THE LEADERSHIP ROLE OF PRIMARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN ECONOMICALLY DISADVANTAGED AREAS AFFECTED BY HIV AND AIDS

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A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of

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DECLARATION

I declare that *The leadership role of primary school principals in economically disadvantaged areas affected by HIV and AIDS* is my own work, that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

Vithagan Rajagopaul   **November 2008**

Signed :…………………

UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE

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KEY WORDS

Leadership

Primary School Principals

HIV and AIDS

Poverty

Quality of teaching and learning

Relationships among education, poverty and HIV and AIDS

Instructional role

Political role

Strategy

Learner needs

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AUM NAMASIVAYA

Finally, I thank the Supreme Lord Siva, for grace and blessings and for everything else that I am unaware of.

Thank you
Vithagan Rajagopaul

ABSTRACT

THE LEADERSHIP ROLE OF PRIMARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN ECONOMICALLY DISADVANTAGED AREAS AFFECTED BY HIV AND AIDS

This study forms part of the broad theme on the impact of HIV and AIDS on school-going learners sponsored by the Dynamics for Building a Better Society programme of the University of the Western Cape and the VLIR Partnership.

HIV and AIDS poses a unique challenge to society in that it is a private disease transmitted mainly through unprotected sex that still has no known cure. A challenge to society invariably challenges schools. Primary school principals are obligated to respond because learners in the 5 to 14 year age range provide an opportunity for education, advocacy, prevention, treatment and support.

The research problem concentrates on the responsibility of principals to affect the quality of education whilst attempting to limit the impact of poverty and HIV and AIDS. The research question focuses on what primary school principals can do to affect the quality of education whilst attempting to limit the impact of poverty and HIV and AIDS. Three subsidiary questions guided the research. Firstly, what characteristics of meaningful school leadership found in the literature are useful to principals in delivering good quality education? Secondly, what are the perspectives of one school community on the role of principals in schools affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS? Lastly, how will the theory generated by responses to the preceding questions be integrated to provide a possible solution to the research problem?

The literature review produced a guide to good practice that focused on school leadership theories and developed the relationships between education, poverty and HIV and AIDS. The study is embedded in the qualitative paradigm since it seeks and in-depth opinion of participants. The constructivist and interpretivist approaches guided the research because participants constructed their interpretation of the role of principals using their experiences, values and needs.

A case study design incorporating the grounded theory approach was used to collect, analyse and interpret data from learners, parents and teachers of one school community in Khayelitsha, Cape Town. Questionnaires, interviews and focus group interviews were used to collect data. The guide to good practice was integrated with the perspectives of the participants to provide a strategy for principals, that when implemented would affect the education-poverty-HIV and AIDS relationship, to improve the quality of education whilst attempting to limit poverty and HIV and AIDS.

The instructional, political and managerial roles were used as a framework, to integrate the findings of the research to produce the strategy. The instructional and the political roles were prioritised because managerial roles are well documented and, in the context of poverty and HIV and AIDS, the managerial role is directed by the instructional and political roles.

Conclusions that informed the strategy were: the primacy of the instructional role; aggregating other forms of leadership into the political role; utilising the education-poverty-HIV and AIDS relationship as a system; advocacy of core functions; prioritising learner needs; proactively responding to poverty and HIV and AIDS; and recognising the value of research.

Recommendations based on the conclusions are directed to all participants in education.

November 2008

ETHICAL ISSUES

In view of the commitment that I had given all participants in the research concerning the anonymity of their identity I have omitted the names of the learners, parents, teachers and principals that participated in the research process. Parents are referred to as Code number X, where X represents some number. Learners, the most vulnerable of all the research participants, were protected because of their potential to be victimised. Some learners revealed sensitive information that could have offended affected persons resulting in possible retribution. My duty as the researcher required that no harm was caused to any of the participants. One of my points of departure in this thesis is that every person has the right to be respected, and that the views they express, will be kept confidential and that they will remain anonymous.

Notwithstanding the impersonal labelling of persons by numbers or letters it does not undermine the authenticity of the participants views and experiences.

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ACE – Advanced Certificate in Education

AIDS – Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome

ARV - Antiretroviral

CBD – Central Business District

CEMIS – Centralised Education Management Information System

CMA – Cape Metropolitan Area

CNE – Christian National Education

CSG – Child Support Grant

DBBS – Dynamics of Building a Better Society

DFID – Department for International Development

DoE – Department of Education

EFA – Education for All

EPWP – Expanded Public Works Programme

EQ – Emotional Quotient

EST – Educator Support Team

FCG – Foster Care Grant

GT – Grounded Theory

HIV – Human Immuno-deficiency Virus

IE – Invitational Education

IQMS – Integrated Quality Management System

ISC – Information and Support Centre

KZN – Kwa Zulu-Natal

LOLT – Language of Learning and Teaching

LSM – Learner Support Materials

MDG – Millennium Development Goals

MSA – Multi Sectoral Approach

NAESP – National Association of Elementary School Principals

NCS – National Curriculum Statement

NCSL – National Council of State Legislatures

NGO – Non Governmental Organisations

NS – Norms and Standards

OBA – Outcomes-Based Assessment

OBE – Outcomes-Based Education

OVC – Orphans and Vulnerable Children

PLT – Professional Learning Teams

PM – Performance Management

QIDS UP – Quality Improvement Development Support and Upliftment
Programme

SADTU – South African Democratic Teachers Union

SASA – South African Schools Act

SDT – Staff Development Team

SEN – Special Educational Needs

SES – Socio-Economic Status

SGB – School Governing Body

SIP – School Improvement Plan

SMT – School/Senior Management Team

SNOC – Schools as Nodes of Care

SOAP – Social Old Age Pension

TB - Tuberculosis

UK – United Kingdom

UPE - Universal Primary Education

UN – United Nations

UNAIDS – Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS

UNDP – United Nations Development Programme

USA – United States of America

VCT – Voluntary Counselling and Testing

WCED – Western Cape Education Department

WHO – World Health Organisation

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The challenge created by HIV and AIDS goes beyond the medical sphere of human existence. Unlike other medical conditions the influence of the HI virus also impacts on the social, political and spiritual dimensions of our lives. The scale of the infection, the nature of transmission and the current inability to find a cure are critical elements that distinguish HIV and AIDS from other life-threatening conditions. In subsequent paragraphs I refer to "the challenge" as the challenge created by HIV and AIDS since there may be other challenges that might be initiated by various causes.

As a social process education assumes the role of villain and saviour: Villain when education fails to equip society to deal with the challenge created by HIV and AIDS, and saviour when education plays its meaningful and rightful role in providing the foundations for treatment, care, support and prevention. Consequently the school, as the second educational institution after the home, has to accept the challenge presented by HIV and AIDS. The school reluctantly accepts the challenge as it has to deal with its own mandate of improving the quality of teaching and learning.

School leaders, particularly principals, are faced with the daunting task of responding to this challenge not only because it is their legal responsibility, by virtue of their position in the school system, but also because it is their moral responsibility. When principals are chosen as leaders by their school communities, they are given the responsibility to develop the community they serve. Developing the community involves the provision of quality teaching and learning for the learners of the community and the physical, social, emotional, intellectual and spiritual development of learners in the short term and the community in the long term.

The challenge is complicated by the pressure placed on schools to raise the current low levels of literacy and numeracy attained by school learners [Western Cape Education Department (WCED), 2006]. Moreover, the challenge is greatly magnified when many principals must respond in environments affected by severe poverty. What are the leadership roles required of principals to meet the challenge presented by HIV and AIDS especially in disadvantaged areas affected by poverty? This is the focus of the present study.

It is necessary to clarify that in this study I use "HIV and AIDS" because it implies a difference in condition between those that are HIV positive and those that have developed full-blown AIDS. It should also be noted that many who are affected by HIV and AIDS, are not necessarily infected. Hence the work of school leaders becomes more relevant in that their influence must include the infected and the affected. The infected have special needs as opposed to those who are only affected. The needs of the infected range from treatment to care and support, whilst the affected may need care and/or support Moreover, the special position of school leaders places the responsibility on them to work tirelessly to limit the spread of new infections.

In this chapter I present the background and motivation of the study. The theoretical framework is then developed and this leads to an exposition of the research problem, the research objectives, research methodology and the research instruments. A sensitive subject of this nature demands careful thought to be given to the ethical considerations. Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary of the contents of each of the succeeding chapters

1.2 BACKGROUND TO STUDY

When Nelson Mandela asserted that "Education is the most powerful weapon you can use to change the world" (Smart, 2004:1), he did so with conviction that education is indeed the panacea for change. In this age when disease is one of the most serious threats to the existence of humanity, this assertion by Mandela is

poignantly valid in the struggle against HIV and AIDS. This opinion is further amplified by the Global Campaign for Education (Smart, 2004:3), which asserts that "… seven million HIV infections could be prevented in a decade if all children in the world received a complete primary education."

The efficacy of a primary education and the vulnerability of youth have led the Department of Education to dedicate funds for the implementation of a school life skills programme, among other initiatives (Wildeman, 2001). My concern in such interventions is the absence of any reference to the quality of the education or life skills programme that is envisaged. Dedicated funding should be tied to specific deliverables that are expected. However, there is a strong belief that education per se is efficacious in the struggle against HIV and AIDS.

Kelly (2002a) concurs with the World Bank (2002) that "education matters". He explains that in the absence of either a cure or vaccine for HIV and AIDS in the immediate future, prevention must be made the focus of the response. Kelly's argument is that behaviour maintenance and behaviour modification can only be achieved through education (Kelly, 2002a:4-5). Badcock-Walters, Kelly and Gorgens (2004:4) emphasise that cognitive and literacy skills, required to make informed choices on HIV and AIDS, are dependent on the levels of education and literacy. It is therefore evident that there is a wide acceptance of the key role of education as the only effective available "vaccine" against HIV and AIDS.

Consequently the struggle against HIV and AIDS in schools must be undertaken in the context of broad education delivery that takes place on a daily basis at schools. The role of school leadership then becomes critical in the delivery of HIV and AIDS education at schools, as they are the personnel who plan, lead and manage the implementation of these programmes. Boler, Ados, Ibrahim and Shaw (2003:5), argue that "… attempts to deliver HIV and AIDS education in schools is severely constrained by a wider crisis in education." I believe that Boler et al's assertion confirms that poor quality education has an undermining influence on the HIV and AIDS effort. The World Bank (2002) cites a study of 24 low-income

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countries that confirms that efficient education systems strengthen a country's response to HIV and AIDS. Therefore, my study is based on the notion that HIV and AIDS education at schools is seriously compromised when schools fail to deliver quality education, which includes meaningful life skills education.

In their quest to evaluate the quality of education delivery the WCED conducts systemic evaluation for learners in grade 3 and grade 6 every alternate year. The Systemic Evaluation results of grade 3 and grade 6 learners in the Western Cape (WCED, 2006) are indicators of the extent to which schools are failing to perform their core roles. It is therefore relevant to ask the following questions: Have the various education departments created an environment conducive to effective education delivery? Did teachers use education as an instrument of change especially in the context of HIV and AIDS?

Jonathan (2001:13-30) wisely cautions us not to overstate the role of schooling in social transformation. She maintains that while education is expected to socially transform society, this is not always the case as the inequalities within society serve to defeat education's envisaged purpose. I believe that Jonathan's (2001) perspective on the influence of inequality on the efficacy of education is valid and poses a challenge to all policy developers to take cognisance of this issue as vital resources will otherwise be misallocated, thus further exacerbating inequality.

In summary, the background highlights the value of education in the struggle against HIV and AIDS; however, the value of education is undermined by the inability of schools to deliver quality education. The inequalities within society are the catalysts for poor quality education.

1.3 RATIONALE

I am currently serving as a principal of a primary school in a severely disadvantaged peri-urban squatter settlement in the Western Cape. Parents and consequently learners encounter numerous difficulties that contribute to poor

learner performance. High amongst these difficulties are poverty, unemployment, crime and HIV and AIDS.

As a school leader and as a person whose own personal and professional life was impacted upon positively by the influence of education, I regard education as a significant contributor to the level to which HIV and AIDS may be restricted. Poverty is one of the most important socio-economic factors that affect and are affected by HIV and AIDS (Fenton, 2004). The poor bear the brunt of receiving the worst effects of everything that is adverse in society while enjoying very little of what is good. Therefore a properly functioning education system with meaningful leadership from school leaders becomes necessary to limit the effects of poverty. As the grassroots custodian of the educational enterprise, school leaders have the potential of affecting the plight of the poor.

The plight of the poor is exacerbated by the impact of HIV and AIDS (Fenton, 2004). Does the school continue with 'business as usual'; focusing on teaching and learning as if these activities were unaffected by contextual factors like poverty and HIV and AIDS? The alert school leader is conscious of the multiplicity of factors that affect teaching and learning and therefore must initiate a response. This study must therefore seek to capacitate school leaders, particularly primary school principals, on how to improve the quality of teaching and learning whilst simultaneously responding directly to the challenge created by HIV and AIDS in the context of poverty.

1.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The nature of this project demands an intensive study of the literature to produce a so-called code of good practice for effective school leaders and the development of an appropriate strategy to limit the impact of HIV and AIDS in the context of poverty. Consequently, the literature study was based on a conceptual framework that focused on the following main areas: school leadership and their good practice, poverty and its impact on school-going learners, and HIV and AIDS.

For the purpose of this study 'good practice' refers to all those endeavours by school leaders that serve to enhance teaching and learning. The theoretical underpinnings are provided by school leadership theories, critical pedagogy and emancipatory social theory.

Kelly (2000a, 2000b, 2002a and 2002b) and Coombe and Kelly (2001) emphasise the crucial role played by education and schooling in the mitigation of HIV and AIDS. Leithwood, Louis, Anderson and Wahlstrom (2004:5) accentuate the value of school leadership. They claim that school leadership influences learning by up to 25% and that this influence is second only to teaching amongst the factors affecting learning. Furthermore the impact of school leadership is greatest in schools where learner needs are most desperate (Leithwood et al, 2004:5).

Wijngaarden, Mallik and Shaeffer (2004:5-7) establish seven good reasons for the importance of school leaders in the struggle against HIV and AIDS. Fitzgerald (2000:1) however, laments the lack of knowledge, skills and training amongst school leaders which would enable them to cope with the demanding task of leadership. Notwithstanding Fitzgerald's criticism, the literature generally supports the importance of school leadership in learner development, [Day; Harris and Hadfield; 2001a; Harris, 2002; and National Conference of State Legislatures (NCSL), 2002].

The critical challenge for this study is how to use the good practice guide specifically for limiting the impact of HIV and AIDS. African Development Forum (2000:3-4) develops the interaction between HIV and AIDS and poverty and explains the impact on education at the individual and community levels. African development Forum's (2000: 3-4) arguments are compelling and therefore give force to the understanding that poverty, HIV and AIDS and education have a complex relationship that must be unravelled before viable solutions are envisioned. Fenton (2004:2) argues that the only sustainable solution is through poverty reduction. Fenton's (2004: 2) argument implies a one-dimensional approach, which I believe, is inadequate, given the various variables at play.

According to African Development Forum (2000:10), education plays a key role in addressing the conditions that enhance vulnerability to HIV and AIDS. This means that poverty reduction, gender equity, personal empowerment and the protection of human rights must be prioritised for intervention. African Development Forum (2000), the Department of Education (DOE) (2002), Boler and Aggleton (2005), Kelly (2000a) and Casey and Thorn (1999) all contribute lucidly to the development of suitable interventions for the Life Skills Programme at schools. Boler and Aggleton (2005) and Kelly (2000a) are critical of current life skills programmes and call for urgent reform. Such criticism is a necessary preliminary to the critical discourse that this study warrants.

Critical theory, by virtue of its potential to critique, envision viable alternatives and initiate transformation through action (Wright, 2007:1-10) gives this study its theoretical foundations. Furthermore critical theory tries to make us aware of why the social world is as it is and how it is supposed to be (Ewert, 1991:346). The social world of many school leaders is affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS and this study endeavours to establish how school leaders are expected to respond through inquiry and then action. Critical pedagogy, as espoused by Giroux (1999) and Freire (1998a) in Williams, Garza, Stacavich, Yang and Duda (1999), has informed this study.

In concluding this section on the theoretical framework, it must be pointed out that there is a dire need for research on the role to be played by school leaders in limiting the impact of HIV and AIDS. Most school leadership studies deal with theoretical constructs of leadership and they give scant attention to the impact of poverty and HIV and AIDS. The reason for this is that most research emanates from the Northern and Western hemispheres where poverty and HIV and AIDS have not yet made their impact. Consequently, this study has the potential to add to the literature in a manner that enriches school leadership practice throughout the world.

1.5 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND RESEARCH QUESTION

1.5.1 Research problem

Strauss and Corbin (1990:35) aver that personal and professional experience often leads to the judgment that some aspect of the profession or its practice is less effective or problematic, hence researchers undertake a study with the intention of contributing to correct the situation. My experiences as a principal of a primary school, particularly my encounters with large numbers of poverty stricken learners at my school and the increasing growth rate of HIV infections in our area, has compelled me to initiate a response that defines the research problem. This response will hopefully support and consolidate teaching and learning, the core function of any school. **Thus the research problem centres on the need by principals, in the daily execution of their duties, to affect the quality of education whilst attempting to limit the impact of poverty and HIV and AIDS.**

The literature study serves to illuminate the field of study as demarcated by the research problem. School leadership, poverty, HIV and AIDS and education are the main foci of attention.

1.5.2 Research question

Mouton (2001:53) maintains that research problems are often formulated in the form of research questions as a means of bringing the research problem into focus. Such focus assists in giving direction to the study. The main research question that directs this study is:

What can school leaders, particularly primary school principals, do to affect the quality of education whilst attempting to limit the impact of poverty and HIV and AIDS?

The intention is to provide principals, who are overwhelmed by the impact of poverty and HIV and AIDS on their learners and communities, with a viable set of practices that will assist them to deliver quality education in their schools. In this study I envisaged 'a viable set of practices' to be generated by the relationship between theory and practice. According to Ward (2007:41), praxis refers to the "… relationship between theory and practice, and how they are mutually dependent and how they inform each other." Freire in Ward (2007:41) asserts that a revolution is successful not by "… verbalism or activism, but rather through praxis, with reflection and action directed at the structures to be transformed." Consequently, in pursuance of constructing the theory and the praxis the following subsidiary questions guided the study.

a) **What are the characteristics of meaningful school leadership, which exist in the literature and that will be useful to principals to deliver good quality education?**

b) **What are the perspectives of one school community (parents, learners and teachers), on what needs to be done by principals in schools affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS?**

c) **How will the theory, generated by the inquiries in (a) and (b) above, be integrated to produce the viable set of practices as contemplated in the research question?**

This exposition of the research problem and research questions is given more clarity by the discussion of the purpose of the study and the research objectives in the next section.

1.6   PURPOSE OF THE STUDY AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.6.1   Purpose of the study

Kelly (2002a:5-6) maintains that education's major beneficiaries are young people and HIV and AIDS is also a disease of the young; hence the need for this study to

impact directly on school-going learners. This study aims to contribute to a better understanding of school leaders and their responsibility towards HIV and AIDS and poverty. Therefore the study is primarily directed at primary school principals in disadvantaged areas affected by HIV and AIDS. However, principals in more affluent areas affected by HIV and AIDS will also be enriched by the possibilities that are presented for dealing with the pandemic. In addition, the study also provides secondary school principals with a reasonable resource for implementation.

The WCED and indeed any other education department and policy-making authority threatened by HIV and AIDS encounter the dual challenge of delivering quality education and limiting the impact of HIV and AIDS. These are complex processes that have to operate in tandem. Any strategy to limit the impact of HIV and AIDS will not be successful if schools are failing in their core function. School leaders are the key personnel that the WCED can leverage without much expense to pilot and implement policy. Consequently, the study may be beneficial to the WCED and other policy makers in the following ways:

a) They may have increased access to evidence from the literature to be convinced of the scale of the challenge they face;

b) they may obtain a well-researched best practice guide, for school leaders, which can be utilized for training and development purposes; and

c) they may have access to strategies that have been specifically designed to address educational delivery, HIV and AIDS and poverty.

The recommendations emanating from this study may also be beneficial to education district officials, circuit team managers, principal trainers, tertiary institutions, teachers and parents.

1.6.2 Research objectives

The research questions are crafted into specific objectives that delineate the field for each question:

a) To establish the characteristics of meaningful school leadership in the form of a best practice guide. This objective assumes that school leaders are at the forefront in guiding, mentoring and supporting teachers and educational programmes. Hence it is expected that school leaders and academics regularly research and develop suitable strategies. The intention is to unearth practices that have sound theoretical underpinnings.

b) To establish, through an in-depth study of one school community (parents, learners and teachers), their perspectives on what needs to be done by principals in schools affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS. The aim of this objective is to use the experiences, attitudes and values of the school community to generate grounded theory (see paragraph 1.7.3 for an elaboration on grounded theory and paragraph 3.5. (e) for the analysis according to a grounded theory approach).

c) To synthesise the theory obtained from the literature with the grounded theory generated by the school community to produce a workable guide for principals so that the threefold goals (educational delivery, poverty alleviation and limiting the impact of HIV and AIDS) can be achieved.

Furthermore, the literature is enriched by the theory generated by the school community because of its proximity to the realities of poverty and HIV and AIDS.

