that for successful implementation to happen all the stakeholders need to understand what is expected of them. Kgobe and Mbele (in Kgobe, 2001:126) made the same observation in their study on the transformation of education in South Africa. They reflected that*"[l]earners and parents, on the other hand, felt that [a] lack of understanding and not taking things seriously were hampering participation."*

8.5.1.7 Groups or individuals who may oppose the implementation

Even though there is generally an understanding that no one would oppose the implementation of the SSP, others indicated that there would be opposition from certain learner groups and sell liquor and drugs in the school vicinity.

From my observation only those learners who benefit from the unsafe conditions at schools are likely to oppose the implementation of the programme, like perpetrators of violence and bullies. For example, I was shocked to discover during one of my site visits that certain learners were actually making other learners pay to access the school toilets**!**

8.5.1.8 Concerns (Agenda)

Participants in all the schools raised concerns about the implementation of the SSP. These are matters that they would like to have addressed in the agenda should they have had an opportunity to meet with the other stakeholders. The concerns raised (see Chapter 6) can be grouped into different clusters and included concerns related to learners, concerns related to the teachers, concerns related to physical facilities and resources, concerns related to the social environment of the school and concerns related to the community and other stakeholders.

I found that each stakeholder group raised concerns based on their interests. Principals were concerned about police who are not cooperative; a lack of security at the school gates; learners, teachers and parents who abuse drugs; dangerous weapons on the school

premises; lack of support and communication from the DOE; teenage pregnancies; and a lack of support from the community.

The SGBs were concerned about the lack of water; lack of discipline on the part of learners; drugs and liquor; shebeens near the schools; dangerous weapons; lack of training; sexual harassment; lack of support and communication from the DOE and the community; and the involvement of different stakeholders in the affairs of the schools.

Teachers were concerned about shebeens and taverns near the school premises; learners who came to school late; learners carrying dangerous weapons; parents who were selling drugs; lack of support from the community and the Department of Education; the attitude of learners towards teachers; lack of training in the implementation of the programme,; lack of resources; and lack of clarity on the roles of the different stakeholders in implementing the SSP.

RCLs were the only stakeholder group who were not afraid to expose what other learners were doing. This is reflected in their concerns, which focused on the bad behaviour of other learners: weapons brought to school; stabbings on the school premises; bad working habits of learners, learners who abuse drugs, smoke cigarettes and come late to school; lack of respect for teachers; and teenage pregnancies. They also listed shebeens; lack of school facilities like laboratories and stationery; lack of involvement by the community and professionals like social workers and the police in school issues; and uncontrolled access to the school gate. They also raised their concern about teachers, and specifically teachers who come to school but do not teach.

The RCLs were willing to give a detailed picture of things in their schools, where there was an element of reserve in the other stakeholder groups who wanted to protect the image of their institutions. For example, the RCL in School A listed shebeens, learners bringing weapons to school and having poor working habits among their concerns. And School B learners said they were concerned about *"a lot of things - troublesome learners, learners who do not do their work, learners who smoke cigarettes, [come late to school],*

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[use] cell phones and disrespect [teachers and others]…". However, the principal of School A did not raise any school-based concerns but took issue with the police who he said were uncooperative. The principal of School C was concerned about not having security guards at the gate. He felt that the *"Department of Education should provide schools with security guards"*. Teachers in School G listed their concerns as *"resources, communication from the Department of Education, [and] clarity on the activities to be done by different stakeholders"*. Unlike the learners, they did not mention anything related to other teachers.

However, what emerges is that there are many issues that schools are concerned with and this is in line with the findings of a study by Kgobe and Mbele (in Kgobe, 2001). They found that among other challenges schools were bedevilled by gang-related violence, drug-related problems, sexual harassment, bullying, theft and vandalism.

8.5.1.9 Policy on safety and security

On the acceptance of policy guidelines from the DOE on the implementation of the SSP, some stakeholders indicated that they did not have a school policy that covered the implementation of the SSP, although others said they accepted it anyway.