1.7   METHODOLOGY

The theoretical underpinnings of the methodology used in this study are located initially in the five dimensions of research (Mouton and Marais, 1996: 8-19):

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sociological, ontological, ideological, epistemological and methodological. Each of these dimensions can be examined from the perspectives of two components: firstly, from the more abstract context of scientific disciplines and, secondly, from the more concrete context of a specific research project (see Chapter Three, paragraph 3.2). When the methodological dimension is viewed from the context of scientific disciplines, paradigms in the philosophy of science become discernible. Among these scientific paradigms are positivism, phenomenology or interpretivism, critical theory and Karl Popper's critical rationalism and scientific realism.

1.7.1   Methodological paradigms

When the methodological dimension is viewed from the context of the research project, three general methodological paradigms become prominent. These paradigms are the quantitative paradigm, the qualitative paradigm and the participatory paradigm or the action research paradigm (Mouton and Marais, 1996:19).

In this study the methodological paradigm that I use is mainly qualitative; however I do draw on quantitative data when describing learner and parent participants and some of their responses. My study complies with the qualitative characteristics as identified by Creswell (2005:44) in respect of the various steps in the process of research (see Chapter Three, paragraph 3.3). According to Sanchez (2006), qualitative research explores attitudes, behaviour and experiences and it attempts to get an in-depth opinion from participants. Quantitative research generates statistics through the use of large scale surveys. In my study I seek to establish from participants their opinion on the role of principals, which includes principals' attitudes and expected behaviour.

The qualitative paradigm envisages a detailed understanding of a central phenomenon (Creswell, 2005: 45). In compliance with this requirement I have selected school leadership as the object of the study. HIV and AIDS and poverty

are some of the intervening conditions under which school leaders perform their roles. To gain a detailed understanding I am undertaking research in my own school so that I may be able to satisfy the qualitative injunction that demands an 'insider' perspective (Mouton and Marais, 1996: 20).

Therefore, this study is entrenched in the qualitative research paradigm.

1.7.2   Research approach

As explained in the previous section, the qualitative paradigm lays emphasis on a detailed understanding of a phenomenon unlike the positivist paradigm that expects explanation. The constructivist and the interpretivist approaches to human inquiry demand that to gain understanding into the world of meaning one has to interpret it (Schwandt, 1994:18). Charmaz (2006: 126) in her focus on grounded theory maintains that the interpretive approach to theory "calls for the imaginative understanding of studied phenomenon." An interpretive approach to theory allows for indeterminacy rather than demanding reasons and causes. Charmaz (2006:130) goes further to posit that the constructivist approach lies squarely in the interpretive tradition because it "… not only theorises the interpretive work that research participants do, but also acknowledges that the resulting theory is an interpretation."

I want to gain a deeper understanding into the role of school leaders under conditions of poverty and HIV and AIDS. In consulting the learners, parents and teachers I am expecting them to construct their understanding of the role of the principal under the stated conditions and the way they interpret the role of the principal. This interpretation is based on the participants' experiences, knowledge, attitudes and values.

Consequently this study can be classified as an inquiry into human endeavour from the constructivists and interpretivist approach.

1.7.3 Research design

Mouton (2001:56) distinguishes between research design and research methodology and the point of departure for the research design is the research problem or question. However the point of the departure for research methodology is the specific tasks (data collection or sampling) that are to be completed. In attempting to provide answers to the first research question of establishing meaningful school leadership and good practice the literature is scanned for theory and practice and refined to generate good practice for general education delivery and to limit the impact of HIV and AIDS.

The second research question requires the perspectives of one school community (learners, parents and teachers) on what must be done by school principals to limit the impact of HIV and AIDS. This question is addressed through a case study design since it satisfies Merriam's (1998:27) two criteria of a single entity (role of principal) and a single unit of analysis (one school community). Whilst the case study design is legitimized by virtue of the afore-mentioned criteria, the data have to be analysed to construct a theory. The more specialised grounded theory (GT) approach is used to construct the theory as required in the second research question.

Grounded theory has developed from its origins as an analytical method (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) to a systematic design that emphasised techniques and procedures (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Glaser contested the systematic approach and posited his emergence approach (Glaser, 1992 in Creswell, 2005:401). Charmaz (2006: 126-128) argues that Glaser's GT emphasised the positivist tradition whilst Strauss and Corbin's (1990) grounded theory exhibited characteristics of both the positivist and interpretivist views. Charmaz (2006: 127) developed her constructivist approach that is aligned more to the interpretivist approach so that the constructivist approach is more readily applicable in the qualitative paradigm.

To sum up, the research design can be described as a case study in which theory is constructed through the GT approach.

1.7.4 Research instruments

The research questions and research designs generally inform the methods that will be utilised to collect data. In the quest to establish good practice for education delivery and to limit poverty and HIV and AIDS, secondary data were collected from the literature and analysed and refined to produce a set of educational methods, techniques and practices that could be described as good practice. This good practice was identified on the basis of the evidence and efficacy as gleaned from the literature.

The dearth of data on school leadership, poverty and HIV and AIDS has warranted an in-depth study of one school community. Parents, learners and teachers of one school were consulted in appropriate ways to obtain their input in the construction of GT as espoused mainly by Charmaz (2006). All the teachers were consulted by way of questionnaires. Appropriately selected teachers were interviewed in the focused group format whilst some parents were interviewed. A sample of learners was interviewed by way of their artistic response to interview questions. A focus group interview was conducted with other primary school principals in the area.

This synthesis of theories sourced from the literature and the research participants generated a set of viable good practices that will serve as a workable guide for primary school principals in high poverty areas affected by HIV and AIDS.

1.7.5 Data analysis

The data from learners were first reduced using the generally accepted methods mainly because there were numerous repetitions in the responses. Early coding was undertaken during the data collection process so that categories could be later

strengthened particularly from the data collected from teachers, learners and parents. Subsequently all data were coded and categorized in accordance with the techniques of GT. Categories were linked through constant comparison and sorting and initial memos were written. Thereafter memos were refined in the format suggested by Charmaz (2006:117). The memos were then sorted and elaborated. This process was greatly assisted by the fact that I had pre-conceived some categories that were reflected in the questions asked of the various participants. This enabled me to 'fast track' the process.

1.8   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The ethical considerations for this study were of great significance as they are determined by the fact that HIV and AIDS are conditions where disclosure of status is not legally compelled. Moreover the current stigma that is attached to HIV and AIDS attracts secrecy and withdrawal. Even though this study focused on the role of principals in the context of poverty and HIV and AIDS, the characteristics of HIV and AIDS have impacted on this study. Hence it became incumbent on me to elicit voluntary participation and to guarantee confidentiality in writing to all respondents. This required that participants were confident and trusting of my motives and me. I have ensured that all the necessary official permits were obtained from the WCED, the University of the Western Cape and the School Governing Body (SGB) and I have adhered to the stipulations and conditions that were attached to such permits.

1.9   CHAPTER OUTLINE

Mouton (2001:46-47) refers to his own work of 1996, in which he posits the "ProDEC framework for social scientific reasoning". ProDEC refers to the research problem (Pro), Design (D), empirical Evidence (E) and Conclusion (C). Chapter One focuses on the research problem. Chapter Two also illuminates the research problem because it provides school leaders with a best practice guide from the literature. Chapter Three captures the design component of the study.

Chapters Four and Five concentrate on the empirical evidence while Chapters Six and Seven deal with the conclusions.

The thesis has been presented in the form of the following chapters.

Chapter One: Introduction to study

In the first chapter I have developed the background, the motivation and the theoretical framework of the study. The research problem and research questions have been identified and articulated. The methodology and its theoretical underpinnings have been elucidated to reveal the paradigm, approach, research design and research instruments that were used in the study. The ethical considerations have been explicated to ensure that participant confidentiality has been protected. This was followed by a brief outline of the remainder of the thesis.

Chapter Two: Conceptual framework and literature study

In this chapter I have introduced the literature covered. A conceptual framework is formulated to explain the relationship of the main themes to the central idea, namely the role of the principal. The main themes are critical and social emancipatory theory, critical pedagogy, school leadership theories, poverty and HIV and AIDS. The main focus of the chapter is the explication of school leadership theories so as to develop the best practice guide as envisaged in the first research question. The chapter concludes with an expression of concern over the predominant use of research originating from the Northern hemisphere.

Chapter Three: Research methodology

The theoretical underpinnings of the methodology used in the study are explored. Concepts such as the dimensions of research, paradigm, approach, research design and research instruments are explained and the chosen options justified. The research instruments and why particular questions were posed to specific research

participants are explained in depth. The selection criteria for the research participants are explicated. All research decisions that had an influence on research outcomes are clarified, hence illuminating the underlying assumptions and expectations. The procedures employed for data analysis are introduced; the constraints and limitations of the research methods and decisions are explored and the ethics of the research discussed.

Chapter Four: Presentation of results

In order to understand the point of departure of the various groups and individuals, I first discuss the characteristics of each of the research groups. Thereafter I present the response of learners. From the responses to each of the questions asked of the research groups I have identified a range of categories that assisted me in explaining their perspectives. In subsequent sections I present the responses of the parents, teachers and principals.

Chapter Five: Analysis and interpretation of results

The chapter commences with a discussion of the theoretical foundations for analysis to elucidate the method of analysis implemented. Thereafter the respondents' perspectives on the core functions of the school are analysed. Learners' needs, the needs of the poor and opinions on how the poor may be assisted are then examined. Knowledge of HIV and AIDS and the impact of the pandemic on the community as well as the options for support are explored. The value of research as an essential aid to principals is then posited. The chapter concludes with a summary of the three basic roles of a principal.

Chapter Six: A practical integrated strategy for principals

In this chapter the main findings relevant to the leadership roles of principals have been integrated and presented as a practical strategy. This strategy integrates the literature with the perspectives of the research groups. This is a dynamic strategy

that exhibits characteristics that give hope and potential for success in targeting education delivery, poverty and HIV and AIDS.

Chapter Seven: Conclusions and recommendations

The conclusions of the study are presented with the appropriate recommendations for the various participants in the education system. Thereafter, the limitations in the main findings and the study as a whole are discussed. This is followed by my recommendations for further study in this field. The study is brought to a close with some concluding comments.

1.10   CONCLUSION

The foregoing describes the scope of the study and gives an indication of what can be expected from this thesis. In the next chapter I focus on the conceptual framework and the literature study. This is mainly in response to the first research question that seeks to identify the characteristics of meaningful school leadership, as described in the literature which will be useful to principals in delivering good quality education. Chapter Two also serves to inform research questions two and three.

CHAPTER TWO
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE STUDY

2.1   INTRODUCTION

The research problem of this study requires that the output of the study must affect the schooling process as a whole whilst targeting HIV and AIDS in the context of poverty. Consequently, the research objectives give guidance for the scope of the study. The first research objective requires the characteristics of meaningful school leadership that has been successful in raising the quality of education delivery, to be established from the literature. This literature review has therefore been constructed as a best practice guide to school principals, particularly the sections on leadership and school leadership theories.

The second objective concerns the perspectives of the research participants on the action that principals should take in the context of HIV and AIDS and poverty. Furthermore, the third research question requires a synthesis of the best practice guide to school principals, as obtained from the literature review, with the perspectives of the research participants to produce a workable guide for principals that targets good quality teaching and learning, poverty alleviation and limiting the impact of HIV and AIDS

This chapter is presented in ten sections. Section 2.2 presents the conceptual framework of the study and indicates that the role of the principal affects and is affected by external factors like poverty and HIV and AIDS. In the next section I examine critical theory and the way its principles inform this study. In section 2.4 certain general leadership theories are explicated to provide a foundation for the presentation of school leadership theories in section 2.5. In section 2.5 I posit instructional leadership as the key role of the principal, whilst transactional and transformational leadership, distributed leadership and moral leadership are

regarded as elements of the political role of school leaders. Fallacies in leadership and measures to sustain leadership are also discussed in this section. In the next two sections (2.6 and 2.7) I examine the two main conditions that affect school leadership in this study, namely, HIV and AIDS and poverty, respectively. In section 2.8, I establish the relationship between education, HIV and AIDS and poverty and in the penultimate section, 2.9, I explore the relationship between school leadership and HIV and AIDS. The chapter is concluded with some comments about the applicability of research emanating from the northern and western hemispheres.

In concluding this introduction to the chapter it is incumbent on me to rationalise the format and depth to which this chapter is presented. The purpose of any literature study is to inform and illuminate the research problem, which my review undoubtedly does. However, my review had the additional purpose of providing school leaders with a guide to best practice; hence the format and depth may seem unusual. The sections on leadership theories (see paragraph 2.4) and school leadership theories (see paragraph 2.5) in particular, are presented in depth and in detail so that school leaders may be able to use these sections as useful resources for best practice. The limited criticism of these leadership theories on my part may be construed to represent a failure to interact robustly with the literature. However; I undertake this exercise in the presentation of the strategy for school principals in Chapter Six.

2.2   CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual framework of the study is represented in Figure 2.1 below:

Figure 2.1   Representation of conceptual framework
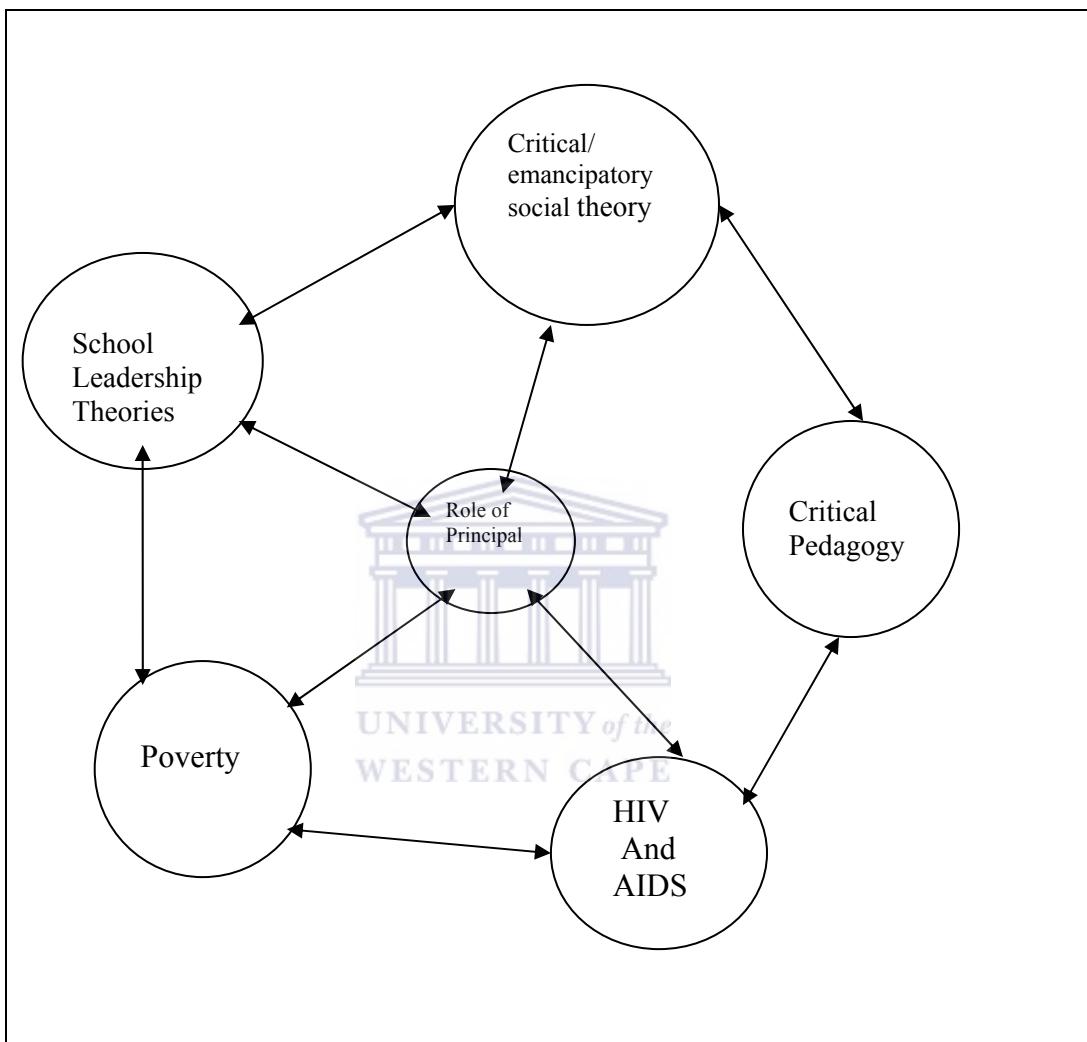
This conceptual structure has been designed to illustrate that the product of this study must provide school principals, in schools affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS, with a very practical guide to practice that will not only assist them to serve their communities better in respect of HIV and AIDS and poverty, but will also assist them to improve the quality of education in their schools. Hence the role of the principal is the centre of the conceptual wheel (cog) in the figure. This cog does not represent any figurative centrality apart from its physical location. The central position is given to school leadership because it is constantly being

impacted upon by external factors, among them: HIV and AIDS and poverty. In the case of school leadership, it has the potential to impact on poverty and HIV and AIDS, hence the arrows in both directions in Figure 2.1.

The study needs to be undertaken from the critical paradigm, as it must try to make us aware of why the social world is as it is, but more importantly, it must, through the process of critique, enable us to know how the social world is supposed to be (Ewert, 1991:346). More specifically this study can be visualised through the lens of Wright's (2007) version of critical theory, which he terms emancipatory social science. This involves diagnosis and critique of the world as it exists, envisioning viable alternatives and understanding the obstacles, possibilities and dilemmas of transformation (Wright, 2007:1-11).

I diagnosed and critiqued the world with my research partners (parents, learners, teachers and principals) and I researched with them for viable alternatives through the interviews, questionnaires and this literature study. Thereafter, through analysis, I considered their views and triangulated them with the literature, taking into account the obstacles, possibilities and dilemmas, and then arrived at a possible approach to dealing with the constraints of HIV and AIDS and poverty on education. Giroux's (1999) and Freire's (1998a) critical pedagogy in Williams et al (1999) informed the study on the educative implications that the critical paradigm envisages. Furthermore each component, of the conceptual wheel in Figure 2.1, has an influence and is influenced by the component located adjacent to it. This conceptual framework accordingly shapes this literature study.

2.3   CRITICAL THEORY

Williams et al (1999) on their website "Rage and Hope" quote McCarthy (1991) who asserts that critical theory is a broad tradition based upon the use of the "critique" as a method of investigation. Forde (2006:117) states that "critique" is central to the "project of critical theory". Dant (2003) in Forde (2006:117) maintains that critique is defined as "reflection on the way we know things and

the freeing of knowledge from illusions imposed from outside". This process of sanitizing knowledge of the "illusions imposed from outside" should be instrumental in changing the world, not just recording information (Williams et al, 1999:1). More subtle is the standpoint of Dant (2003) in Forde (2006:117) when he asserts that critical theorists' cultural critique is constantly questioning itself, resisting the tendency to accept and take for granted. Broderick in Williams et al (1999:1) sees critical theory as being instrumental in holding primitive cultures intact and also in the quest for coherence. More recent critical theorists now attempt to become actively involved in promoting social change. This involvement in promoting social change gives critical theory a higher level of stature in that it transcends rhetoric and informs practice.

Critical theory starts with the assumption that each historical situation is a distortion of the utopian vision. This vision was the initial normative basis for the existing social structures and beliefs (Ewert, 1991:345). Habermas of the Frankfurt school is linked to the enduring problem of critical theory - to develop a normative base for rationality that is not ideologically distorted by particular social interests (Held, 1983 in Ewert, 1991:345). Critical theory tries to understand why the social world is the way it is and, more importantly, through the process of critique endeavours to know how it should be (Ewert, 1991:346). The process of critique, as envisaged by Ewert, does not consider the power relations that affect it. A case in point is whether the critique from the disempowered and the marginalised sections of the community is considered by policy makers.

The critique of ideology, defined as distorted knowledge, is intended to enable individuals to become self-consciously aware of knowledge distortions, thus resulting in enlightenment. Emancipation occurs when individuals, upon attaining enlightenment, take freeing action to change the social system to realize their unique human potential (Ewert, 1991:346). Emancipation requires both enlightenment and action (Ewert, 1991:355)

Duvenage (2007:297) in his review of Rush's (2007) book also establishes that critical theory has the specific practical purpose of seeking human emancipation. This emancipation according to Horkheimer was an attempt to liberate human beings from the circumstances of enslavement (Duvenage, 2007:297). Wright (2007) places great importance on the process of emancipation by positing an entire branch of critical theory, which he calls "emancipatory social science".

In his chapter on "The Tasks of Emancipatory Social Science," Wright (2007:1-11) describes three basic tasks: diagnosis and critique of the world as it exists; envisioning viable alternatives; and, understanding the obstacles, possibilities, and dilemmas of transformation. In the first task it is necessary to identify the ways in which existing social institutions and social structures systematically impose harm on people.

As a scientific emancipatory theory it must show that the explanation for this suffering and inequality lies in specific properties of institutions and social structures (Wright, 2007:1). Hence this first task must be to diagnose and critique the causal processes that produces these 'harms'. Wright (2007:2) connects diagnosis and critique to social justice. He notes that to describe a social arrangement as generating 'harms' implies that the analysis is infused with a moral judgement. Therefore behind every emancipatory theory, there is an implicit theory of justice (Wright, 2007:2). The inclusion of justice as an element of emancipatory theory validates emancipatory theorising as a legitimate endeavour to eliminate the influence of power. The issue of social justice is explored further, later in this discussion.