From my observation and documents, there is no policy covering the implementation of the SSP in schools. However, there are some documents that provide a legislative policy framework and guidelines for initiatives on safety in schools. These documents include the South African Schools Act (SASA) (1996), Alternatives to Corporal Punishment (2000), Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools (2001) and Signposts for Safe Schools Workbook (2002).

My conclusion is that even though there is no specific policy on the implementation of the SSP, schools have sufficient mandate to develop their own safety and security policies, and should not wait for policies, particularly from the DOE, because as already indicated, they may not get the necessary support.

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8.5.1.10 Decision-making on safety and security

The study showed that schools have different approaches to making decisions about safety in schools.

Most of the participants indicated that decisions are made through a democratic process, where issues are discussed and subjected to a voting process. My observations showed that even if some of the issues were subject to a vote, participants in powerful positions like the principals had an influence on the outcome. Issues are first discussed with the SMT and thereafter the entire staff is involved. This also emerged during my discussions with some of the other stakeholders. For example, some teachers complained about the manner in which decisions are taken on some issues. They blamed the principals for being selective about which issues to discuss and which should be put to the vote. Issues that did not threaten their positions were open for discussion and the voting process, whereas other issues merely arrive as information. Kgobe and Mbele's finding (in Kgobe, 2001:113) were similar:

Both educators and principals highlighted certain key problems that strained the relationships between management and staff in most schools. In Tampoetjies, for example, educators raised the concern that management decided [on] issues and told them what to do, suggesting a lack of consultation in decision-making.

Rembe (2005:309) makes a similar observation, although he was commenting on the SGBs when he writes:

Many parent SGB members criticised principals for caucusing with educators and learners before SGB meetings to solicit their support. In one group interview, a respondent made the following statement: "...most often when principals disagreed with decisions taken at SGB meetings, they frequently canvassed other members of the school community in order to alter such decisions. Some principals contended that there was nothing wrong with this practice, on the ground that decisions could be changed with changing circumstances.

This means that principals and SMTs have a lot of influence on decisions that are made. Even if the process may appear democratic, there is an influence from those who are in powerful positions like the principals.

8.5.1.11 Initiatives taken by the schools on safety

Even though the findings indicate that there was no implementation of the SSP, I found some initiatives that the schools have established in trying to make schools safe.

Among other initiatives is the development of school policy on safety. As indicated in Chapter 6 three (Schools C, D and E) have policies on safety, whereas four schools (Schools A, B, F and G) did not. The other issue to be pointed out is that looking at the policies where they exist, highlights the need for training on how to develop such policies, as most of the policies are not sufficiently detailed. They are merely outlined as one-sentence points to be taken into consideration in dealing with safety issues.

The other issue that should pointed out, as highlighted in the profiles of the schools in Chapter 6, safety initiatives by the schools tend to focus almost exclusively on the physical aspect of security. Most of them mention things like fences, gates, burglar proofing etc. which some schools already have. Some also have signage which indicates items forbidden on school premises, but these are obviously inadequate - there is a need to do much more. Roper (2002:73) highlights this need when she writes:

The development of school safety is seldom quick and easy. This is because the approach involves a range of elements, including:

- *The development of implementable policies and procedures for addressing particular problems at school level.*
- *A partnership between school law enforcement (such as rules and discipline) and state law enforcement (such as policing), which involves the community, parents and youth.*
- *Involving, mobilizing and capacitating youth in strategies, preventive projects and campaigns.*
- *Improving the efficacy of school management.*

The experiences in the USA, UK, Australia and Botswana as outlined in Chapter 4 also indicate that there is a need for more to be done on issues related to safety in schools. The need highlights just the level of support schools require to deal with issues of safety.

Findings of Phase 2

8.5.2   The CFS programme

8.5.2.1 Knowledge of the CFS programme

The majority of the respondents indicated that they knew about the CFS programme. Their knowledge indicated that the programme was being implemented and that the training workshops that were conducted on the implementation of the programme were helpful. There are however, some of the stakeholders (like the teachers in School I, and the principal, teachers and the RCL in School J) who did not know about the CFS programme.

Through informal conversations with the other stakeholders like the SMT and the coordinator of the CFS programme, I found that those who did not know about the programme had been elected into committees like the RCL after the training had taken place and the programme had been implemented. In the case of these teachers, I found that they had not participated in the training on the implementation of the CFS programme and they had also missed the report back sessions where other members who had attended the workshops reported to the other stakeholders.

This clearly suggests that those who are newly elected in school committees, as well newly appointed teachers, should be trained or gets information about all the interventions in the schools. This will help to mobilize all the stakeholders in the implementation of the CFS programme. As Campbell (2003) noted in her study, for the successful implementation of a programme all the stakeholders should know about the programme.

8.5.2.2 Implementation of the CFS programme

The majority of the stakeholders indicated that there had been some implementation of the CFS programme. The coordinator of the programme also confirmed this and said that the field workers reported to him after each and every activity in the schools. There were however some - like the SGBs in School I and School J - who said that there had been no implementation. The RCL in School J could not remember whether it had been

implemented or not. In following this up with them, I found that those who said it had not been implemented were those who had not been trained in the implementation of the CFS programme.

From observation and documents I found that the schools are approaching the implementation differently. Their focus in terms of the six CFS principles as outlined in the Implementation Guidelines is not the same. Some schools are focusing mainly on health and cleanliness (School H and I) whereas others are focusing on providing quality education (H and J). What this means is that the schools have selected the principles they want to follow in line with their immediate needs and contexts, using the standards and criteria as outlined in Chapter 5. For example, in the case of School H, their criterion is addressing the health needs of the whole school community and establishing support networks for the wellbeing of learners and educators. Other criteria used were to identify the number of orphans and vulnerable children and to provide safe water sources on school premises.

In School I, the criterion used was "safe water sources available on school premises". On quality education, the standard used at School H was "motivated staff", where the criterion was "staff volunteering to do extra work", and "learning achievement improved", where the criterion was "improved pass rates". The latter standard and criterion were also used for School J. These findings support previous studies that indicate that schools are selective in implementing programmes of this nature. Botha (2010:608) highlights this when commenting about school effectiveness: *"A school may not be able to maximize its effectiveness in terms of all criteria at the same time, but will create harmony among all criteria in the long run."*

8.5.2.3 Criteria to judge its implementation

As indicated by Stake (1995a:141), for a programme to be properly evaluated, some minimum criteria should be established. In this study respondents were asked to indicate the criteria that they used in the implementation of the CFS programme. As already indicated in Chapter 7, their responses varied.

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School H

- Establishment of committees to deal with different aspects of the CFS programme.
- Grade 12 results.
- Harmony amongst teachers and learners.
- Learners writing tests.
- Conducive learning environment.
- Parental involvement.

School I

- When the school is clean.
- Learner good behaviour.
- Reduced late coming.
- Learners wearing school uniform.
- School results.

School J

- School results.
- Worksheet to monitor how committees operate.
- Good relationship amongst teachers and learners.
- Learners respecting the RCL.

The differences in the criteria that they provided reflect their different foci on the CFS principles. There is no uniform approach in terms of their focus on the CFS principles. Some focus on health issues, others on safety and security issues in line with their needs and contexts.

8.5.2.4 The views of the stakeholders on the implementation of the programme

All participants including those who did not know about the programme said that they viewed the CFS programme as a good one because it is meant to create an environment

which is friendly and conducive for teaching and learning.

All the schools I visited were doing something related to the CFS programme. They all tried to keep learners in school during breaks, and in some of the schools, like School H, the feeding scheme was introduced as part of the CFS programme. This was revealed in my conversation with the principal. The feeding scheme helps as part of the CFS programme in that learners no longer have to leave the school premises during break, which has contributed to their safety. The SMT commented on the control of movement of learners when they said, *"It is a good thing because since it was introduced, the escalation of fights dropped drastically. There used to be instances where learners would stab each other and use drugs like dagga, but since the programme was introduced we are able to control their movements"*. Furthermore, this is in line with one of the CFS principles outlined by Department of Education and UNICEF (2008:25) which is *"A Health-promoting and Health-seeking School."*

8.5.2.5 Contextual factors that have an influence on implementation

On the issue of contextual factors that have an influence on the implementation of the CFS programme, responses varied. Some of the factors are within schools, for example, factors like late-coming and learners who are lazy. Some of the factors are external, like shebeens and drugs.