The second task of emancipatory social science is to develop a coherent, credible theory of alternatives to the existing institutions and social structures that would eliminate or significantly reduce these harms. These social alternatives can be elaborated and evaluated in terms of three different criteria: desirability, viability and achievability. Desirable alternatives can be classified as non-viable and

viable. Viable alternatives are further divided into achievable and unachievable alternatives (Wright, 2007:5-6).

The third task involves the formulation and implementation of social transformation. Such a theory has four central components: a theory of social reproduction; a theory of limits, gaps and contradictions within the process of reproduction; a theory of underlying dynamics and the trajectory of social change; and a theory of collective actors, strategies and struggles. These four components collectively interact to give meaning and direction to social transformation as contemplated in emancipatory social science. In sum, diagnosis and critique of society tell us why we want to leave the world in which we live; the theory of viable alternatives tells us where we want to go; and the theory of transformation tells us how we get from here to there (Wright, 2007;10).

According to Williams et al (1999), the work of Paulo Freire is a testament to critical theory both as a critical theorist and as an active social reformer. He believed that human beings act upon and transform their world so that they can lead fuller and richer lives for themselves and for others. Further, he had faith in people's potential to look critically at the world and, given the right tools, their being able to deal critically with their realities (Williams et al, 1999). Freire (1998) in Williams et al (1999) recognises that the struggle for humanisation, breaking the cycles of injustice, exploitation and oppression, lay in the perpetuation of the oppressor versus the oppressed. In these roles the oppressor not only commits injustice by denying freedom to the oppressed, but also risks his own humanity.

Freedom, for the oppressed, can only occur when the image of domination is eradicated and replaced with autonomy and responsibility (Freire, 1998, in Williams et al, 1999). According to Freire, the oppressed can begin the process of transformation by confronting reality critically and acting upon that reality (Williams et al, 1999). Freire's main contribution to the critical paradigm has been in the area of critical pedagogy.

According to Giroux (1999) in Williams et al (1999), critical pedagogy argues that school practices need to be enlightened by a public philosophy that addresses how to develop ideological and institutional conditions "… in which the lived experiences of empowerment for the vast majority of students become the defining feature of schooling". Further, Giroux (1999) in Williams et al (1999) notes that critical pedagogy tries to: firstly, create new forms of knowledge through its emphasis on breaking down disciplines and creating interdisciplinary knowledge; secondly, raises questions about power, using history to reclaim power and identity; thirdly, makes curriculum knowledge responsive to the everyday knowledge that constitutes people's lived histories; and lastly critical pedagogy attempts to illuminate the importance of the ethical in defining the language used by teachers and others to create particular cultural practices.

Williams et al (1999) believe that critical teachers experience "rage" caused by unjust circumstances that surround the educational experiences of the poor, minorities and other marginalized people. This rage is accentuated by the view that the educational and cultural system is a variable that determines the maintenance of the existing domination and exploitation in the social order (Williams et al, 1999).   Apple (1999) in Williams et al (1999) expresses uncertainty over the effectiveness of schooling as engine of democracy and equality. In other words, there seems to be more evidence that schools perform the role of social reproduction – perpetuating class, race and gender inequalities.

In this gloomy context, Freire (1998a) in Williams et al (1999) exhorts the progressive teacher to "unveil opportunities" for hope, "… no matter what the obstacles may be". Freire maintains that "… without hope there is little we can do," and to try to do without hope "… is a frivolous illusion". According to Garcia and Pruyn (2001:80-81), Freirean pedagogy has as its goals the liberation of students and their teachers from oppressive realities they face in their daily lives; the development within teachers and students of attitudes and capacities to see themselves as capable of taking action in their world with the motive to

change it, and the improvement of student "literacies" and "academic competencies".

Freirean pedagogy seeks to illuminate the political nature of schooling and the effects of unequal, often oppressive, power relations that characterize schooling. Further, Freire aims to debunk the myth of educational "meritocracy," which tries to present schooling and the acquisition of literacy as individual and neutral processes (Garcia and Pruyn, 2001:81). At the centre of Freire's approach is the notion that learners reform their identities in opposition to perceived societal problems.

In pursuance of Freire's hope, Fernandes (1988: 169-170) contests the tendency to simply accept the school's role in social and cultural reproduction. He maintains that this pessimistic and fatalistic view ignores the individuals' actions and intentions and reduces the logic of domination to a structural determination that is immune to any challenge or transformation. This disposition overlooks the potential of teachers to resist social and cultural reproduction through well conceived programmes of action. Further, Fernandes (1988:170) insightfully notes that an acceptance of these pessimistic beliefs has served as an alibi for passivity and impotence of teachers to develop alternative educative practices.

According to Fernandes (1988:170), schools enjoy a limited autonomy that is generated by the presence of multiple tensions, contradictions and conflicts among constituencies that represent divergent social and political opinions. The presence of these tensions and contradictions may be translated into the existence of contradicting pedagogical practices, which raises the probability of more resistant practices being employed at schools. However, there may be a tendency to overplay the efficiency of such probabilities and therefore it becomes incumbent on schools to utilize this relative autonomy by consciously exploiting and expanding it. In other words, teachers must develop materials, methods and practices that actively strive to counter social and cultural reproduction (Fernandes, 1988:170).

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The foregoing thinking on critical theory and critical pedagogy has shaped the development of schools and school leadership. Dantley (1990:593) insists that a leadership of urban poor schools must be grounded in the tenets of critical discourses. Foster (1986) in Dantley (1990:593) exhorts principals to consider school leadership as a normal science. Whilst recognising that schools function as "the purveyors and preservers of hegemony", Foster also sees schools as the vehicles through which society can be reconstructed (Dantley, 1990:593). Foster and other critical theorists assert that emphasis should not be placed only on quantifiable outcomes when evaluating school success and effectiveness (Dantley, 1990:593). Due recognition needs to be given to the social milieu in which urban poor schools find themselves. Dantley (1990:594) feels strongly that leaders in urban poor schools must develop a broader, more expansive concept of schooling. Their vision must not be tied completely to the prevailing cultural dominance; instead it must give expression to the belief that schools are vehicles for social and political reconstruction.

The following constructs of critical leadership of schools were posited by Dantley (1990:595): Schools are centres for critical thought and reflection; schools are characterized by persistent dialogue between the teacher and student as they synergistically explore, form and shape knowledge; the critical pedagogy of schools enables students to become critically reflexive citizens; schools are bastions of democratic policies and practice; schools serve as the preparatory arenas for the makers of political and social change, and lastly, pedagogy centred around a project rather than empty learning and stockpiling of skills, must characterise life in schools.

Dantley (1990:595) also expects school leaders to give due regard to the value of language in critical pedagogy. Language structures need to be probed and distortions need to be unmasked (Foster, 1986, in Dantley, 1990:595). Schooling, according to Dantley (1990:595), must be viewed as a mission. Central to this mission must be the empowerment of students to critically evaluate their present realities, systematically deconstruct the weaknesses of democracy and then

proceed to project remedies.   Dantley (1990:595) encourages principals to emphasise to teachers the need to stimulate and nurture critical analysis and articulate Freire's 'hope' with regard to overcoming disempowering conditions.

Foster (1989) in Hoffman and Burrello (2004:281-284) makes demands on school leaders that relate closely to the three tasks of Wright's (2007:1-11) emancipatory social theory: Foster's first demand for leadership is that it must be critical. This corresponds to Wright's (2007:1) first two tasks of diagnosis and critique of the world as it exists and envisioning viable alternatives. Foster goes further to suggest that in being critical, leaders not only focus on reorganization of structures but also on the reconceptualisation of life practices where common ideals of freedom and democracy are made important (Hoffman and Burrello, 2004:282).

In envisioning viable alternatives, due regard is given to Foster's third demand that leadership must be educative, where subjects question their past experiences, grow, develop and begin to consider alternate ways of structuring their lives. Foster's demands for leadership to be transformative and ethical are captured by Wright's (2007:10) third task that involves the formulation and implementation of social transformation; thus elaborating on how transformation could be achieved.

Earlier in this discussion I referred to the work of Wright (2007:2) who identified three tasks in his emancipatory social theory, the first of which – diagnosis and critique – is closely connected to questions of social justice. Social justice refers to all people having broadly equal access to the necessary material and social means to live flourishing lives (Wright, 2007:2). Theorharis (2007:223) examines Gewirtz's (1998) meaning of social justice that centred on ideas of disrupting and subverting procedures that promote marginalization and exclusionary practices.

Theoharis (2007:223) found that this definition of social justice closely informs leadership for social justice. Bogotch (2002) in Theoharis (2007:223) was bold enough to put forth a challenge in which the definition of social justice cannot be separate from the practices of educational leadership.   Theoharis (2007:223)

defines social justice leadership to mean that principals make issues of race, class, gender, disability, sexual orientation and other marginalizing conditions central to their advocacy, leadership practice and vision. This definition ensures that all inclusive practices are about social justice. In his study, Theoharis (2007:231-232) identified four ways of enacting social justice: raising student achievement; improving school structures; re-centring and enhancing staff capacity; and lastly, strengthening school culture and community. Brown (2006:712) posits that leaders for social justice examine power relations within schools and society, and scrutinize differential schooling and critique of social class stratification. Leadership for social justice implies a broad understanding of equity and fairness.

In concluding this section, the work of Scott and Hart (1979) is poignant in Brown (2006:731), when they speak of "technical drifters" (who comprise 90% of leaders) who neglect to validate the cultural, intellectual and emotional identities of people from underrepresented groups; they avoid situations where their values, leadership styles and professionalism can be challenged and dismantled; and they use their power to consolidate their own professional choices. In the context of this disturbing reality, Brown (2006:731) believes that courageous, transformative leaders, well versed in critical social theory, are required. These leaders need to grow in awareness, acknowledgement and action (Brown, 2006:732).

Whilst raising awareness on the value of critical theory, we also need to focus on some criticism levelled at critical theory. Wright (2007) believes that critical theory tends to dwell mainly on philosophical criticisms and social commentary and thereby underplays research in critical theory. Hargreaves (1982:119) also shares Wright's (2007) opinion, that critical theory of Marxist tradition "expressed a deep antipathy towards empirical evidence". Ellsworth (1989:297) finds that critical pedagogy has developed along a highly abstract and Utopian line, which does not necessarily sustain the daily workings of the education its supporters advocate. Notwithstanding these criticisms the role of critical theory in research is very necessary to guide researchers. The critique of a phenomenon requires

critique and diagnosis, which sets the pace for identifying viable alternatives and then embarking on transformation.

Summary

This study is structured in the critical / emancipatory tradition because it solicits the following from the school community:

- A critique and diagnosis of the issues around poverty and HIV and AIDS
- A set of viable alternatives that must be triangulated with good practice from the extant literature.

The transformative stage of critical / emancipatory social theory does not fall within the ambit of this study. Nevertheless the strategies that are suggested will generate a reflective practice that may prove useful in similar environments affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS.

2.4   LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Throughout time leaders in the domain of spirituality, warfare and other categories of human existence have emerged. Moses, Christ, Buddha, Mohamed, Sivananda, Sai Baba have been beacons in spirituality, whilst Churchill, Nkrumah, Ghandi, Mandela, Napoleon and Shaka have led the world politically. What made them these great luminaries of the world? Maxwell (2004:20) believes that leadership is 'influence – nothing more, nothing less'. According to Bass in Wamba (2006:22), researchers assume that leadership is critical to the success of an institution or endeavour. Consequently researchers have posited many different theories of leadership. In this section I look at some leadership theories that have shaped part of the current leader understanding.

Wamba (2006:52) cites the work of Marzano et al (2005), which refers to the "great man" theory that suggests that great leaders are born; the "trait" theory, which contends that leaders are endowed with superior qualities that differentiates

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them from followers; and environmental theories, which suggest that leaders emerge as a result of time, place and circumstance. Wamba (2006:52) tends to favour the "trait" and environmental theories following his observation of how individuals training to be better leaders have built on their strengths. Linsky in Sunday Times (8 April 2007) concurs with Wamba when he states that leadership is about skills, attitude and behaviours, all of which can be learnt. Maxwell (2004: xxii) contends that the true principles of leadership are constant and this view may support his standpoint that leadership can be learnt. Immegart (1988) in Fidler (1997:25) agrees with trait theory by confirming that traits of intelligence, dominance, self-confidence and high energy / activity levels were most associated with successful leadership.

In the next section I explore what leadership is and then introduce the leadership / management perspectives. These constructs of leadership are then extended to the concepts of situational leadership and leadership styles.

2.4.1   Leadership

Maxwell (2004:11) explains: "The true measure of leadership is influence – nothing more, nothing less."   This confidence is shared by Leithwood et al (2004:6) where they articulate that leadership is about "helping the organisation set a defensible set of directions and influencing members to move in those directions." McCann (1996:59) consolidates this understanding of leadership as influence when he explains that a genuine leader "… wins the confidence and co-operation of those he leads."

Fidler (1997:25) maintains that there are two key features of leadership. These are: firstly, "a sense of purpose and confidence is engendered in followers" and secondly, "followers are influenced towards goal achievements." This conception of leadership varies from the popular construct of leadership in that it accentuates the feelings and actions of followers rather than the attributes of the individual leader.   The common practice of associating leadership with a person rather than

an interaction between a leader and followers has led research findings to sideline the influence of followers on leaders and of the context (Murphy, 1988 in Fidler, 1997:25).

Notwithstanding these "clarities" that have just been given, Singh and Lokotsch (2005:279) believe that there is much confusion surrounding the use of the concept leadership. This confusion has arisen out of the deconstruction of the term leadership to include leadership, management and administration. Singh and Lokotsch (2005:279) cite the work of Preedy (1993) and Van der Westhuizen (1991) who respectively believe that leadership is about initiating new structures or procedures for achieving goals and objectives (Preedy, 1993), while management concerns "… establishing an environment favourable to performance" (Van der Westhuizen, 1991). A more useful explication of leadership is given by West - Burnham et al in Singh and Lokotsch (2005:279) where they posit a three-way "dichotomy between leadership (concerned with values, vision and mission), management (concerned with execution, planning, organising and deploying) and administration (concerned with operational details)".
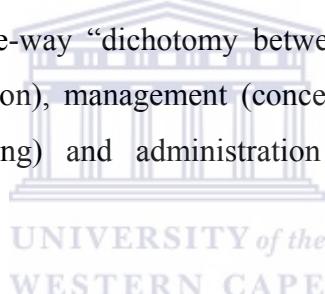
According to Thrupp (2003:153), leadership is regarded as something more than and different from management; however he believes that educational leadership literature has degraded leadership due to its unquestioning acceptance of problem solving and managerialist assumptions. Thus, it was a lost cause to attempt to delimit leadership as a "conceptual category of higher calling" (Thrupp, 2003: 153). This critical perspective of the extant literature is useful to draw attention to studies that take a one-dimensional approach to leadership and hence reduce its potential, particularly in environments characterized by challenging circumstances like poverty, crime, war or HIV and AIDS.

Fidler's (1997:25) perception that leadership is more personal than management is maintained by his belief that the influence of managers is supported by the structural attributes of organizations, whilst it is personal action that is at the core

of leadership. Fidler (1997:26) argues that the close way in which leadership and aspects of management have been treated in the literature indicates their intimate connection. According to him both leadership and management of an organization are essential for their successful operation and there is much overlap, particularly with regard to motivating people and giving a sense of purpose to the organization.

Notwithstanding these similarities between leadership and management, Fidler (1997:26) suggests that leadership is associated with more formative and proactive aspects of the direction of an organisation's affairs whereas management is given a more supportive role whilst procedures for maintaining the steady-state are consigned to the area of administration. He established a continuum as represented in Fig.2.2 below:

Figure 2.2 (Fidler, 1997:26) Administration-Leadership continuum

Reactive	Supportive	Proactive
Administration	Management	Leadership
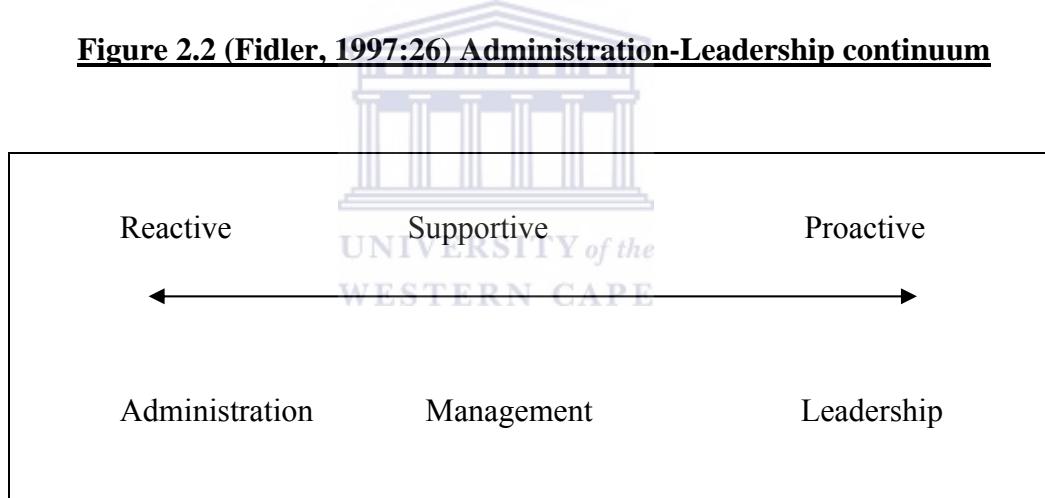
The proactive elements involve activities such as problem solving, formulation and communication of strategies based on a vision of a better future. The supportive role involves planning and systematizing procedures resulting from leadership activities so that they actually happen. The reactive role involves day to day action emanating from leadership and management.

The various formulations of leadership and management indicate that they are complementary and have to be synchronized (Fidler, 1997:26), otherwise as Bolman and Deal (1991) in Fidler (1997:26) state:

> … organisations which are over managed but under led eventually lose any sense of spirit or purpose. Poorly managed organisations with strong charismatic leaders may soar temporarily only to crash shortly thereafter.

This inherent complementarity requires the objective perspective of the manager and the 'brilliant flashes of vision and commitment from wise leadership' (Bolman and Deal, 1991 in Fidler, 1997:26). The coexistence of leadership capacity with management potential is vital for the development of organisations because each element ensures sustainability in the long term.

2.4.2   Situational leadership and leadership styles

The early conceptions of leadership were based on the principle of prescription and hence "a one size fits all" approach was formulated. This approach did not consider the inherent inflexibility of practice which was being offered for a wide range of situations (Fidler, 1997:28).   Hence it became necessary to view leadership with a contingent or situational approach. What is appropriate and likely to work well will depend on a number of factors.

An important factor as stated by Fidler (1997:28) "… will be the context in which leadership is to operate". The situational leadership model was first developed by Hersey and Blanchard in 1972 and in subsequent revisions they posited that their leadership approach was dependent on the maturity of the followers. The maturity level dictated whether the leader used the telling, selling, encouraging and delegating modalities (Sampson, 2005).

The appropriate leadership style, according to Fidler (1997:25) depends on the context and its pre-history; the nature of followers; the particular issues involved; in addition to the predisposition of the leader. McCann (1996:62) detailed the various leadership styles as being autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire. Situational leadership, according to McCann (1996:63), involved varying the style to meet the situation.   Cawood and Gibbon (1985) in McCann (1996:63)

associated the above stated leadership styles with the situational leadership model of Hersey and Blanchard.

When followers are inexperienced then the telling approach is autocratic. When the followers are more experienced then the leader may act democratically and when the followers are very experienced they may be allowed to work without the leader's assistance. Situational leadership stresses that a leader's effectiveness is dependent on the ability to analyse the competencies, abilities and commitment of followers with regard to the task at hand and then respond accordingly (Kelley, Thornton and Daugherty, 2005:22).

The leadership debate is characterized by many theories that have shaped understanding and practice. In the preceding paragraphs I have attempted to expose some of these theories in a general approach unrelated to schooling and education. Leadership posited as a two-factor principle necessitates developing purpose and confidence and influencing followers towards the goal. The relationship between leadership, management and administration was explicated in a model that placed them at opposite ends of a proactive / reactive continuum with management activities being regarded as supportive in between the two extremities (Fidler, 1997:26). Situational leadership and the use of different leadership styles emphasized the contingency nature of leadership to fit the circumstance and context. How do these theories relate to school leadership? Also, what are the theories associated with school leadership? In the next section, I make an attempt to examine these relationships and theories.

2.5   SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

Most of the studies on school leadership place a high value on its role in influencing learner learning. Leithwood et al (2004:5) assert that next to classroom teaching school leadership exerts the second highest percentage (25%) of school effects on learner learning. From Maxwell's (2004:xxii) declaration that "leadership is leadership" irrespective of where it is located it is clear then that

leadership in the school context is also about jointly setting directions and then using one's influence to get followers to move in those directions (Leithwood 2004:6).

Harris (2006:415) may sound cynical when she avers that the school leadership arena is specifically susceptible to new labels of leadership that are temporarily in vogue and then are speedily replaced by more fashionable concepts or theories. She claims that the school leadership field may appear to be fast paced and modern, but the "… knowledge base remains relatively undisturbed." This view is supported by Leithwood et al (2004:6), where they declare that labels such as "instructional," "democratic," "transformational," "moral," "strategic" and others, essentially capture different "… stylistic or methodological approaches", in order to achieve the same two objectives that are critical to any organization's effectiveness. As mentioned earlier, these are assisting the organization to set defensible directions and then using one's influence to get members to move in those directions.