I found that there are several factors that have an influence on the implementation of the CFS programme. In one of the schools (School J) during observation, some former learners came to the school and caused problems at the gate. In another case the principal did could not give me much of his time as he was handling such a case.

Another set of observations relate to a lack of parental support. Parents do not seem to be involved in the education of their children. This was evident in that it was also difficult to get the parent component of the SGB to come to the school. The SGB in School H commented that this was a barrier to the implementation of the CFS programme. They said, *"… sometimes we have a problem with parents who do not see the necessity of attending meetings here at school to talk about development or security and [the] safety*

of learners". Teachers in School H also raised the lack of parental support as a concern. I heard the same complaint during Phase 1 of the study, as already indicated in Chapter 6.

8.5.2.6 Barriers to implementation

The lack of parental involvement and cooperation from the community in general seem to be major barriers in the implementation of the CFS programme.

From my observations, I would venture that another major barrier is the way in which schools regard the CFS programme. They do not see it as an intervention that requires their involvement as part of their school obligations. They see it as an added responsibility that needs extra staff members. This means that despite having had the training the stakeholders see it as an extra requirement to what they are already doing, and as such did not feel they could contribute much towards its successful implementation. This confirms Goba's (2009: 106) finding in her study on perceived challenges in dealing with HIV and AIDS orphans and vulnerable children. She said that *"while training helps in improving knowledge and attitudes, it does not equip the teachers with necessary skills to overcome barriers to implementation at school"*.

8.5.2.7 Coping strategies

Most of the respondents adopted different strategies to cope with the implementation of the CFS programme, although some indicated that they were unable to cope. From the researcher's observation, there have been some creative solutions for coping with the implementation of the CFS programme. Some of the schools have involved the police; others involved shops that sell flowers to help with beautifying the schools. Another observation was that the involvement of principals in the programme plays a major role. The support from principals encourages the other stakeholders to develop coping strategies with the demands of the programme, and their influence is crucial to the successful implementation of the programme. This echoes Mpungose's (2010:527-537) observation on the role of principals in schools.

8.5.2.8 Different stakeholders' understanding of what was expected of them in the implementation of the CFS Programme

The majority of the stakeholders understood what was expected from them, although there were a few who did not. From observation, I found one school where all the stakeholders understood exactly what was expected from them - School H. In School I some of the stakeholders understood what is expected from them whereas others did not. Those who did not understand in School J were those who did not attend the training workshops. They do need to be trained so that they will have a clear understanding of what is expected from them. Furthermore, if they are not trained, as Goba (2009:105) found out in his study, they may develop negative attitude towards the implementation of the programme.

8.5.2.9 Plan to implement outstanding issues

All participants indicated that they had plans to implement outstanding issues. The plans are summarized in Chapter 7 and they focused on the improvement of the physical appearance of the schools and issues of safety and security. From my observation, the plans are in line with training they received in school development plans during the CFS training workshops. As a result, most of them seemed to have an idea of what could be done to implement any outstanding issues. The plans are also in line with the individual needs and contexts of the schools.

8.5.2.10 Concerns (Agenda)

From the responses, it is clear that the respondents had several concerns and issues about the implementation of the CFS programme. Their concerns as already outlined in Chapter 7, seemed to vary from one school to another.

From the researcher's observation, major concerns are a lack of finances and ongoing support from LINK, the NGO that coordinated the implementation of the programme, and the DOE. Without ongoing support, the implementation of the CFS programme may not be sustainable. The DOE needs to make the CFS programme a priority and provide sustained support for the schools as they continue to implement the programme. Goba

(2009:106) in her study about Life Orientation teachers confirms that this is vital: *"Ongoing support needs to be provided by the Department of Education, school management and contracted trainers to ensure that … teachers are given assistance to implement the outcomes of the training."*

Training workshops alone are not enough. There is a need to assist and support the stakeholders at the implementation stage of the programme.

8.6   Conclusion

8.6.1   Substantive issues on the implementation of the SSP

The study concludes by highlighting the main findings as follows:

- There has been no implementation of the SSP in schools. This was evident from the observations during school visits and discussions with the participants.

- The participants in schools did not even know about the SSP. When talking to them about the SSP, they spoke only of the CFS programme - a different programme that focuses on other issues as well, like rights-based and inclusive schools, effective schools, quality education, schools that promote health and are gender-sensitive, schools that promote equity and equality, and have community partnerships. This indicates that the issue of SSP was never properly communicated to schools, despite the professed needs of school-level stakeholders to feel safer in schools.

- There is no policy for the implementation of the SSP. Neither the participants from the schools nor the DOE could produce any document to this effect. The only policy documents on safety in schools are those that were developed by the schools themselves, and these are very general policies on safety, not focused on a particular programme like the SSP.

- Schools have concerns that need to be addressed, especially by their communities and the DOE who they experience as unsupportive. There was no evidence of support from the communities and the DOE; the schools have been left to do things on their own.

- Decisions-making about safety and security issues is dominated by those who are in powerful positions like the principals and SMTs. This was evident even during

discussions in meetings.

- The CFS programme is being implemented in some schools. In these schools, they have selected from the six principles of the CFS programme those in line with their needs. This means that the schools have not implemented all six principles but have chosen those they regard as most important initially. For example, School H placed much emphasis on safety and security issues because of the threats of gangsters in their village, and similarly with the issue of health as they have had problems with unhygienic toilets. School I emphasised health issues and the cleanliness of the school because they have a dumping site right outside the school. School J focused on involving professionals like the police, psychologists and social workers as they have problems with drug abuse and teenage pregnancies in their school and want to form partnerships with the community.

8.6.2   Reflections on the use of responsive evaluation approach

On the use of responsive evaluation approach, I would like to highlight its strengths, limitations, lessons learnt and its appropriateness for use in this study, as follows:

The strength of responsive evaluation approach

- I found the responsive evaluation approach helpful in approaching the participants in the field with an open mind. The data provided by the participants was used for adapting the evaluation questions.

- It helped me follow up immediately on issues that were not clear during the visits to schools.

- I was able to interact with the participants to such an extent that we could discuss issues and they could raise their concerns informally.

- It helped me to understand how the participants felt about the implementation of the SSP from different perspectives, based on their experiences in the schools.

- I was able to use more than one method of data collection. This helped in confirming or disconfirming what other stakeholders had said on a particular issue.

- It helped me to understand the complexities involved in implementing

programmes in schools.

- It also helped to provide information that could be helpful to policy makers when planning for the implementation of programmes in schools. For example, policy makers should be aware that there is a lack of community- and parental participation in schools.

Limitations of responsive evaluation approach

- The use of responsive evaluation approach needs much time and patience.
- I had to be careful not to become side-tracked by issues raised by the participants.
- There was also the temptation to take sides with some of the participants as they raised issues during my school visits.
- In some instances, the participants liked to dominate the discussions. This posed a challenge as they could then easily digress from the topic under discussion.
- Validation and verification of data by the participants was challenging as they were not willing to respond to the transcripts sent to them for checking.

Lessons learnt from the use of responsive evaluation approach can be outlined as follows:

- The use of responsive evaluation approach needs patience. In some instances the participants cancelled their appointments only the day before the visit.
- There were unplanned interruptions, like some of the participants had to attend urgent meetings like funerals or over-night meetings organized by the Department of Education at short notice.
- The use of the approach taught me to be flexible in dealing with issues. As one learns about new issues in the field, one needs to adjust one's initials understanding of issues in line with the new issues.
- The researcher should always strive to remain in control of the evaluation process. If not, it is easy to digress and focus on other emerging issues.
- It is important to have listening and writing skills, to be able listen carefully to what the participants are saying and record this accurately without losing any of the meaning.

- Some of the participants looked upon the researcher for help in dealing with the challenges they were facing.