What then are the roles of the educational leader? According to Cuban (1988) in Supovitz and Poglinco (2001:3), the educational leader played three dominant roles:

- Managerial role as an administrative chief
- Political role as negotiator and facilitator, and
- Instructional role as a teacher of teachers

Cuban (1988) in Supovitz and Poglino (2001:3) argues that generally the management and political roles, not the instructional role, took precedence in the lives of most educational leaders. A question at this stage, may serve to contextualize the apparent tensions between the roles. Shouldn't the principals' managerial and political roles both be in support of their instructional role?

The leadership versus management discussion has been captured in a general context in an earlier section of this review; hereafter I attempt to develop the other

two roles (instructional and political) in order to examine their value in the leadership arsenal of the school leader. The political role of negotiation and facilitation dovetails into Leithwood et al's (2004:6) "stylistic and methodological approaches". Consequently, in the succeeding sections I shall focus on instructional leadership and then look at some of the other styles and methods, namely transformational, distributed leadership, and moral leadership.

2.5.1   Instructional leadership

Instructional leadership is the term used commonly in the USA to describe school leadership that focuses on the teaching and learning that happens in classrooms. In the UK the term curricular leadership is often used (Filder, 1997:31). In South Africa, Kruger (2003:206) describes instructional leadership as "… the principal's responsibility to ensure that effective teaching and learning takes place". Furthermore, teaching and learning are the core activities of the school. The principal provides direction, resources and support to both teachers and learners in order to improve teaching and learning at the school (Kruger, 2003:206). Some researchers also refer to this emphasis on teaching and learning as educational leadership (Harris, 2006:415).

Black (1998) in Botha (2004:240) asserts that instructional leadership requires school leaders to set clear expectations, to maintain discipline and to implement high standards with the intention of improving teaching and learning in the classroom. The role sees principals as visionaries who lead their school communities to improve teaching and curricular strategies and support their teachers' efforts to use new programmes and processes.

Notwithstanding these interpretations, the school leader's role to affect teaching and learning in the classroom has been generated by the emphasis placed by education departments on the educational attainments of learners. In South Africa the emphasis on matriculation pass rates and grade 3 and 6 learner attainments in numeracy and literacy has reshaped principals' conception of their roles.

Internationally this phenomenon is confirmed by Fitzgerald (2000:1) who asserts that standards-based accountability has required school leaders to oversee the improvement of student learning. More so, leaders have to accept responsibility of the school's achievements.

In his study on school leadership and school effectiveness in Trinidad and Tobago, Brown (2002:4) highlights a critical feature of the extant literature. He asserts that due to the dearth of studies on school leadership in his country and indeed many developing countries, the leadership theories used, do not reflect the culture, needs and realities of developing countries. Williams (1995) has taken up this issue and has cogently posited his views on instructional leadership in South Africa. This is discussed in the following section.

2.5.1.1 Instructional leadership in South Africa prior to 1996

Political ideology shaped education delivery during the apartheid regime's tenure in Government. Christian National education was the dominant paradigm that pervaded education (Williams, 1995:89). Educational leadership, particularly instructional leaders had to bear this burden since they had to operate under policies, climate and environments that undermined their ethical conduct (Williams, 1995:88).

Williams (1995) in his doctoral study: "Towards the Democratisation of instructional leadership in South African schools, trends and future possibilities", critically describes instructional leadership as it existed under apartheid rule. In the following section, I shall briefly expose Williams' (1995) perceptions by considering the following elements of instructional leadership as it existed: the hierarchical and authoritarian nature of instructional leadership, staff control and maintenance function of the main instructional leaders, teacher evaluation concentrated on the summative function, the concentration on administrative and routine administrative work and the concentration on the transmission of knowledge.

(a)   Hierarchical and authoritarian nature of instructional leadership

Instructional leadership at school level reflects the way policies were conceived at the higher administrative level, which was mainly one directional and top down. Decision making was predominantly closed and top down (Williams, 1995:90). Most of the power was vested in the school principal and to a lesser extent the instructional leaders below the principal.   There was little appreciation for co-operation and team spirit. A notion of superiority permeated the authoritarian ethos of instructional leaders.

(b)   Staff control and maintenance function of the main instructional leaders

The main purpose of instructional leaders is to facilitate successful instruction, but in South Africa this function was subverted by the desire to run schools in accordance to the strict rules, regulations and instructions of Department officials. Instructional leadership was thus relegated to the function of staff control and maintenance, instead of professional growth-orientated activity (Shah, 1995, in Williams, 1995:93).

The school principal occupied a central position between the official policy makers and the teachers who had to implement these policies. The principal had to submit to the dictates of the Education Department and school staff had to be subservient to the principal. The principal's main function, then, was staff control and maintenance. Instructional leadership was relegated to subject heads and department heads. Instructional leadership at this level too, was very poorly undertaken. Instead of professional development activities, overdue emphasis was placed on routine supervisory and control activities, like division of work into terms, number of tests and assignments, examinations and procedures for marking (Williams, 1995:99).

(c)   Teacher evaluation concentrated on the summative function

No heed was paid to teacher development for learner improvement. This system was regarded with distrust and was fiercely opposed by teacher associations and later by the South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU), the only teacher's union at the time. This misplaced emphasis on the summative function of evaluation inevitably led to the neglect of in-service training of instructional leaders (Williams, 1995:109). The summative function of evaluation focused on obtaining a score and did not identify areas for development, hence constraining teacher growth.

(d)   The concentration on administrative and routine clerical work

Educational authorities placed a high priority on administrative and routine clerical work. School leaders consequently claimed that they were over-burdened with administrative duties. This administrative overload left very little time for leaders to perform their instructional functions (Williams, 1995:118). Administrative overload, in the current context, is a function of affordability. Schools in disadvantaged environments are unable to hire additional administrative or teaching staff to relieve the burden on school leaders.

(e)   The concentration on the transmission of knowledge

Examination driven instruction that focused on the transmission of knowledge seriously degraded instructional leadership. Emphasis was placed on rote learning at the expense of critical thinking, reasoning, reflection and understanding (Williams, 1995:119). Lupton (2005) concurs with Williams; however she maintains that poor quality teaching as identified by Williams (1995) is endemic to low income areas. The systemic evaluation results in the Western Cape bear testimony to the findings of Williams (1995) and Lupton (2005).

Whilst the motive for this style of instructional leadership at that time was fully in support of Christian National Education (CNE) and the entrenchment of apartheid in South Africa, other, less discernible motives seem to have generated similar practices elsewhere. Gordon (1997) in Blasé and Blasé (1999:351) asserts that the

practice of instructional leadership has been limited essentially to one of inspection, oversight and judgement of classroom instruction. Further, supervision for control still dominated professional practice. The repressive circumstances under which instructional leaders performed their functions in South Africa at that time, seriously affected the nature, volume and quality of instructional leadership that was offered in schools. In the next section I focus on some current descriptions of instructional leadership.

2.5.1.2 Some current descriptions of instructional leadership

A vast array of studies investigating school leadership has posited descriptions of instructional leadership that indicate some convergence of thought. Hallinger and Heck (1998:169) aver that two major approaches have been pervasive in the study of principal effects in the period 1980 to 1995. These were instructional leadership and transformational leadership. Instructional leadership dominated studies from the early to late 1980s. Supovitz and Poglinco (2001:1) recognized three elements of instructional leadership:

a)   Instructional leaders organized their school around an emphasis on instructional improvement supported by a distinct vision of instructional quality;

b)   Instructional leaders cultivated a community of instructional practice in their schools, creating safe and collaborative environments for teachers to engage in their work; and

c)   Instructional leaders recognized that their own professional lives, time and priorities were to support instructional improvement.

In keeping with the trend of deconstructing instructional leadership into categories or elements, Fidler (1997:31) states that it can be seen from two points of view: the tasks to be achieved (or functional approach) and the means by which the tasks are achieved (or process approach). The functional approach corresponds to Krug's (1992:431) five point taxonomy while the process approach, espoused by

Firestone and Wilson (1985) in Fidler (1997:32-33), focuses on three linkages. These approaches are discussed in greater detail in later sections of this chapter.

Instructional leaders keep schools focused on the core learning processes and organizational and structural changes required to produce high levels of learning and performance for all learners and staff members (Sparks, 2002:23). This emphasis on improvement in learning for both learners and staff finds congruence with the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP) (2001:6), who define instructional leadership in terms of standards that principals are expected to know and do. Standard one for example, requires principals to lead schools in a way that places student and adult learning at the centre.

Kruger (2003:207) asserts that instructional leadership manifests in specific management functions of the principal that have a significant effect on teaching and learning. Lashway (2002:03) contends that initially, instructional leaders paid attention to instruction by setting curricular goals, monitoring lesson plans and evaluating leaders, now, they "immerse themselves in the 'core technology' of teaching and learning" by using data to make decisions and aligning staff development with student learning needs. Other competencies needed, according to Anthes (2000) in Lashway (2002:3) are "a sophisticated understanding of assessment" and a capacity to use assessment data "intelligently". In the next section I examine the consequences of a lack of instructional leadership with the intention of ascertaining what exactly instructional leaders do.

2.5.1.3 Fragmentation and incoherence

In schools where instructional leadership had virtually collapsed, principals concern themselves with "organisational care taking" and the responsibility for instructional leadership and decision-making falls to individual leaders (Supovitz and Poglinco, 2001:1). These authors assert that when individual teachers independently determine the kind and type of instruction in their class, three things tend to happen:

a)   The instructional culture of the school tends to splinter as there is no overriding instructional guidance and "coherent glue" to bind instruction to a larger whole;

b)   The equality of instruction varies widely as teachers exhibit different experiences and different ideas of what is good teaching; and

c)   The content taught to learners may vary from classroom to classroom due to teachers prioritizing from their individual perspectives.

How can this fragmentation and incoherence be prevented or addressed if already present?

2.5.1.4 Activities of instructional leaders

Halinger (1984) and Halinger & Murphy (1985) in Krug (1992:431) identified ten categories of activity that characterized the work of instructional leaders. These were: frame the school goals; communicate the school goals; supervise and evaluate instruction; co-ordinate the curriculum; monitor student progress; protect instructional time; maintain high visibility; provide incentives for teachers; promote professional development and provide incentives for learning. Krug (1992:431) found that several studies (Krug, 1989, Krug, Ahadi and Scott, 1991; Machrand and Ames, 1988; Machr, Braskamp and Ames, 1988) have arrived at a "five-factor taxonomy" that "… was structurally more tenable, simpler to work with and not appreciably less precise". This view is shared by Kruger (2003:207), who integrated the work of Krug (1992) and Parker and Day (1997) to arrive at Krug's modified five functions. These are:

a)   Defining and communicating a clear mission, goals and objectives
Kruger's (2003:207) emphasis is on the principal and staff, together setting a clear mission, goals and objectives to realize effective teaching and learning. The role of the principal in explicitly framing school goals, purposes and mission cannot be overestimated (Krug, 1992:432). According to Krug (1992:432), it is critical for organizations to fully understand why they exist otherwise they risk facing varied

internal and external pressures. Furthermore if due consideration has not been given to the process of education, schools will not be able to assess the efficiency of their programmes, teachers and other staff. Krug (1992:432) is very perceptive when he cautions that having a clear sense of mission is vital especially when schools are experiencing structural changes. Mission serves to guide the journey into the unknown by informing that the educational process is on track and when the destination has been reached.

b)   Managing curriculum and instruction

Schools' main purpose is the "offering of instruction". School leaders have to provide information so that teachers can plan their work effectively. Leaders have to actively support curriculum development (Krug, 1992:432). Curriculum development involves advising on the selection of teaching methods, resources, assessment strategies and evaluation. School principals are expected to be up to date with recent methodological innovations in learning areas. Principals need to have a broad knowledge of the curriculum and methods so that they can support staff with resources and expertise (Krug, 1992:432).

c)   Supervising teachers

In ensuring that teachers receive guidance and support to allow them to teach as effectively as possible (Kruger, 2003:207), Krug (1992:433) suggests that the effective leader should focus more on staff development than on performance evaluation. The instructional leader is prospective (focused on what can be) rather than retrospective (focused on what was) (Krug, 1992:433).

d)   Monitoring learner progress

Learners' progress should be monitored and evaluated by means of tests and examination and appropriate analysis. The results should be used to generate programmes of support for teachers and learners and to advise parents as to where and why improvement is needed (Kruger, 2003:207).

e)   Promoting instructional climate

The promotion of instructional climate involves the creation of a positive school climate in which teaching and learning can take place, in such a way that makes it exciting for both learners and teachers. Learning is not difficult when teachers and learners are well supported and where there is a shared sense of purpose (Krug, 1992:433 and Kruger, 2003:207).

Two questions now arise out of the above taxonomy. First, how can we closely integrate the five categories and identify specific behaviours, activities or skills that are implicit in each category? Second, through which aspects or domains of the principal's work, are the above stated categories implemented? In response to the former question, Krug (1992:433) asserts that, while there are two approaches to this end, he makes a case for the constructivist approach over the functionalistic approach.

According to Krug (1992: 433), the functionalistic dimension emphasises "discrete skill acquisition", which is inadequate, as pointed out by Glaser (1984) in Krug (1992:434), because expert performance in any undertaking involves "higher order integration of skills, not simply a mastery of each discrete skill". Hence in the constructivist perspective, according to Krug (1992:434), the instructional leader "… strategically applies knowledge to solve contextually specific problems and to achieve the purpose of schooling through others".

Responding to the second question, Kruger (2003:207) avers that the different functions of instructional leadership can be carried out within:

> (a) Bureaucratic and structural aspects which directly influence teachers and instruction; and
>
> (b) Informal aspects which indirectly influence teachers and instruction.

These informal aspects may include establishing a favourable and supportive climate for teaching and learning by means of shared decision making and collaboration. Kruger (2003:209) identified the following categories of formal bureaucratic leadership responsibilities:

2.5.1.5 Bureaucratic leadership responsibilities

Bureaucratic leadership responsibilities focus on instructional policy, planning, curriculum delivery and management, assessment, supervision and resource management. These are the specific functions of school leaders to enhance their instructional roles.

a) Instructional policy and planning:

This involves the compilation of detailed well-designed instructional policy documents (aims, subject policies, subject meetings, subject files, differentiation, assessment, discipline) and well-designed year and quarterly planning.

b) Curriculum management and leadership

Kruger's (2003:209) findings on the delegation of instructional leadership responsibilities by principals to heads of departments and subject heads, resonates with similar findings by Dimmock and Wildy (1995) in Kruger (2003:209).

c) Learner assessment

School leaders should monitor the academic performance of every learner. There must be an emphasis on academic achievements as they provide a shared meaning about purposes and the vehicle for integrating the behaviour of teachers and learners (Kruger, 2003:209).

d) Supervising teachers

Whilst programmed supervision may be shared or even delegated, regular "walk throughs" by school leaders have a positive impact on teachers (Blasé and Blasé, 1999) in Kruger (2003:209).

e) Resource management

The necessary resources (time, physical and human resources) must be made available for the development and maintenance of a culture of teaching and learning and the achievement of instructional objectives (Kruger, 2003: 209).

2.5.1.6 Informal methods related to establishing a productive school climate

Kruger (2003:210) recognizes the following informal aspects of instructional leadership that can be related to the establishment of a positive school climate and contribute to creating a sound culture of teaching and learning.

a)   Empowerment and support to teachers

Empowerment can be described as the respect for individuals and the willingness to train them, to set reasonable and clear expectations for them and to grant them autonomy to contribute meaningfully and directly to their work (Heaton in Steyn 2000) as quoted by Kruger (2003:210).   Instructional leaders provide support to teachers by protecting them from pressures that may influence their instructional activities.

Other forms of support include: providing resources, listening to their views, showing appreciation, providing incentives and sharing their ideas.   A key dimension that is missing in this analysis is the availability of resources.   In affluent communities, particularly in South Africa, it is relatively easy to provide the necessary resources and incentives.   In poor communities, basic resources may be regarded as a luxury and the provision of incentives is not a reality.

b)   Example of a principal

 The personal example of principals and the exhibition of a positive disposition are ways in which they influence teachers and this indirectly affects the instructional programme (Keller, 1998, in Kruger, 2003:10).   As instructional leaders, principals need to be role models in every aspect of the day to day interactions (Budhal, 2000, in Kruger, 2003:10). Senge (1990) in Brown (2002:16) consolidates this thinking when he declares: "The core leadership behaviour is simple: be a model".

c)   Setting expectations and recognition of achievements

Defining and communicating a clear mission, goals and objectives for the school is a vital component of instructional leadership. The recognition of achievements by the school conveys to learners that the school places a high value on their academic achievements (Kruger, 2003:10).

d)   Visibility

Kruger's (2003:10) research findings are supported by Blasé and Blasé (1998) in Kruger (2003:10). They established that the practice of principals who walk around the school aiding teachers' instructional efforts surpasses that of principals who abandon teachers. This practice encourages good teaching behaviour.

Fidler (1997:33) and Kruger (2003:207) concur with respect to the formal bureaucratic and structural responsibilities, which are part of Firestone and Wilson's (1985), in Fidler (1997:32), process approach. However the process approach also has two further linkages, direct interpersonal linkages and cultural linkages. Direct interpersonal linkages involve working with and affecting individual teacher's classroom practice, while cultural linkages involve shared meanings and assumptions (Fidler, 1997:33). Fidler (1997:33) argues that these assumptions are very powerful as a means of influencing actions because they are implicit and rarely questioned at the conscious level.

Furthermore, many leadership actions may have a symbolic value in terms of flagging organisational priorities. These symbols may be recognisable through stories, icons and rituals (Firestone and Wilson, 1985, in Fidler, 1997:33). Hence bureaucratic and cultural influences should reinforce each other (Firestone and Wilson, 1985 in Fidler, 1997:33). This is particularly significant in the South African context where African Indigenous Knowledge (AIK), though known by some school leaders, is rarely used as an aid to school and instructional leadership (Hoberg, 2004:50-53).

2.5.1.7 The value of adult learning in instructional leadership

Professional organisations, too, have made their contribution to the development and refinement of instructional leadership. The NAESP (2001:6-7) has risen to the challenge by positing six standards for what principals should know and be able to do and has suggested strategies for achieving them. These standards are not dissimilar to those used by Krug (1992); Kruger (2003), Fidler (1997), and others.

A distinguishing feature of these standards is the emphasis placed on the value of adult learning. These standards are:

a)   Lead schools in a way that places learner and adult learning at the centre;

b)   Set high expectations and standards for academic and social development of all students and the performance of adults;

c)   Demand content and instruction that ensure student achievement of agreed upon academic standards;

d)   Create a culture of continuous learning for adults tied to student learning and other school goals;

e)   Use multiple sources of data as diagnostic tools to assess, identify and apply instructional improvement; and

f)   Actively engage the community to create shared responsibility for student and school success.

2.5.1.8 Teacher perspectives on instructional leadership

In their Reflection and Growth model (RG model) of instructional leadership, Blasé and Blasé (1999:374) developed themes and strategies of effective instructional leadership from the perspective of teachers. The first theme involved talking with teachers to promote reflection and the strategies for this theme are: making suggestions, giving feedback, modelling, using inquiry and soliciting advice and giving praise.

The second theme concentrated on promoting professional growth and the suggested strategies are: emphasizing the study of teaching and learning, supportive collaborative efforts amongst teachers, developing coaching relationships amongst teachers, encouraging and supporting redesign of programmes, applying the principles of adult learning, growth and development to all phases of staff development and implementing action research to inform instructional decision making (Blasé and Blasé, 1999:373).

Another significant analysis that involved seventy studies on the effect of leadership on learner achievement was done by Waters, Marzano and McNulty (2004). This study captured the opinions of teachers and found a significant positive correlation between effective school leadership and learner achievement. Moreover, they identified twenty-one key areas of leadership responsibility that are significantly correlated with learner achievement (Waters et al 2004:47-49).

The twenty-one responsibilities are:

- Culture: fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and co-operation;
- Order: establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines;
- Discipline: protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching time or focus;
- Resources: provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the execution of their work;
- Curriculum, instruction and assessment: is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction and assessment practices;
- Knowledge of curriculum, instruction and assessment: is knowledgeable about current practices;
- Focus: establishes clear goals and keeps these goals at the forefront of the school's attention;
- Visibility: has high quality contact and interactions with teachers and learners;
- Contingent rewards: recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments;

- Communication: establishes strong lines of communication with teachers and learners;

- Outreach: is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders;

- Input: involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies;

- Affirmation: recognizes and celebrates school accomplishments and acknowledges failures;

- Relationship: demonstrates empathy with teachers and staff on a personal level;

- Change agent role: is willing and prepared to actively change the status quo

- Optimizer role: inspires and leads new and challenging innovations;

- Ideals and beliefs: communicates and operates from strong ideals and beliefs about schooling;

- Monitoring and evaluation: monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on learner learning;

- Flexibility: adapts his or her leadership behaviour to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent;

- Situational awareness: is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems; and

- Intellectual stimulation: ensures that staff are aware of the most current theories and practices in education and makes the discussion of these practices integral to the school's culture.

On examining these responsibilities, I find that many of them are embedded in the foregoing theoretical conceptualisations of Krug (1992), Kruger (2003), Fidler (1997), NAESP (2001) and Blasé and Blasé (1999); however their incisiveness and their ease of application makes them attractive for practitioners to firstly evaluate their performance against those responsibilities and secondly to take the necessary steps in implementing them in their practice. In addition, a reassuring fact is that these responsibilities have been gleaned from teacher input, this giving

the process more moral legitimacy. A negative consequence of such a list of leadership responsibilities is that it may appear to reduce leadership behaviour to a set of predictable managerialist expectations when in fact leadership is associated with creativity, spontaneity and intuition.

2.5.1.9 Adaptations to instructional leadership

a) Criticisms of instructional leadership

Researchers have expressed the opinion that instructional leadership is time consuming and generates energy sapping paperwork and is fixated on systems and routines to measure, track and record learner attainment as well monitor and direct teacher performances. These restrictive practices serve to divert teachers away from their practice (Webb, 2005:86-87). Webb's assertions may have merit especially in educations systems that are well resourced and where teachers are appropriately qualified, motivated and conduct themselves as professionals. However, in failing education systems where the quality of teaching and learning is very poor and teacher input is inadequate, the control dimension of instructional leadership ensures the delivery of certain minimum standards.

Southworth (2002:111) has found that the term "instructional leadership" is not popular with school leaders in England, most probably, according to Webb (2005:87), because of its association with the global growth of managerialism and the adverse consequences this has had on schools worldwide. Furthermore, instructional leadership apparently maintains the power base of principals, has narrow moral purpose and vests knowledge of teaching and learning in experts external to the school (Webb, 2005:87). These and other criticisms of instructional leadership have given rise to adaptations to it that have resulted in the emergence of forms of leadership referred to as educative leadership (Duignan and Macpherson, 1993) and pedagogical leadership (Sergiovanni, 1998, in Webb, 2005:87). These two adapted forms of instructional leadership are discussed in the following section.

b)   Educative leadership

Duignan and Macpherson (1993:10) believe that educative leadership must go beyond the traditional elements of leadership such as attitudes, styles and behaviours. They see educative leadership as being concerned with right and wrong, justice and injustice, truth, aesthetics and the negotiation of practical ideals in education. Webb (2005:74) concurs with this view by positing that decision making in educative leadership is based upon educational principles and values. In their model of educative leadership Duignan and Macpherson (1993:20) conceive educative leadership as "Promotion of problem solving, the growth of knowledge, learning and coherence between policy, its cultural elaboration and practice".

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Figure 2.3 A practical theory of educative leadership (Duignan and Macpherson, 1993:20)
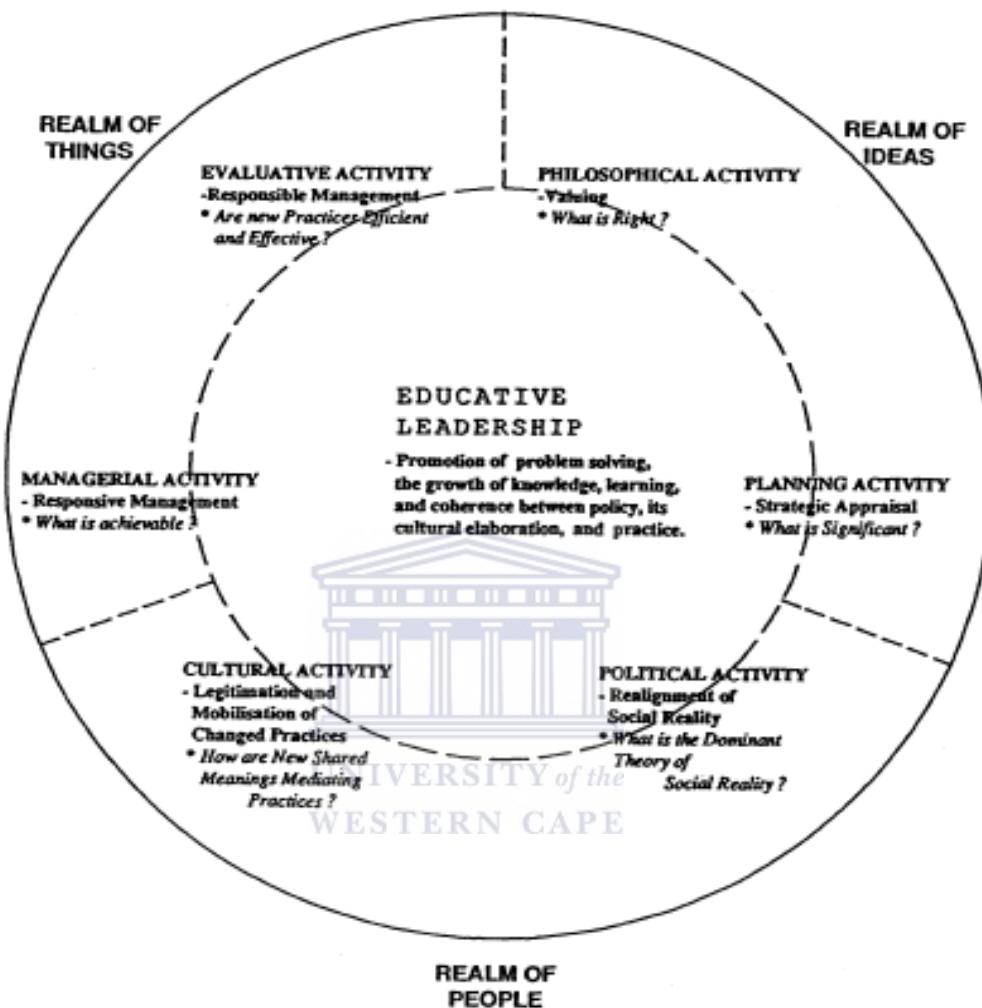
The above model represents educative leadership as consisting of three realms (people, things and ideas). Each realm has two activities. In the realm of ideas philosophical and strategic evaluations of abstract issues and problems are done prior to the development of policy initiatives. In the realm of people or culture, two forms of activity are involved, firstly cultural activity that involves the realignment of meanings given to social activity, and, secondly, political activity that legitimizes changed professional practices.

The third realm of things focuses on the practical realities of performance, resources and consequences. Leaders devote themselves to managerial and evaluative activities in order to relate scarce and valuable inputs to valued outcomes in the areas of learning, teaching and leading (Duignan and Macpherson, 1993:19-24)

According to Webb (2005:86), the efficacious elements of educative leadership are being squeezed out by the changing contexts in which leaders work and the reality of demands made on their leadership style.

c)   Pedagogical

Pedagogical leadership as espoused by Sergiovanni (1998) in Webb (2005:83) is a form of leadership that focuses on exemplary classroom practice, teacher research, the central importance of promoting good staff relationships and the encouragement of staff to take the lead in moving the school forward. Furthermore pedagogical leaders need to be people-centred with ample social and interpersonal skills. They need to inspire and motivate through working with rather than through colleagues. These leaders must be able to generate a shared commitment to the school's vision. A defining feature of these leaders is their concern for the wellbeing and professional development of their staff (Webb, 2005:83).

Pedagogical leaders see the link between their own learning, the learning of their staff and the learning of their students. Whilst they perform some roles, routines and techniques of instructional leadership; they do so for their own purpose and they interpret these tasks in line with the values and beliefs of pedagogical leadership. Collaborative problem finding and solving only work in a pedagogical school leadership environment. (Webb, 2005:87-88). Further, Webb (2005:86) asserts that pedagogical leadership can evolve out of educative leadership because of its "value congruence" with it, as it conforms to Fullan's (2001) in Webb (2005:87) three core aspects of leadership, namely moral purpose, relationship building and knowledge creation. Webb has assumed that instructional leadership

is devoid of moral purpose; however, I contend that instructional leadership cannot exist without moral purpose because its rigour is intended to generate a high quality of teaching and learning.

Educative and pedagogical leadership, though adapted, can from an instructional perspective also be categorized into Cuban's (1988) in Supovitz and Poglinco (2001:3) political dimension of school leadership. Both educative and pedagogical leadership rely to a large extent on leaders' facilitating, negotiating and relationship building skills.

2.5.1.10 Concluding comments on instructional leadership

In this section, instructional leadership has been discussed to expose the opinions of theorists who have made their input on this demanding form of school leadership. The theories are not dissimilar from each other, but their power emanates from the strength of their roots. Criticisms of instructional leadership have been constructively used to develop adaptations of instructional leadership that give relevance and power to instructional leadership. It is interesting to note Krug's (1992:441) musical analogy to the artistry of leadership. He says that musicians use the same basic twelve tone scales to produce a wide variety of music. Similarly leaders use the same activities with different motives, experiences and talents that may produce equally variable, enjoyable and effective results.

2.5.2   Transactional and transformational school leadership

2.5.2.1 Theoretical origins of transactional and transformational leadership

Having examined instructional leadership from the perspective of the various theorists, I intend to further develop Cuban's (1988) in Supovitz and Poglinco (2001:3), assertion that the work of educational leaders is dominated by three roles. The last role, apart from the managerial role, is the political role. This

political role encompasses relationship building, negotiation and facilitation (Cuban, 1988) in Supovitz and Poglinco (2001:3).

Leithwood et al (2004) believe that, apart from the basic two objectives (discussed earlier in paragraph 2.4.1) of leadership, other labels (of leadership) essentially capture different "… stylistic or methodological approaches" to the achievement of the same two objectives. In attempting to reconcile Cuban's (1988) in Supovitz and Poglinco (2001:3) and Leithwood et al's (2004) arguments, it could be deduced that Cuban's political role of relationship building, negotiation and facilitation may be related to the different styles or methods of leadership as posited by Leithwood et al (2004). Hence transactional and transformational leadership practice (including other forms of leadership practice that are examined later) may be linked to the school leader's political role.

In this section I attempt to describe transactional and transformational leadership from their theoretical origins, which were inspired by Weber (1947), Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) as cited in Boje, 2000 and Liontos, 1992. These theorists did not study leadership in schools (Liontos, 1992); however their pioneering contribution to the field is most relevant for any study of school leadership. This is followed by an exploration of these two methods of leadership from an educational perspective.

Most theorists consider these two methods simultaneously as they are closely related. Some theorists (Bass, 1985 and Walsman, 1990, in Homrig, 2001) believe that they are complementary, while others (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985 in Boje 2000:1-15) hold that they are at either ends of a continuum. According to Boje (2000:1), it was Max Weber in 1947 who originally categorized transactional and transformational leadership even though these terms were coined by Burns much later in 1978.

Boje explains that Weber's model had three distinct leadership authorities, namely bureaucratic, charismatic and traditional (Boje, 2000:4). He (Boje) asserts that,

Weber's bureaucratic authority corresponds to Burns' transactional leadership, while Weber's charismatic leader has much in common with Burns' transformational leader (Boje, 2000: 13-14). Of interest, in this model, is its dynamic cyclical nature, where the charismatic leader is replaced by the traditional (monarchy) or the bureaucratic leader. When there is revolution and/ or corruption, then the charismatic leader surfaces again only to be dethroned again (Boje, 2000:8). The model reflects a situational dynamic since specific economic and social conditions generate a particular form of leadership.

It was Burns (1978), as quoted by Boje (2000:8), who developed transactional and transformational leadership from the work of Kohlberg and Weber. Morality is the basis of both these forms of leadership. According to Burns (1978) in Boje (2000:9), an amoral leader cannot be transactional or transformational. To be a moral leader is to be receptive to the needs and motives of followers. This criterion of morality differentiates transactional and transformational leaders from pseudo-transformationalists (Bass, 1997:3).

Transactional leadership involves leading with "modal values". This emphasises the "means over the ends" (Burns, 1978 in Boje, 2000:9). These modal values are honesty, responsibility, fairness and honouring one's commitment. Transformational leadership entails leading with "transcendent values" of liberty, justice, equality and collective wellbeing.

Transcendent values emphasise the ends over the means (Burns, 1978, in Boje, 2000:10). The transactional leader engages followers with the intention of exchanging one thing for another (Burns, 1978, in Boje, 2000:10). The thing of value may be possessed or controlled by the leader (Homrig, 2001:2). Hence the transactional style may be compared to the contracting arrangement, where contractors provide the service that has been paid for. Burns (1978:169), in Boje (2000:14) captures transactional leadership succinctly when he avers that transactional leadership "… requires a shrewd eye for opportunity, a good hand at bargaining, persuading, reciprocating".

Burns identified categories of transactional leadership. These are opinion leaders, spectacle leaders, group leaders, government political party leadership, legislative leadership and executive leadership. Since executive leadership seems to have some elements of school leadership, it is briefly explained. This form of leadership is characterized by being bereft of reliable political and institutional support. It is dependent on bureaucratic resources such as staff and budget and significantly, the use of the leader's own talent, character, prestige and popularity (Burns in Boje, 2000:17).

A transformational leader, according to Burns (1978:4) as quoted by Boje (2000:10), "… recognises and exploits an existing need or demand of a potential … looks for potential motives in follower, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower."

This implies that there is no place for any selfish motives or quest for personal power (Boje, 2000:10). Burns sought a moral use of power. In this regard Burns left out Gandhi from his "pantheon" of transformational leaders since he believed that Gandhi was an "egocentric self-actualiser" (Burns, 1978:449 in Boje, 2000:13). Burns' emphasis on an unselfish morality places high expectations on a transformational leader.

Bass (1985:14) in Boje (2000:23) extended Burns' postulates on transformational leadership by adding that higher level needs that were to be satisfied were in accordance with Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs (Bass, 1985, in Boje, 2000:23). Burns categorized transformational leaders as intellectuals, reformers, revolutionaries and heroic (charismatic). For Bass and Avolio (1993) in Bass, (1997:4), transformational leadership contains the inter-related aspects of charisma or "idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration". Thus when leaders are charismatic their leadership is characterized by high moral and ethical standards. Inspirational motivation gives followers challenges and meaning for engaging in shared goals and endeavours. Intellectual stimulation assists followers to interrogate

assumptions and to be more creative in problem solving and individual consideration engages each follower as an individual and gives coaching, mentoring and growth opportunities (Bass, 1985, in Bass, 1997:4).

Boje (2000:26) describes Bennis and Nanus' 1985 study of ninety top leaders. They found that leadership qualities that surfaced were logical thinking, persistence, empowerment and self-control. They also found that transformation involved making followers into self-empowered leaders and into change agents. The leader's duty was to articulate vision and values clearly so that the newly empowered leaders know the way to go.

What then is the justification for the perennial association by theorists of transactional and transformational leadership? Burns, in his original study (Burns 1978), conceptualized transformational and transactional leadership as being at the extremities of a continuum (Boje, 2000:25). Even though Bass (1985) in Boje (2000:25) criticises Burns for this, he too simplifies the relationship in that way. In fact Bass (1997:7) states that "… the best leadership is both transformational and transactional."
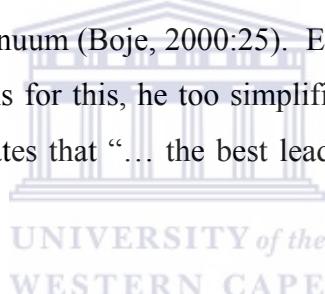
Transformational leadership augments the effectiveness of transactional leadership; it does not replace it (Walman et al, 1990 in Homrig, 2001:2). Further, Bass (1997:7) favours an oscillation between the two approaches depending on the situation. When the transformational leader sees that she/he is in a win-lose negotiation, then they will try to convert it into a win-win problem solving situation. If this is not possible then they will use their transactional skills to effectively negotiate a solution.

The notion of a hierarchy, where transformational leadership is located higher than transactional leadership is confirmed by Boje (2000:25) and Homrig (2001:2). Boje extends Bass's view by asserting that the transactional leader appeals to the lower order needs while the transformational leader appeals to the higher order needs. These needs are based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Bass

goes further by indicating that the transactional leader "accomplishes" while the transformational leader influences the followers to "transcend" their own self-interest in pursuit of higher goals, hence changing the followers' needs on Maslow's hierarchy (Bass, 1985:24, in Boje, 2000:2).

Homrig (20001:2) cites Kuhnert and Lewis's discussion of Kegan's six-stage development theory. The six stages range from 0 to 5 and Homrig (2001:2) states that, at level 2, leadership is explicitly transactional and commitment to the organization is one of "reciprocity". Level 3 leadership involves a transition from transactional to transformational. Leadership may be situational and there may be instances of conflicting loyalties by leaders; loyalty to followers as against loyalty to the organization. A critical factor at this level is that followers have not yet "bought into" the leader's beliefs and goals.

At level 4 leaders don't have competing loyalties. They have established their internal values and are able to articulate their goals to followers, who, in turn, are able to display higher levels of commitment. This model resonates with Bass's (1997:3) idea of leaders maturing from a transactional to a transformational approach. In terms of creativity, transformational leadership was found to be more strongly correlated than transactional leadership with the stimulant determinants of the work environment for creativity (Politis, 2004:31). This further cements the desirability of transcending the transactional approach towards the transformational style.

Whilst it is useful to learn the virtues of transformational leadership, it is also wise to be acquainted with criticisms that have been levelled against it, primarily, to ensure that when one implements transformational leadership, one is aware of its inherent shortcomings to avoid duplication. Bass (1997) responded to criticisms from Gronn (1994), Keely (1993), Stevens et al (1995) and others, when they contended that transformational leadership:

- Lends itself to a moral "puffery" as it makes use of impression management;

- Lacks checks and balances to prevent dictatorship and oppression;

- Is antithetical to organizational learning and development;

- Encourages followers to go beyond their own self-interests for the good of the organization and in the same context may force followers to support a leader's evil intentions contrary to their best interests; and

- Manipulates followers along a "primrose" path, on which they lose more than they gain.

Bass's (1997) rebuttal focused on the importance of genuine trust among leaders and followers. Morality is a main determinant that manifests in authenticity and fairness. Moreover, he distinguishes between transformational and pseudo-transformational leadership. Again, the primacy of values, morally uplifting behaviour, and universally accepted principles are emphasized as discriminants (Bass, 1997:15). For transformational leadership, power must be channelled to be used in socially constructive purposes for the benefit of others.

Other sobering criticisms of transformational leadership emanate from the "Changing Minds Website" (Undated), that maintains that the passion and confidence of the transformational leader can easily be mistaken for truth and reality. It is possible that an enthusiastic and passionate leader could lead followers over a "… cliff into a bottomless chasm". They further argue that, transformational leaders usually are very enthusiastic, which, if "relentlessly" applied, can wear out their followers. Another characteristic of transformational leaders is that they tend to see the "big picture" but not the details. If they do not have people to interpret the details then they are often doomed to fail. In the next section, I explore how these non-school interpretations of transformational leadership are reflected in transformational school leadership.

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2.5.2.2 Transformational school leadership

Leithwood since 1990, in association with colleagues Jantzi, Steinbach, Dart and Fernandez, has collaborated to interpret the work of Burns and Bass from a school leadership perspective (Marks and Printy, 2003:375). Hallinger and Heck (1998) assert that instructional leadership was in vogue during the 1980s in the "effective schools" era, while transformational leadership gained popularity from the early 1990s. Leithwood (1992:8) agreed with this time scale and went as far as predicting that transformational school leadership "… ought to subsume instructional leadership as the dominant image of school administration, at least during the nineties". His justification for this assertion was that in the light of restructuring initiatives, transformational leadership evoked a more "appropriate range of practice."

Instructional leaders attend to "first order changes" (involves improving technical and instructional activities through close monitoring of teachers and learners' classroom work) and "second orders changes" (building shared vision, improving communication and developing collaborative decision making processes (Leithwood 1992:9). These "second order changes", according to Leithwood (1992:9), will have to be effected using "facilitative power". Leithwood (1992:9) notes Roberts' (1985) assertion that transforming leadership facilitates redefinition of vision and mission, renews commitment and involves restructuring systems for goal accomplishment. This equates Leithwood's (1992) "second order changes" to transformational leadership.

Leithwood's (1992) view is that transformational leaders pursue three fundamental goals, firstly, helping staff members develop and maintain a collaborative, professional school culture, secondly, fostering teacher development and lastly, improving group problem solving. Leithwood and Jantzi (1996:514) cite the work of Leithwood (1994) and Leithwood and Steinbach (1995), who developed six dimensions of transformational leadership, namely identifying and articulating a vision, fostering the acceptance of group goals, providing individual support, intellectual stimulation, providing an appropriate

model and high performance expectations. This resonates with Bass's (1985) view in Boje (2000).

Marks and Printy (2003:375) seemed to have captured Leithwood's and his associates' interpretation succinctly by positing that they (Leithwood and his associates) have distinguished nine functions of transformational leaders clustered in three areas: Firstly, mission centred (developing a widely shared vision for the school, building consensus about school goals and priorities); secondly, performance centred (holding high performance expectations, providing individualized support and supplying intellectual stimulation); and thirdly, culture centred (modelling organizational values, strengthening productive school culture, building collaborative cultures and creating structures for participation in school decisions).

Botha (2004:240) argues that changes in demand of the knowledge and skills of principals warrant changes in leadership approach. Botha believes that this necessitates the creation of schools where more people participate in decision making. The South African Schools Act (DoE, 1996), according to Singh and Lokotsch (2005:279), advocates democratic participation by all stakeholders at schools. Botha (2004:240) cites Johnson (1997) who maintains that transformational leaders are not only focused on a culture of learning and teaching, but are also future orientated, responsive to changing educational conditions and are able to use the symbolic and cultural aspects of schools to foster a culture of excellence. This constant effort for improvement, a common cultural perspective and a clear and unified focus, make up what Sagor (1992:13), has identified as the "building blocks of transformational leadership".

The foregoing discussion has examined transformational leadership from a broad perspective of identifying different areas of emphasis that leaders need to focus on. There appears to be much congruence between these approaches and those theories emanating from the non-school environment. What then, are some specific ideas that can guide practitioners towards transformational leadership?