Its appropriateness for use in this study

The use of responsive evaluation approach was appropriate in that I was able to respond to concerns and issues as raised by the different stakeholders. It was also appropriate in addressing the research questions of the study, as outlined in Chapter 1. Furthermore, it was also appropriate in that after finding that there had been no implementation of the SSP, I was able to respond by evaluating the implementation of the CFS programme instead.

8.7   Recommendations

Based on the above conclusions, this study makes the following recommendations:

- The DOE and communities where schools are located should give more support to schools. This can be done by being available and visit schools whenever they are needed.
- The DOE and communities where school are situated should deal with the issue of taverns and shebeens near school premises.
- Educate parents to be responsible and not to use learners to sell drugs.
- The participants should be properly trained before the implementation of any programme in schools. This will help them to cope with the challenges and have a positive attitude towards the implementation.
- The DOE should treat the safety of school-based stakeholders as a priority in their budget. This means that more resources should be allocated to issues of safety and security in schools.
- The issue of safety in schools should be approached in a holistic way, and not by focusing solely on the physical aspect but also on the social environment of the school. There is a need to learn from international experiences and emulate what has worked in other countries, like using the curriculum to reach learners in schools. Another lesson is that initiatives should involve learners in order to ensure sustainability and help them to take ownership of the programme. Families

and the whole community need to become involved in dealing with problems in schools.

- The DOE should develop an explicit policy on safety issues in schools.
- More studies should be carried out on safety in schools using a responsive evaluation approach.
- Coordinators on safety issues should be appointed at different provincial levels - at schools, within circuits, districts and the provinces.
- Programmes on safety in schools should be implemented as soon as possible as many stakeholders in schools do not feel safe. There is also a distrust of communities where the schools are located.
- The DOE should take advantage of the initiatives taken by the schools in the implementation of the programmes.
- The DOE should engage other stakeholders in the implementation of programmes in schools like NGOs and other institutions like universities. This will help where there is no capacity in terms of implementation.

8.8   Contribution of the study

This study is meant to contribute in the field of programme evaluation, especially to implementation evaluation and the use of the responsive evaluation approach. This was done by looking at the experiences of the participants in the implementation of the SSP and CFS programme.

The study contributes to the existing literature by giving insight into the implementation of the CFS programme in schools. It also provides details of the experiences and concerns of the participants in schools when implementing programmes. Schools tend to focus on the aspects of the programme in line with their contexts. For example, those that are surrounded by unclean environment tend to emphasise the issue of health whereas those that are in an unsafe environment like being surrounded by gangs, tend to emphasise safety and security. It further highlights the difference between what appears on paper about an implementation schedule and the implementation itself. According to the documents, the SSP was supposed to have been implemented from the year 2001. The

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study indicates that there has been no implementation at all. In some instances schools are operating without policy on safety issues, and the DOE itself does not have a policy on the implementation of the SSP. The major contribution is that for the schools to succeed in the implementation of programmes there is a need for all stakeholders to play their role and that schools be supported by the community where they are based and the DOE in particular. Further, teachers saw the CFS Programme as imposing an additional burden on their time, which they were reluctant to carry. This is an issue that the DOE and its provincial counterparts need to take into account when designing such programmes.

The study also gives a picture of what is happening in schools on issues that affect teaching and learning, and should be helpful to the different stakeholders who are school-based and policy makers in their planning for the implementation of the SSP.

Concerning the responsive evaluation approach, this study highlights certain issues for researchers. This includes that, when using it in a developing country like South Africa, evaluators should be patient, flexible and have listening, writing and observation skills. One of the challenges researchers may face is that participants alter appointments any time they like. They are also often not willing to talk to outsiders. This approach also has weaknesses, as already indicated. On the other hand, it helps in that it is flexible and it can be used in different fields of study like education and health. Another contribution is that the responsive evaluation approach has changed over time from its earlier position to the extent that it seems to be contradicting itself. When it started, much emphasis was placed on the use of qualitative approaches in programme evaluation, and criticised the use quantitative approaches. Later, the use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches was advocated in programme evaluation.

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APPENDICES