Liontos (1992:3) has drawn from the work of Sagor (1992), Leithwood (1992), and Poplin (1992), to arrive at some practical suggestions for transformational leadership. These are:

- Visit each classroom every day; assist in classrooms; encourage teachers to visit one another's classes.
- Involve the whole staff in deliberating on school goals, beliefs, and visions at the beginning of the year.

- Help teachers work smarter by actively seeking different interpretations and checking out assumptions; place individual problems in the larger perspective of the whole school; avoid commitment to preconceived solutions; clarify and summarize at key points during meetings; and keep the group on task but do not impose your own perspective.

- Use action research teams or school improvement teams as a way of sharing power. Give everyone responsibilities and involve staff in governance functions. For those not participating, ask them to be in charge of a committee.

- Find the good things that are happening and publicly recognize the work of staff and students who have contributed to school improvement. Write private notes to teachers expressing appreciation for special efforts.

- Survey the staff often about their wants and needs. Be receptive to teachers' attitudes and philosophies. Use active listening and show people you truly care about them.

- Let teachers experiment with new ideas. Share and discuss research with them. Propose questions for people to think about.

- Bring workshops to your school where it's comfortable for staff to participate. Get teachers to share their talents with one another. Give a

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workshop yourself and share information with staff on conferences that you attend.

- When hiring new staff, let them know you want them actively involved in school decision-making; hire teachers with a commitment to collaboration. Give teachers the option to transfer if they can't wholly commit themselves to the school's purposes.

- Have high expectations for teachers and students, but don't expect 100 percent if you aren't also willing to give the same. Tell teachers you want them to be the best teachers they possibly can be.

- Use bureaucratic mechanisms to support teachers, such as finding money for a project or providing time for collaborative planning during the workday. Protect teachers from the problems of limited time, excessive paperwork, and demands from other agencies.

- Let teachers know they are responsible for all students, not just their own classes.

Most of the foregoing suggestions are uncomplicated and can be easily implemented although much depends on the level of commitment and maturity of the staff. Teachers need to be receptive to these initiatives so that the transformational impact may be felt. The sincerity, energy and commitment of the principal will facilitate the successful implementation of these suggestions.

A common feature in South Africa is the delegation of functions by principals to their School Management Teams (SMT) (Williams, 1995, and Kruger, 2003:209). In this context the research of Lucas and Valentine (2002) is most informative. In their study of principal leadership, leadership teams and school culture, they found that:

- The principal seemed to have the most influence on two aspects of transformational leadership, these being identifying and articulating a vision and providing an appropriate model;

- Leadership teams were found to be most influential in providing intellectual stimulation and holding high expectations;

- In respect of school culture, leadership teams exerted the greatest influence on collaborative leadership and learning partnership; and

- Principals have more effect on teacher collaboration and unity of purpose.

These findings are significant in that they point the direction towards the type of staff development activities that can be undertaken by school leadership teams and principals, so that greater efficacy in transformational leadership may be achieved.

2.5.2.3 Comparison between transformational school leadership and transactional school leadership

The relationship between transactional school leadership and transformational leadership tracks their non-school origins. West-Burnham et al (1995), in Singh and Lokotsch (2005:280), developed a comparison between the two approaches that illustrates the greater efficacy of transformational school leadership. (See table 2.1)

Table 2.1 Comparisons between transactional and transformational leadership

Transactional Leadership	Transformational Leadership
1. Manages people to achieve outcomes	1. Enhances opportunities for leadership development
2. Seeks and secures accountability	2. Increases personal autonomy of teachers
3. Centralises intervention strategies	3. Decentralises and de-emphasises intervention strategies
4. Asserts leadership to gain dominance	4. Supports teachers and staff to maximize organizational outcomes

From the above comparisons it is clear that transactional leadership appears to emphasise the tasks (is task oriented) whilst transformational leadership concentrates on developing people (is people oriented). Both orientations are valuable depending on the maturity of the staff and the leader.

2.5.2.4 The process of leadership transformation

The transformation of leadership is a process through which the leader must actively pass (Singh and Lokotsch, 2005:280). This maturing dynamic of a leader progressing from a transactional (bureaucratic approach) to the transformational approach is in congruence with Bass (1985) in Boje (2000) and Homrig's (2001:2) perceptions. Moreover, Singh and Lokotsch (2005:280-281), map this maturation process in what they call the "transformational leadership model". Refer to Fig 2.4

Figure 2.4 Transformational leadership model (Singh and Lokotsch, 2005:280-281)

Bureaucratic Model
Autocratic to democratic
Rigidity to flexibility
Vertical hierarchy to horizontal hierarchy
Independence to dependence
Closed communication to open communication
Disregard for expertise to authority in expertise
Leadership isolation to leadership density

Political Model
Negative influence to positive influence
Closed discussions to open discussions
Power for one to power for all
Hierarchy rule to consensus
Individual responsibility to shared responsibility
Inequality to equality

Collegial Model
Respect and value
Value expertise
Shared vision
Co-ordinate and plan
Morality
Equality
Trust

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

SHARED VISION

CARE & CONCERN

FRIENDLY INFORMAL

EMPOWERMENT

CELEBRATION

SHARED BELIEFS, VALUES, ATTITUDES

PARTICIPATION

COMMUNICATION

PROCESS

TRANSACTIONAL TO TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

POWER TO EMPOWERMENT

TUNNEL VISION TO SHARED VISION

COMMUNICATION AND INSTITUTIONALISATION OF VISION

OUTCOMES

Human Resources
High morale
Commitment
Motivation
Harmonious workplace
Continuous learning
Action directed
Responsibility
Sense of ownership

Organisation
Clarity of purpose
Staff commitment
Institutionalisation of vision
Effective planning/implementation
Collaborative culture
Teamwork

Fig 2.4 represents Singh and Lokotsch's (2005:281) transformational leadership model that illustrates how leaders undertake their journey from the bureaucratic (transactional) model, to the political model (negotiating / facilitating, power, hierarchy, responsibility and equality), then to the collegial model (respect, values, vision, morality, equality, trust) finally culminating in transformational leadership that results in desirable human resource and organization outcomes.

2.5.2.5 Criticisms of transformational school leadership

The criticisms levelled earlier (see paragraph 2.5.2.1) on transformational leadership are equally potent for transformational school leadership because transformational school leadership has its foundations in transformational leadership. These foundations encompass values such liberty, justice, equality and collective wellbeing (Burns, 1978, in Boje, 2000: 9). Equality, as a value underpinning transformational school leadership, exposes it to contestation arising out of the degree of equality that is observed.

Singh and Lokotsch (2005:279) raise a few pertinent concerns. Firstly, the partnership between the follower and the leader needs to foster unity for the attainment of common goals, although this union is problematic since the positional leader enjoys a favourable distribution of resources (power, time, knowledge). This may only give the impression that transformational leadership is taking place.

Secondly, whilst the desire to involve all parties in decision making is laudable, the realities are indeed formidable. The time consuming nature of democracy, the scarcity of necessary skills (trust, sharing, and accountability) and the divergent backgrounds and interests of participants contrive to magnify the transformational challenge (Fenwick, 1992, in Singh and Lokotsch, 2005:279). This view is amplified by Steyn (2001:148), who cautions that if South African schools intend to emulate the worldwide trend to democratize education and be successful in engaging in participative management, these efforts will be fruitless unless "…

teachers are committed, trained and empowered to participate in school management".

Thirdly, Singh and Lokotsch (2005:279) argue that the school environment is rarely stable and predictable to facilitate rational decision making. School dynamics are impacted upon by many interrelated variables; hence it is justifiable to question the extent to which schools have progressed along the path towards transformational leadership.

2.5.2.6 Adaptations to transformational leadership

Whilst some researchers have been arguing for the replacement of instructional leadership by transformational school leadership (Leithwood, 1992:8, Poplin, 1992:11), Marks and Printy (2003:376) have developed the concept of "integrated leadership" that involves the fusion of what they call "shared instructional leadership and transformational leadership". Shared instructional leadership relates to the principals' focus on instruction, teachers exercising instructional roles beyond the classroom and mutual engagement of principals and teachers in the core areas of instruction, curriculum and assessment (Marks and Printy, 2003:376). Their findings suggest that where "integrated leadership was normative" teachers showed evidence of "high quality pedagogy" and students performed at high levels of achievement.

In this section I explored the mechanics of transactional and transformational school leadership and examined some criticisms of transformational leadership. In the next section I attempt to investigate the nature of distributed leadership and then I look at some leadership strategies that can be termed: moral leadership.

2.5.3 Distributed leadership

2.5.3.1 Introduction to distributed leadership

The distributed conceptualization of leadership arose out of the perception by some researchers that instructional and transformational leadership connotes leadership being located in one individual (Gronn, 2000:317, Harris, 2003:1, Leithwood et al, 2004:27). Recently there has been a growing awareness of the inaccuracy of this belief (Hallinger and Heck, 1999, in Harris 2003:2, Spillane, Halverson and Diamond 1999 and Spillane Halverson and Diamond 2004). A further criticism by Harris (2003:2) is that the existing theories, concepts and constructs of leadership have been largely ineffective in bringing about instructional improvement. Further, she cites Fullan (2001), who posits that the dominant leadership models have failed to generate and sustain school and classroom level change. Equally insightful is the assertion by Harris (2003:2) that leadership models have evolved more to control organizational functions rather than to improve teaching and learning.

In the succeeding paragraphs, I first outline some of the descriptions ascribed to distributed leadership in the literature; thereafter I examine briefly the social distribution and situational distribution of leadership as espoused by Spillane et al (2004) and Gronn (2002). This is followed by a discussion of the application of those concepts in formal and informal leadership teams and the section is concluded by highlighting some of the benefits and precautions associated with distributed leadership.

2.5.3.2 Elements of distributed leadership

Distributed leadership has been posited as an alternative that is intended to address the deficiencies as identified in the previous paragraph. Scribner, Sawyer and Myers (2007:68) claim that educational leadership involves the practices of multiple individuals and happens through the complex network of relationships

and interactions amongst all staff at schools. The interactive element of leadership is consolidated by Gronn's (2000:318) argument, in which he avers that the structural and the agency dimensions of leadership do not reduce to one or the other, but rather, there is interplay between structure and agency. Activity is the "bridge" between agency and structure since the activity has to be done by many within an organization. Thus Gronn (2000:318) views leadership as being more distributed than concentrated.

Ogawa and Bossert (1995:236) also subscribe to the high value placed, by the foregoing theorists, on interaction. They maintain that leadership flows through the networks of roles that make up organizations. People's social interaction is the medium through which their personal resources are deployed and influence is exerted. Hence they regard social interaction as the building block of leadership.

Scribner et al (2007:69) revisit this understanding of "networked leadership", which was first conceived in the 1950s and 1960s, and associate this form of leadership not to positions and people but to the performance of functions or activities. The emphasis is on functions and not designated leaders as is also the focus of Spillane et al (2004:11). They argue that leadership practice is distributed over leaders, followers and their situation. Unlike other constructs of situational influence (Hersey and Blanchard, in Sampson, 2005, Bolman and Deal, 1994), Spillane et al (2004:11) view socio-cultural context as a "… constitutive element of that activity".

Spillane et al's (2004) main assumptions are: school leadership is best understood through considering leadership tasks and as previously stated leadership practice is distributed over leaders, followers and the school's situation or context. Their definition of school leadership sees it as a process of identifying, acquiring, allocating, co-coordinating and the use of social, material and cultural resources necessary to establish the conditions for the possibility of teaching and learning (Spillane et al, 2004:11). Integral to this definition is the use of social (human) resources for teaching and learning, thus these authors conceptualise school

leadership from a distributed perspective. They extend this construct of distributed leadership by suggesting that distributed leadership is influenced by two factors (Spillane et al, 2004:16-27).

a)   The social distribution of task enactment

The first factor, the social distribution of task enactment involves an understanding of how leaders, (formal and informal leaders) in schools work together and separately to execute leadership functions and tasks. (Spillane et al, 2004:16). The enactment of leadership tasks is potentially "stretched over" the practice of two or more leaders and followers. This view contradicts the additive model (Pounder, Ogawa and Adams, 1995), which suggests a summation of the work of all leaders in a school. Their (Spillane et al, 2004:16) view is that a multiplicative model is more appropriate since the interactions amongst two or more leaders in doing a task may result in more than the sum of their leadership practice.

This view is shared by Gronn (2002:429), who maintains that the multiple view of leadership is the common understanding in the literature on distributed leadership. Gronn (2002:429) also sees distributed leadership as concertive action. This is the "holistic" way of construing distributed leadership within Spillane et al's (2004:16) context of the social distribution of task enactment.

Gronn recognizes three forms of concertive action. Spontaneous collaboration maybe regular or unanticipated whereby two or more people pool their expertise and regularize their conduct to solve a problem. These "brief bursts of synergy" may be the full extent of engagement or may be the catalyst for ongoing collaboration (Gronn, 2002:430). Intuitive working relations may develop over time when members rely on each other and cultivate a close working relationship. Institutionalised practices involve the formalization of structural relations either by design or adaptation. These three forms of concertive action represent successive stages in the process of institutionalization (Gronn, 2002:431). In each

case the agents or members operate conjointly, hence conjoint agency refers to agents synchronizing their actions by having regard to their own plans, those of their peers and their sense of membership in their group (Gronn, 2002:431).

A critical component of this factor is the interdependencies among the constituting elements (leaders, followers and situation). In this context of interdependence Gronn (2002:432) identifies two forms of interdependence. Firstly, overlapping interdependence occurs due to mutual needs for information and support. A consequence of this form of interdependence is that there may be redundant effort; however this is beneficial because it provides for mutual reinforcement. A further advantage of overlapping interdependence is that it reduces the possibility of decision errors as the sharing of roles inevitably leads to the cross-checking of each other's performance. The second form of interdependence is complementary role behaviour. Here the advantage is that interdependent members prosper from the range of their individual strengths.

b)   The situational distribution of leadership practice

The second factor, the situational distribution of leadership practice takes cognizance of the role of context or situation in school leadership. Whilst previous studies regarded context as an external variable, Spillane et al (2004:20) argue that situation is one of the core constituting elements of leadership practice that affects and is affected by leadership practice because it is very difficult to separate the capacity for action from the context of action. Hence, the belief that leadership activity is "stretched over" various facets of the situation, which includes tools, language and organizational structure (Spillane et al, 2004:21).

The components of context comprise not only the established variables such as staff size, stability, environmental complexity, task-complexity and task-certainty but also must include symbols, tools, designed artefacts and structure. Structure encompasses organizational structure as well as broader societal structures including race, class and gender. Designed artefacts refer to external

representations of ideas and intentions that are constitutive of leadership practice (Spillane et al, 2004:23).

Two levels of complementarity provide benefit. Firstly, at the material level, members perform functions according to their strengths; however they hone their weaker skills through frequent shared talk and observation of each other in a range of venues. Secondly, at the emotional level, because members share the effects of both successful and unsuccessful collaborative effort, they experience common emotions. This facilitates good working relationships, trust and peer support (Gronn, 2002:433).

2.5.3.3 Distributed leadership in action

After giving attention to the social and situational distribution of leadership, it becomes necessary to explore how these concepts manifest in reality. In schools distributed leadership emerges in legislated leadership structures, namely, SMT as well as informal leadership groups like Professional Learning Teams (PLT), (Wallace, 2002 and Scribner, Sawyer and Myers 2007). Wallace (2002:180) defines an effective SMT as:
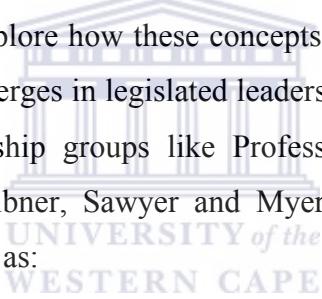
> … a formally constituted group consisting of the head teacher and senior colleagues who share commitment to working as a team, and who achieve maximum synergy by contributing their complementary skills and expertise in leading and managing the school to create optimal conditions for the promotion of effective learning and teaching.

The critical concepts in this definition are "maximum synergy", "complementary skills and expertise" and "creating optimal conditions", hence Wallace (2002:180-184) was able to synthesise these concepts into a model that predicts the degree of team synergy that emanates from the interaction of SMT members.

The model (see Figure 2.6) was developed in terms of the norms held by the head teacher and the rest of the SMT. These norms ranged from the belief in a

management hierarchy to a view that all SMT members were entitled to make equal contributions. These norms formed a matrix illustrating the views of the head teacher and the rest of the SMT (Wallace, 2002:181-182).

Figure: 2.5 Hypothesised link between interaction among SMT members and the degree of team synergy (Wallace 2002: 182)
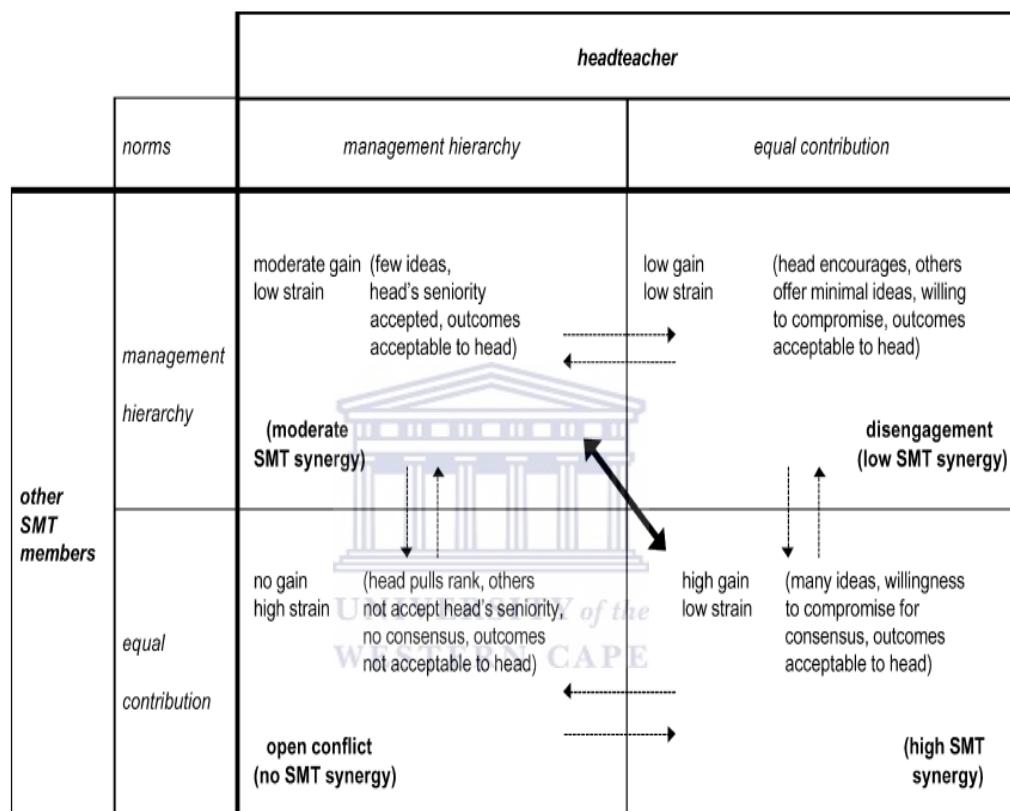
In the cells representing a congruence in the beliefs of the head teacher and the rest of the SMT (upper left and lower right) there is moderate to high gain in synergy whilst low tensions and strains are prevalent, however in the lower right cell where both agree on the equal contribution of SMT members there is higher synergy and greater co-operation with the freedom for the head teacher to make decisions when the circumstances warrant it. Conversely the cells representing a divergence of beliefs result in conflict (lower left) and disengagement (upper right).

This model also indicates that distributed leadership and management effectiveness is unlikely to be straight forward to achieve and sustain given the high risk environment prevalent in schools these days. The emphasis on improving standards and the increasingly stringent external accountability mechanisms "militates" against the extensive distribution of leadership that is so necessary to improve standards (Wallace, 2002:183-184).

Distributed leadership in an informal structure (PLT) was investigated by Scribner et al (2007). The construct of this PLT were in concert with Spillane et al's (2004) situational distribution of leadership and social distribution of leadership (Scribner et al, 2007:73). They (Scribner et al, 2007:95) found that the nature of the mission of PLT (problem finding or problem solving) necessitated differential treatment.

Further, problem finding PLT thrive under conditions of greater autonomy, although these leadership teams need to be continuously supported and maintained for optimum collaboration and effectiveness (Scribner et al, 2007:95). This view is shared by Camburn, Rowan and Taylor (2003:5), who warn that these structures need to receive explicit or extended training, curtailment of isolation by providing opportunities to meet and work and by facilitating interdependence amongst personnel.

Staff empowerment is the facilitative gel that ensures the smooth transformation that encourages the sharing of responsibility (Steyn, 2001:148). In a distributed paradigm, staff empowerment is effective when it serves as an energising tool, motivating staff to be open, creative and innovative to achieve school goals and objectives, increases productivity, increases self-control, raises efficiency and leads to greater control and authority over how work is done, thus increasing staff control and morale (Steyn, 2001:149-150). Empowerment involves the voluntary transfer of authority and ownership of a task in an enabling environment. It involves trust and the handing over of power to make decisions and take the desired actions in executing the task (Steyn, 2001:152).

Empowerment is not complete freedom to behave just as an individual or team leader likes, rather it implies respect and a willingness to grant autonomy and provide guidance (Steyn, 2001:153). Steyn (2001:148) also cautions that it will not be advisable to embrace empowerment if staff members are disinclined to share leadership with education managers or if they are unfamiliar with group processes, problem solving methods or the particular issue under discussion.

2.5.3.4 The efficacy of distributed leadership

In concluding this section, I wish to highlight some of the benefits of distributed leadership. Sparks (2002:72-73) notes that leadership roles enable teachers to reduce isolation, gain personal and professional satisfaction from improving their schools, feel a sense of instrumentality, investment and membership in their school community. Their positive experiences spill over into their school community. Their positive experiences also spill over into their classrooms, thus improving their professionalism (Barth, 2001:449 in Sparks, 2002:73).

Harris (2002:5) cites King et al (1996) and Griffon (1995), who found that shared leadership resulted in positive effects on pedagogy, on school culture and on educational quality; however Harris (2002:5) warns that time must be made available to execute distributed leadership tasks. Leithwood et al (2004:28) note that distributed leadership reduces the chances of error arising from decisions based on limited information available to a single leader and it enables the organization to benefit from the talents of more of its members.

Furthermore, interdependence affects the organization as whole, giving it a comparative advantage by ensuring specialization. Finally the advice given by Harris (2002:5) must be heeded. This concerns interpersonal factors that may affect the success or failure of distributed leadership. The relationships among teachers and members of management have the potential to throw up conflict and

tensions and these have to be well managed to overcome factors such as over cautiousness, insecurity and inertia (Harris, 2002:3).

From the foregoing, it can be deduced that distributed leadership is suggested as a strategy to enhance instructional leadership. It is also transformational, however, and for it to flourish and be meaningful, the advice of Steyn (2001:148), Harris (2002:5) and Scribner et al (2007:95) must be followed. They caution that the correct attitude, the will to participate must be prevalent, and due attention must be given to the social dynamics of distributed leadership. In the next section, I attempt to explore the effort and endeavour related to the concept termed moral leadership.

2.5.4   Moral leadership

2.5.4.1 The principles of moral leadership

The notion that existing leadership theory fails to capture, explain and represent current leadership practice is based on a reluctance to accept that leadership is a complex, messy and at times, wholly non-rational activity that is value laden and value driven (Day, Harris, and Hadfield, 2001a:55). This perspective asserts that values have a significant influence on the leadership approach used by school leaders. This view is supported by DeBlois (2000:27), who maintains that the day to day routine of hundreds of small decisions and actions is most difficult because it is the time when one builds a foundation based on consistency, honesty, integrity and persistence.

The foregoing values, according to Day et al (2001a:55), are more powerful than context that can help principals to choose the leadership approach they use in schools. DeBlois (2000:26) believes that schools are all about relationships and that a leader's success in building relationships will determine her or his success in leadership. The best leaders are those who do their mundane tasks with integrity and caring. According to Starrat (2004:31), moral leadership starts with

an honest approach to what is lacking and what is needed and then steers a steady course through sometimes treacherous waters.

From the foregoing, it is evident that forms of leadership with values at their core can be regarded as moral leadership. Hence the transformational leadership discussed in paragraph 2.5.2 can also be categorized as moral leadership because morality is a critical foundation of transformational school leadership. Other notable types of moral leadership include ethical leadership; values-led leadership; and relational leadership. In the succeeding sections I endeavour to describe and establish the efficacy of these types of moral leadership.

2.5.4.2 Ethical leadership

All educational leaders, irrespective of leadership style, are very involved in ethical matters. According to Heslep (1997:67), leaders entertain, determine, ponder and organize many valuations in forming mission statements. There is continuous deliberation in deciding upon every action – whether about curriculum, instruction, learner behaviour, staff, material resources or community relations – that must be carried out to fulfil a school's mission. This constant valuation implies that educational leaders engage in a philosophical approach to their work (Heslep, 1997:67).

This emanates from the belief that philosophy plays a key role in the ethical concerns of school leaders. Heslep (1997:68) maintains that educational leaders should recognize that a philosophical approach to their ethical dilemmas is in effect the practical wisdom that they seek.

According to Maxcy (1991) and Smithson (1983) as quoted by Heslep (1997:69), educational leaders should become philosophically minded, in that they should become comprehensive, inquisitive, probing, reflective and critical. This is not to deny the value of professional common sense; Heslep (1997:81) recognizes it as being beneficial for making judgements about routine matters and it is often used

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for making decisions in urgent situations. However, professional common sense can become dated or obsolete so that it may warrant periodic scrutiny through philosophical reflection.

Consequently, Heslep (1997:81) sees practical thought of school leaders as a continuum with professional common sense at one end and philosophical questioning from the stand point of moral agency at the other. School leaders need to work from the common sense end when they are in routine and urgent situations; they need to engage from the philosophical end when they are in contexts requiring critique of common sense choices and when the circumstances demand carefully and thoroughly grounded choices and decisions. By being able to move along this continuum, school leaders will be able to use professional common sense without enduring the consequences of its shortcomings and they will be able to raise fundamental moral questions without becoming blinded to the practical world (Heslep, 1997:82).

The valuation process that was referred to earlier in this section, relates to school leaders in three important ways. According to Stefkovich and Begley (2007:209), the first way is as an influence on the cognitive processes of individuals and groups. Here it is important for leaders to understand how values reflect human motivations and direct subsequent attitudes, speech and actions. Equally critical is the need for leaders to be aware of their own values and ethical roots, as well as to be sensitive to the value dispositions of others.

The second way in which valuations relate to school leadership practices is as a guide to action, particularly as crutches to resolving ethical dilemmas. Ethics are very important to school leaders as rubrics, benchmarks, socially justified standards of practice and templates for moral action. The third way in which valuation processes relate to school leadership is as a strategic tool that leaders can use to build consensus among members of a group towards the attainment of shared organisation objectives. In this way, ethics are used as a leadership tool in support of actions taken.

Stefkovich and Begley (2007:209) also note that school leaders' decision making is affected by other factors besides ethics. These involve organizational theories, prevailing policies, other macro perspectives and the context in which the leader works. However, they maintain that school leaders use ethics as a guide to action at certain times – in situations of high stakes urgency, when consensus is impossible, in response to unprecedented situations and in certain social issues where people seek refuge within an ethical posture (Stefkovich and Begley, 2007:209).

Furthermore, Stefkovich and Begley (2007:211) caution that ethics-based postures can be unethical, bad and socially unjustifiable as a result of an inability to discriminate. Consequently they call for "critical moral literacy" that will guide educational leaders to an understanding of what a learner's "best interests" are and how leaders can act in accordance with these best interests.

The phrase learner's or child's "best interests" is used regularly in legal and educational circumstances, but according to Stefkovich and Begley (2007:213-214), there is no clear or specific definition that has been agreed upon. Walker (1995) in Stefkovich and Begley (2007:214) maintains that school leaders see children as primary stakeholders in schools but the term 'best interest' is used in a variety of ways. This very fact leads Stefkovich and Begley (2007:215) to contend that due to the great power that adults have in determining a learner's best interests, it is incumbent upon school leaders to make ethical decisions that truly reflect the needs of learners and not their own adult self-interest. Further, they maintain that this is not easy as it requires much self-reflection, open-mindedness and a good understanding of how their ethical decisions affects others' lives.

In pursuance of a clearer understanding of children's best interest as it pertains to education Stefkovich and Begley (2007:216) posit Stefkovich's (2005) model (see Figure 2.6 below) of best interests. They maintain that the model, which is a

guide to educational leaders to make decisions in the students' best interests, consists of three elements: rights, responsibility and respect.

Figure 2.6 Best interests of students model (Stefkovich and Begley, 2007:216)
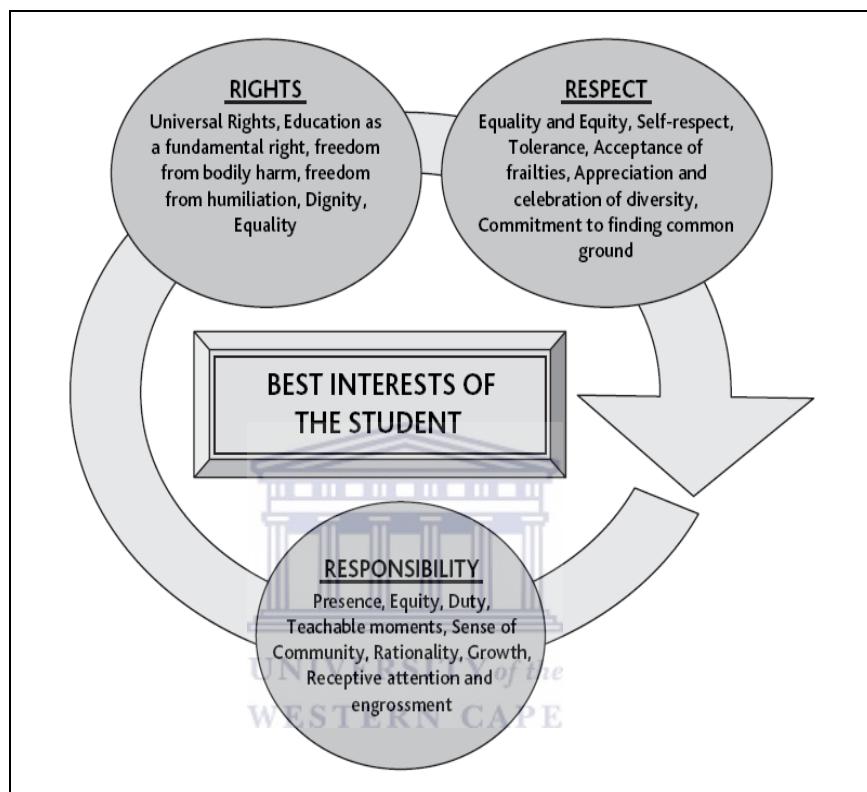
The rights contemplated in this model included universal rights, the right to education, freedom from bodily harm (especially corporal punishment), the right to free speech, freedom of religion, privacy, due process, freedom from unlawful discriminations, freedom from humiliation, the right to dignity and equality. These are basic rights that must be available to children and as such are fundamental to the conception of a learner's best interest (Stefkovich and Begley, 2007:216-217).

The granting of rights assumes a reciprocal acknowledgement of responsibility; a component of social justice, implicit in this model (Stefkovich and Begley, 2007:217-218). They quote Giligan (1982), who asserts that rights focus on

issues of equality and fairness while responsibility emphasizes equity and an "understanding that gives rise to compassion and care".

Respect is the cornerstone of this model as it creates "symmetry, empathy and connections in all kinds of relationships", especially in those relationships commonly seen as unequal, such as teacher and learner. Respect is envisioned as mutuality; necessitating the treatment of all learners with respect at the same time as expecting learners to reciprocate. The emphasis is on equity, equality, tolerance, self-respect and recognizing diversity in a society permeated by multiculturalism and plurality (Stefkovich and Begley, 2007:220).

This model of learners' best interests provides a filter mechanism to guide school leaders to make ethical decisions in school leadership. Ethical school leadership is not a stand-alone strategy, but is a necessary complementary approach that must be woven into fabric of school leadership practice. In every instance of school leadership practice, principals are confronted with the dilemma of decision-making that must be undertaken from the perspective of ethics.

2.5.4.3 Values-led leadership

The tension between the educational goals of government and those of the educational fraternity is defined by the focus on efficiency, effectiveness and performance on one side and the focus on values, learning communities and shared leadership on the other (Gold, Evans, Earley, Halpin and Collarbone 2003:127). This tension becomes more pronounced when it is recognized that school leaders are essentially 'value carriers' and that the kinds of educational values they seek to instil have consequences for the quality of education in their schools (Gold et al, 2003: 128).

In South Africa political interference in the work of school leaders during the apartheid years is well documented (Williams 1995). This hampered the 'value carrier' role of the principal. Whilst the new government has not overtly

threatened principals' roles as 'value carriers' the increasing managerial burden placed on principals restricts them from performing this role adequately

Notwithstanding these circumstances, researchers (Gold et al, 2003, Day et al, 2001a; Sergiovanni 1990) still retain their faith in the educational value-laden role of school leaders and continue to see school leadership as value driven. Noddings in Halford (1998:31) supports this faith by asserting that teachers are realising that education is a multi-task and multi-goal enterprise, hence implying that teachers can deliver a government-led schools' agenda and continue with values-led education at schools.

Sergiovanni (1990:23-25) describes four stages of leadership, bartering which corresponds to transactional leadership, building and bonding that correlates to the early and final stages of transformational leadership respectively and finally leadership by banking, which involves leadership through moral authority. In the bonding phase, there is an arousal of awareness and consciousness that elevates organisational goals and purposes to the level of a shared covenant and bonds together leaders and followers in a moral commitment. School leaders engage in cultural and moral leadership that enables subordinates to transcend esteem and self-actualization needs to become followers thereby recognizing the purpose, meaning and significance of their involvement (Sergiovanni, 1990:25).

This metamorphosis from subordinate to follower is profound because it involves the growth of staff. From people who do only what they are supposed to but little else; from people who need to be constantly monitored and supervised; and from people who want to know the rules of the game and will then play accordingly; people grow to be followers. They learn to think for themselves, exercise self-control, accept responsibility and obligation, believe in and care about what they are doing, are self-motivated and thus able to do what is right for the school. They do it well with persistence and most importantly they do it without close supervision (Kelly, 1988, quoted by Sergiovanni, 1990:27). These followers become good leaders in their own right.

The successful leader is one who builds up leadership of others and becomes a leader of leaders, hence developing a commitment to ideas values and beliefs. When this type of followership is established, bureaucratic and psychological authority are transcended by moral authority. Then a new kind of hierarchy arises in schools – one that places purposes, values and commitment at the apex and teachers, principals, parents and learners below in service to these purposes and values (Sergiovanni, 1990:27). It is to this very same hierarchy that Day et al (2001a) intend their "values led contingency model" of school leadership to aspire. This is examined in the next paragraph.

Day et al (2001a :52) regard their 'values led contingency' leadership as being post-transformational, thereby corresponding to Sergiovanni's (1990:25) "leadership as banking", which is the last stage in Sergiovanni's value-added leadership. In Day et al's (2001a :52) values-led contingency leadership, leaders are clear about their core values and these permeate their thinking and actions. Further, they (leaders) are successfully managing many competing sets of tensions concurrently and they make 'tough decisions' concerning leadership dilemmas. This indicates a level of expertise similar to Sergiovanni's (1990:25) leadership as banking where improvements are turned into routines that become second nature. Leaders minister to the needs of the school, being of service and guarding the values.

Day et al (2001a :52) compare their values-led contingency model with other leadership models and find that theirs also emphasises the importance of values, vision, high expectation and individualized support in the tradition of transformational, invitational and pedagogical leadership. Furthermore they assert that morality, emotion and social bonds are more powerful catalysts to motivation and commitment than the extrinsic fixations of transactional leadership. The values-led contingency model also encompasses the following characteristics:

a) Leaders must have a clear personal vision;

b) Good leaders are in the thick of things, working alongside their colleagues;

c) Respecting teacher autonomy and protecting them from extraneous demands;

d) Good leaders look ahead, anticipate change and prepare their staff for it so that it does not surprise or disempower them;

e) Good leaders are pragmatic. They grasp the realities of political and economic contexts and are able to negotiate and compromise (Macbeth et al, 1998, in Day et al, 2001a :53); and

f) good leaders are informed by and communicate clear sets of personal and educational values which show their moral purpose for their schools (Day et al, 2001a :53).

Emotional intelligence (EQ) was also found to be a valuable element in this model. Some components of EQ that were found to be relevant were: an awareness of their own emotions, emotional resilience, motivation and drive, interpersonal sensitivity, influencing and persuading skills, decisiveness, conscientiousness and integrity (Day et al, 2001a :54). Other characteristics that added value to this model included: a focus on care and achievement simultaneously, building and maintaining relationships, persistence and determination, risk-taking, self-criticism, entrepreneurial networking in and out of school, recognizing and learning from failure, resourcefulness and managing tensions and dilemmas through principled values based contingency leadership (Day et al, 2001a:54). It is evident from the foregoing that values-led leadership has an extensive role to play in the continued relevance of moral leadership.

2.5.4.4 Relational leadership

The building and maintenance of relationships is the common denominator amongst most leadership practices. Dyer (2001:28) states emphatically that "if leadership is about anything, it is about relationships." Slater (2005:330) goes further by asserting that "relationships are the building blocks of collaboration", however relationships don't "just happen" but require an investment of time and

hard work. Steyn (2005:44), too, sees the value of relationships in the armoury of leaders embarking on invitational education.

Steyn (2005:48) goes further by quoting Barth, from Purkey and Strahan (1995), who says that the most powerful predictor of learner performance is the quality of relationships among staff. In the domain of soul and spirit in leadership, Kessler (2002:22) argues that it calls for "deep connections", firstly to the self and then to others and finally to the higher power, that results in a humility that enables one to forgive and use one's influence for the benefit of others.

Having established the general value of relationships in leadership practice, it becomes necessary to examine the nature of relational leadership in schools and to explore how these may be nurtured. Dyer (2001:28) avers that relational leadership involves being attuned to and in touch with the intricate "web of inter and intra relationships that influence an organisation". Notwithstanding rules, structures or roles and irrespective of tasks, strategic plans, political alliances, programs, contracts, lawsuits, etc., relational leadership, according to Dyer (2001:28), is "… about people and their perceptions, (which, in essence, are their realities) of how they are being treated." Leaders tend to overestimate their level of effectiveness in relational leadership mainly because not many colleagues or superiors venture to give honest feedback. This gap in reality exacerbates poor relationships (Dyer, 2001:28). Poor relationships may well lead to sabotage, poor morale, organisation ineffectiveness and/or unnecessary, turnover in staff. Dyer (2001:28) draws attention to six competences, which in her view, may contribute to success for leaders:

a) Leading employees: demonstrates skill in delegating to staff, providing challenges and opportunities, acting with fairness and hiring talented people for the team;

b) Interpersonal savvy: demonstrates skill in building and mending relationships, displays compassion and sensitivity, is able to make people feel at ease and understands and respects diversity;

c) Conflict management: demonstrates skill in using timing and common sense in getting things done without antagonizing others and recognizing that every decision has conflicting interest and constituencies;

d) Managing change in others: demonstrates an effective use of strategies in facilitating organizational change, initiates by considering other people's concerns, involving key people in the design and implementation of change and adjusting management style to changing situations;

e) Effectively confronting problem employees: demonstrates decisive and skilful acts, handling problem employees with fairness, including loyal but incompetent or ineffective employees; and

f) Work team orientation: demonstrates effective listening skills and communication through involving others, building consensus and influencing others in decision making.

Equally important is the wisdom to know when relations fail. Dyer (2001:28) notes leaders who are arrogant, dictatorial, and emotionally volatile and employ bullying tactics often leave a trail of bruised people. Further by resisting input from others, ordering people around and making staff feel stupid and unintelligent, leaders guarantee failure for themselves and their organisations (Dyer, 2001:28). Relational leadership is about valuing one's greatest organisational asset: "its people". In an organisation, people are coordinated in a manner that facilitates collaboration.

As indicated in the last competency for relational leadership - work team orientation - this involves the organising of people within the organisation for the productive process of collaboration, Steyn (2005:48) in her investigation of Invitational Education (IE), identifies staff collaboration as one of the assumptions of IE. The aim of IE is to create an entire school environment that intentionally invites success for everyone in the school (Steyn, 2005:44). Other assumptions of IE are respect, trust, optimism, intentionality and care (Steyn, 2005:44). Collaboration as an end itself should not be the goal, but rather it should be ascertained, whether staff have added knowledge and contribute towards other

people's development (Steyn, 2005:48). How do leaders achieve this collaboration?

According to Slater (2005:321), leadership for collaboration is an affective process that is linked to the emotional domain. She justifies this position by contending that principals (in particular) had to change their practice from the traditional role of exercising power and decision-making. This change, according to Slater (2005:322) is "emotionally challenging" arising out of their feelings of loss of control, uncertainty and fear of failure. Within this re-framed view of leadership, the role of the principal has become one of supporter, reinforcer and facilitator.

Rosenblum, Louis and Rossmiller (1994) in Slater (2005:322-323) found that staff described their leaders as mentor, guide, facilitator, change agent, enabler, coach and supporter. These leadership behaviours have emotional implications and Beatty (2000a) in Slater (2005:323) notes that leaders' emotional capacities to execute these behaviours may vary and will depend on individual background and personal context. In summary, the emotional challenges are twofold, firstly leaders need the emotional strength to deal with their diminished power in schools and secondly they need to have the emotional intelligence to support their staff according to the emotionally-laden leadership behaviour that is expected of them.

In her study of parents, teachers, assistant principals and principals, Slater (2005:325-328) identified four types of behaviour of principals that support collaboration. Firstly, modelling, the principal had to set the tone for collaboration for other members of the school community. Actions undertaken by the principal must be collaborative in nature, as they sends signals about who you are and what you expect of others (Kouzes and Posner, 1999, in Slater, 2005:326). Secondly, highly developed communication skills particularly listening and openness are important in providing support. Openness refers to the honest sharing and disclosure of personal and professional information. This sharing encourages others to do the same, thus building personal trust (Slater, 2005:327).

Thirdly, valuing people, this involves not only listening to what people say or contribute but also using their input to solve problems or make decisions. In this way the collaborative process is supported by an emphasis on the interdependent nature of their work (Slater, 2005:327). Lastly, advocacy: This includes the promotion of beliefs, goals and information about the value of collaboration. This is done by an on-going visible endorsement and encouragement of participation in collaborative activities. What emotional competencies are needed to execute this leadership behaviour for collaboration?

The term "emotional competency" was introduced by Goleman (1998) in Slater (2005:328) to describe learned, job-related capabilities or skills that individuals develop based on their emotional intelligence. Slater (2005:328-330) found that some participants in her study were able to recognize Goleman's (1995), in Slater (2005:328), five domains of emotional intelligence, that underpinned emotional competency. The five domains of emotional intelligence include: self-awareness, managing emotions, motivating oneself, empathy and adeptness in relationships.

These domains of emotional intelligence manifested in Slater's (2005:328-330) study as: Firstly, understanding others, which corresponds to the empathy domain, is about listening to others, their ideas and understanding what they are trying to say. Further, understanding another person's perspective depends on active listening. Secondly, self-awareness relates to knowing one's emotions, engaging in accurate self-assessments and then having a strong sense of self-worth (Goleman, 1998, in Slater, 2005:329). Self-awareness also means discovering one's own voice and hence coming to one's own sense of power. When one has a clear sense of one's strengths and weaknesses, it assists in recognizing when others 'can do it better.' Personal reflection and getting feedback from others are useful strategies that lead to self-awareness (Slater, 2005:329).

Thirdly, managing emotions: whilst leaders are not emotionally neutral (Beatty, 2000b, in Slater, 2005:330), their ability to manage and deny their emotions is a powerful competency that can be learned (Goleman, 1995, in Slater, 2005:330).

Finally, relationships are, as stated earlier "the building blocks of collaboration". This is time consuming and involves hard work because as individuals share time and experiences together, they reveal their backgrounds, interests and beliefs and establish ground that is needed for the development of trust and relationships (Slater, 2005:330).

Slater's sobering remainder is poignant when she cautions that leadership for collaboration is not a peaceful, rational process, but is fraught with discomfort, ambiguity and uncertainty (Slater, 2005:330). Consequently, it will be wise for leaders to get support from one another, their superiors and their spiritual higher power. How does the spirit of soul manifest in school leadership?

2.5.4.5 Soul in leadership

Kessler (2002; 22) contends that the dimensions of soul or spirit are often missing in school reform. Noddings in Halford (1998:31), too, agrees that there is a "longing for the sacred" in schools. Kessler (2002:22) maintains that there is a yearning to make "deep connections", which is the basis for the soul of leadership. Deep connections are first made to the self, the source of what leaders call, personal integrity, resilience in the face of setbacks, criticism and misrepresentation, and the capacity to reflect and create opportunities for silence (Kessler, 2002:22). Thereafter, deep connection is made with others; this is the ability to listen deeply to others, to their beliefs, dreams, opinions, vision and strengths. This is followed by empathy, compassion and respect. These deep connections with self and others resonate strongly with emotional competencies of Goleman (1998) and Goleman (1995) in Slater (2005:328). The ultimate "deep connection" is to a higher power, a sense of awe for infinite mystery or a relationship with God in which you develop a humility that enables you to forgive and use your influence only to help others (Kessler, 2002:22).

The introduction of soul into school leadership softens the boundary between the public and private self, this generates a sense of authentic community, but there is

a need to acknowledge and respect the rights of those who choose not to participate. It is the responsibility of the leader to create safe environments for people to take the personal risk of revealing their innermost thoughts and feelings (Kessler, 2002:24). In this regard, Kessler (2002:24) posits five principles that, she claims, are essential in implementing soul into school leadership. Firstly, personalize; create opportunities for team members to share their personal experiences and their sense of purpose. Then ensure that conditions of respect, honesty, fairness, openness, commitment and genuine listening are created to make the environment safe for sharing. Secondly, pacing, move slowly, gently, and respectfully. Invite, offer, nurture, and affirm. Find a balance and pace that honours both experience and knowledge acquired through theory and research.

Thirdly, permission: this involves the skill of knowing when to stop pushing when resistance is encountered. This gives people an opportunity to choose when they wish to speak or engage in an activity that may evoke a sense of vulnerability. Others may opt to be witnesses and share their observations if they wish to. Fourthly, protection, reluctant team members must be protected from the pressure to participate. Any potentially damaging response to people's openness must be dealt with in a way that engenders confidence and support. Finally, paradox, models the willingness to accept the tension of apparent opposites: standards and soul, privacy and community, collaboration and authority, caring and rigour. Such acceptance of contradictions gives them equal dignity, which is the necessary condition for the possibility of grace, "the spiritual experience of contradictions brought into a coherent whole, giving us a unity greater than either of them" (Kessler, 2002:25). Soul in education is about sharing joys and sorrow together as a community or of discovering through authentic open-minded dialogue the friend inside the colleague who appeared to be antagonistic (Kessler, 2002:26).

2.5.4.6 Summary of moral leadership

Moral leadership, as explored in this section focuses, amongst other things, on the influence of morals, ethics and values in school leadership. Initially the value of a philosophical approach to the ethical dilemmas of school leadership was examined. Both professional common sense and philosophical thought were found to be relevant to the practical thought of school leaders. The best interest of learners was the main component of ethical leadership and the model posited by Stefkovich and Begley (2007:216) was discussed. In values-led leadership, Sergiovanni's (1990:25) leadership by bonding and banking sees the development of subordinates to followers, and leaders then earn moral authority. Values-led contingency leadership incorporates emotional intelligence, personal vision, pragmatism, values and a range of personal characteristics including persistence, risk taking, self-criticism and self-analysis. Relational leadership focused on the building and maintenance of relationships, leadership for collaboration and soul in leadership.

2.5.5   Fallacies in leadership

It is necessary to acknowledge some fallacies or illusions about school leadership and leaders; not only to give a balanced perspective of leadership but also to caution against over-exuberance, underestimation of the leadership effort and to create an awareness of the complexities of school leadership. Goens (2000:30) recognises six illusions within school leadership that concern the context of work, relationships and behaviour. These are:

a)   The world is a logical place that succumbs to the power of logic. Goens (2000:30) argues that the world is really chaotic, confusing, immune to linear analysis and often playful, self-organizing and surprising. The world does not surrender to reason and people frequently action emotion, belief, perception or intuition.

b)   Leaders control and make things happen. According to Goens (2000:31),

"control is a mirage".   Moral leadership is more likely to galvanise support and action.

c)   Important things can be quantified, measured or benchmarked. It is not possible to measure the genuine effort of teacher's creativity, imagination, passion or caring.

d)   Power is finite and should be hoarded.   Creative, imaginative and collaborative energy is at the root of successful people and organizations. Leaders who see power in this way, energise, rather than dominate, people.

e)   Structure concerns roles, role expectations and organizational charts. People are productive because they organize their lives around a core of values and ethics, beliefs, principles and ideas and philosophy (Goens 2000:32); and

f)   Risk taking concerns decisions about programmes, money or political strategy.   Leaders must risk living their values in their relationships, openly sharing those values with others being true to them.   The risk of leadership is feeling vulnerable and exposed.

These illusions, based on imperfect assumptions, lend weight to the argument that leaders cannot afford to use their power as their authority, rather they need to develop a moral authority that emanates from the quality of their performance, their enthusiasm and the values that they live out.

Sternberg (2005:358-359) contributes to this raising of awareness by suggesting five flaws of leadership. Firstly, the unrealistic optimism fallacy: this occurs when leaders think they are so smart and effective that they can do whatever they want. Secondly, the egocentric fallacy: this occurs when successful leaders start to think that they are the only ones that matter, not the people who rely on them for leadership. Thirdly, the omniscience fallacy: this happens when leaders think that they know everything and lose sight of the limitations of their own knowledge. Fourthly, the omnipotence fallacy: this manifests when leaders think they are all powerful and can do whatever they want. Lastly, invulnerability follows: this occurs when leaders think they can get away with anything, because

they are too clever to be caught; and even if they are caught, they figure they can get away with what they have done because of who they imagine themselves to be (Sternberg, 2005:359). School leaders need to heed these warnings as personal dispositions as well as the circumstances in the school environment can continue to lead leaders on a path of schoolwide degeneration, despair and destruction.

2.5.6   Sustainable leadership

Integral to this awareness creation process, is the need to understand how leadership can be sustained. Hargreaves and Fink (2004:1-7) identify seven principles of sustainable leadership:

a)   Sustainable leadership matters: the prime responsibility of all education leaders is to initiate learning that engages learners intellectually, socially and emotionally.   Sustainable leadership goes beyond temporary gains in achievement scores to create lasting, meaningful improvement in learning;

b)   Sustainable leadership lasts: this involves planning and preparation for succession – not as an after-thought – but from the first day of a leader's appointment, successors need to be groomed to continue important reforms and schools need to include them in their School Improvement Plans (SIP) and succession plans (Hargreaves and Fink, 2004:3).   In South African schools, it is a moot point, whether the principles of succession planning can be successfully applied given the current procedures for filling vacant promotion (leadership) posts;

c)   Sustainable leadership spreads: this means that leadership must be distributed throughout the school's professional community so others can maintain and improve achievements when the current leader(s) have moved on;

d)   Sustainable leadership is socially just and must benefit all learners and schools; not just a few at the expense of the rest.   Leaders who care about sustainability accept responsibility for the schools and learners that their actions affect in the wider environment;

e)   Sustainable leadership is resourceful: sustainable leadership provides intrinsic rewards and extrinsic incentives that attract and retain the brightest of the leadership pool. Such systems provide time and opportunity for leaders to network, learn from and support each other and coach and mentor the successors (Hargreaves and Fink, 2004:5);

f)   Sustainable leadership promotes diversity: it stimulates continuous improvement on a broad front. It enables people to adapt and to prosper by learning from one another's diverse practices. According to Hargreaves and Fink (2004:6), standardization is the enemy of sustainability because sustainable leadership recognizes and cultivates many kinds of excellence in learning, teaching and leading and it provides the networks for sharing these different kinds of excellence. Sustainable leadership does not impose standardized templates on anyone; and

g)   Sustainable leadership is activist: the activist dimension of sustainable leaderships ensures that leaders don't just accept any policy/theory or practice that is foisted on them. They undertake a well-considered protest against matters they feel are counterproductive to their mission. Hargreaves and Fink (2004:7) believe that sustainable leadership cannot be left to individuals, however talented or dedicated they are. They (Hargreaves and Fink 2004:7) maintain that if we want change to matter, to spread and to last, then the systems in which leaders do their work must make sustainability a priority. The challenge is immense, as Hargreaves and Fink (2006) in Harris, Brown and Abbott (2006:398) state that "… change in education is easy to propose, hard to implement and difficult to sustain".

2.6   HIV AND AIDS

Introduction

Whilst the main focus of this study is on the role of school principals, it is the conditions under which they play this role that gives meaning, authenticity and value to their work. The two determining conditions for this study are poverty

and HIV and AIDS. Thus education – as evidenced by the role of the school principal – is cast into the melting pot and is seasoned by poverty and HIV and AIDS. The resulting role of school principals then assumes such a level of influence that must give hope to communities straining under the weight of poverty and HIV and AIDS. In the succeeding paragraphs, I firstly attempt to establish the extent of the pandemic, and then I examine prevention strategies and how the impact may be countered. Gender mainstreaming and the vulnerability of women are briefly explored.

The 2006 report on the Global AIDS Epidemic (UNAIDS, 2006:6) gives a snapshot of the global epidemic. Approximately 38, 6 million world citizens were estimated to be living with HIV at the end of 2005. An estimated 4, 1 million became newly infected while 2, 8 million were estimated to have lost their lives to AIDS. The proportion of people who have become infected with HIV (HIV incidence rate) is believed to have peaked in the late 1990s and to have stabilized thereafter. Whilst the world incidence rate has stabilised, AIDS mortality has risen. This has caused HIV prevalence (the proportion of people living with HIV) to level off.

The numbers of people living with HIV have continued to rise due to population growth and the life-prolonging effects of anti-retroviral therapy (UNAIDS, 2006:6). Sub-Saharan Africa, the region with the heaviest burden of the AIDS epidemic, exhibits diverse trends because whilst incidence rates have peaked in most countries, there are some countries where the epidemic is still expanding. South Africa's AIDS epidemic, according to UNAIDS (2006:6), is one of the highest in the world and is showing no signs of decline. An estimated 5, 5 million South Africans were living with HIV in 2005. About 18, 8% of adults (15-49 years) were living with HIV in 2005. Almost one in three pregnant women attending antenatal clinics was living with HIV in 2004.

In the absence of an effective vaccine or curative drug, the major thrust in the struggle against HIV and AIDS must be prevention (UNAIDS, 2006 and Kelly,

2000a). However, while some countries have significantly increased prevention coverage, prevention programmes still reach a small minority of those in need (UNAIDS, 2006:11). Countries that have lowered their HIV incidence have been aided by the emergence of new sexual behaviour patterns, examples being: a reduction in commercial sex transactions, delayed sexual debut, increased emphasis on monogamy and an increase in condom use (UNAIDS, 2006:11).

Notwithstanding the above stated positive developments, progress is thwarted by the failure of many countries to direct financial resources towards activities that address the prevention needs of populations that are at highest risk (UNAIDS, 2006:14). The global response to HIV and AIDS, according to UNAIDS (2006:17), must be transformed from an episodic, crisis management approach to a strategic response that recognizes the need for long term commitment and capacity building, using evidence informed strategies that address the structural drivers of the epidemic. This macro-level strategic response gives direction to my study, which is also a response to HIV and AIDS at the micro level.

According to UNAIDS (2006:23), AIDS exacerbates every other challenge to human development, from maintenance of public services to food security and conflict avoidance. Endeavours to contain the epidemic must simultaneously focus on preventing new infections, caring for those already infected and mitigating the economic, institutional and social impacts of HIV and AIDS. Consequently, UNAIDS (2006:23) offers the following advice to counter the impact of HIV and AIDS:

a) Providing support to individuals and families affected by creating access to therapy, nutrition and treatment for opportunistic infections and other health issues;

b) care and support of orphaned children must be prioritized; and

c) social protection measures to preserve livelihoods of people affected by HIV and AIDS, welfare programmes, child and orphan support, public works to provide employment, state pensions and micro financing.

More women than men are infected by HIV and AIDS (Kelly, 2002b:7-8).

> … in many respects AIDS is a man's disease, though women bear
> the brunt of the impacts. The disease was first observed in men …
> transmitted world wide by men and it is kept going by men. (Kelly,
> 2002b:8)

This "feminization" of the HIV and AIDS epidemic is fuelled both by biological and socio-cultural factors (Prince, Kleintjies, Cloete and Davids, 2005:1). The physiology of women's reproductive system, which has a larger surface area, makes it easier for women to become infected than men. In addition, women are more exposed to the HI virus because infected men have a higher concentration of HI virus in their semen. Further, women's vulnerability is increased by social and cultural norms that legitimize male domination (Prince et al, 2005:1). Hence, gender inequality further exposes women to higher levels of risk of being infected. This difference in the risk profile of men and women warrants a gender mainstreaming approach to the treatment, prevention and support of people living with HIV and AIDS (Prince et al, 2005:2).

According to Prince et al (2005:2), gender mainstreaming is defined by UNDP (United Nations Development Programme) as taking account of gender relations in all policy, programme, administrative and financial activities and organizational procedures. It involves two processes, firstly being informed about relevant gender issues and secondly, incorporating this information into one's work. Shisana, as quoted by Prince et al (2005:4), describes gender mainstreaming more succinctly as:

> …when they can identify the conditions that affect men and women
> differently, those that affect men more than women, and those that
> affect women more than men; when they can identify risk factors for
> men and women for each of their conditions and develop different
> interventions for men and women accordingly.

Burger (2005:17) clarifies that gender is not a synonym for sex, but refers to the commonly shared expectations and norms within society about appropriate male and female behaviour, characteristics and roles. It is a social and cultural

construct that differentiates women from men and defines the way in which women and men interact with one another. Against this understanding, Burger (2005:20) explains the WHO criteria for gender interventions.

Firstly, to be useful, interventions must, at a minimum, do no harm. In other words, those policies and programmes that can help cause harm by reinforcing damaging gender and sexual stereotypes that perpetuate the epidemic either directly or indirectly, must be eliminated. Secondly, interventions must be gender sensitive, in that they recognize that men and women's needs often differ and hence find ways to meet those needs differently. Thirdly, gender transformative interventions should be applied which not only recognize and address gender differences, but go a step further by initiating the conditions whereby women and men can examine the damaging aspects of gender roles and experiment with new behaviours to create more equitable role and relationships. Lastly, the most evolved set of interventions are structural interventions that go beyond health interventions to those that reduce gender inequalities by fundamentally changing the economic and social dynamics of gender roles and relationships.

In conclusion, it must be noted that, whilst the above criteria have been developed to guide interventions at the macro-level, they are also applicable at the school level. Similarly, Amuzu's (2005:24) suggestion of programmes and activities that may benefit a multi-sectoral approach (MSA) can be used to inspire school based interventions. Among these are: Skill building for women and girls, income generation projects, gender equality programmes, programmes for men, programmes for men and women, boys and girls, programmes to enhance the mobilisation of men in care-giving roles and training in the impact of the positive and negative dimensions of current expressions of masculinity on HIV and AIDS. In the next section, attention is given to the second condition that impacts on the role of principals in this study – poverty.

2.7 POVERTY

As was mentioned in the previous section under HIV and AIDS, poverty is the second condition under which school leaders perform their leadership roles in disadvantaged areas. Ndingaye (2005:16) appears to sound cynical when she states that defining poverty is a political activity; however the accuracy of this belief is validated by the understanding that different definitions of poverty are influenced by arbitrary descriptors of poverty that may aim to serve different agenda. Notwithstanding this, Ndingaye (2005:17) draws upon various sources to describe poverty as: people being considered poor because their income is so low as to be intolerable; poverty being explained in terms of deprivation and insufficiency in basic human needs; inadequacy of the welfare state; and the scarcity of favourable occasions which permit people to build decent lives for themselves.

It is not within the ambit of this study to investigate the definitions, descriptions and theoretical constructs of poverty; however an effort is made in the following paragraphs to sketch the extent of poverty in South Africa, the Cape Town area and Khayelitsha, the area in which this study is located. Thereafter, I endeavour to find the links between poverty and HIV and AIDS, poverty and education and education and HIV and AIDS.

Bhorat and Kanbur (2006:4) contend that there is overwhelming evidence to indicate that income poverty has increased in South Africa. They found that the headcount index of poverty increased from 32 to 34% from 1995 to 2000 and another study revealed that poverty levels increased from 26 to 28% when using a $2 poverty line from 1996 to 2001. Every indicator used to describe poverty has revealed that poverty had increased in the two periods mentioned earlier. A racial decomposition of poverty indicated that poverty levels have increased among African headed households, while for non-African households poverty levels were stagnant or had declined. The spatial dimension of poverty is revealed by the rise in rural and urban household poverty; however the share of rural poverty in

overall poverty is declining. This suggests a rapid process of urban migration. This is a significant factor in the overall poverty level of the Western Cape and Cape Town in particular (Bhorat and Kanbur, 2006:5).

The Gini coefficient, an indicator of income inequality, has risen from 0, 68 in 1996 to 0, 73 in 2001 (Bhorat and Kanbur 2006:5). Further, income inequality has risen across races and within races. African citizens were the victims of income disparities both across and within races (Bhorat and Kanbur, 2006:5). The overall driver of income inequality in post-apartheid South Africa continues to be the rising inequality amongst African households. According to Bhorat and Kanbur (2006:6), changes in the labour market remain possibly the main transmission mechanism for understanding the shifts in income poverty and inequality.

The rate of unemployment, whether one uses the narrow or broad definition, rose significantly in the last decade (31 to 42% in the broad definition). Whilst the economy did create 1, 5 million jobs, the labour force grew by about 5, 2 million individuals, hence close to 8 million people were unemployed by the end of the period 1995 to 2002 (Bhorat and Kanbur, 2006:5).

Bhorat and Kanbur (2006:6) are fair in their assessment of government's response to these trends. According to them, the state made the effort for the rapid reallocation of resources through the fiscus from rich white households to poor African households. The state increased its spending on education, health, housing and water provision. A key mechanism, that proved very successful, in the transfer to households has been the introduction of the child support grant (CSG) and the very high take-up rates on the existing social old age pension (SOAP) (Bhorat and Kanbur, 2006:7).

Ndingaye (2005:20-22) describes Chamber's (1983) "deprivation trap" that identifies five interlocking clusters of disadvantages that point to poverty being influential in inflicting physical weakness, isolation, vulnerability and

powerlessness. Godinot and Wodon (2006:16) also note that whilst economic definitions of extreme poverty provide a standard by which to measure progress, the extremely poor do not use such definitions to communicate what extreme poverty means to them.

The poor feel extreme poverty as resulting not only from insufficient financial resources but also from a lack of basic securities in many different spheres: education, employment, housing, health care and participation in civil society. When this lack of basic securities in various areas has mutually reinforcing impacts and leads to deprivation in other areas of life, the poorest are prisoners of a vicious cycle. Hence, they cannot improve themselves without the help of others.

People that are poor then become socially excluded, are blamed for their lack of participation, are often suspected of being complacent, are further marginalized and experience feelings of contempt and exclusion that severely attack their self-confidence (Godinot and Wodon, 2006:17). Bhorat and Kanbur (2006:8) recognize these non-income measures of deprivation and contend that the effectiveness of the state's reallocation efforts can only be measured through the changes in income, assets and services available to the poor and consequently through observation of improvements in welfare.

Enyedi (2004:20) states that high levels of poverty and unemployment prevail in the Cape Metropolitan Area (CMA) with unemployment growing from 10, 2% in 1991 to 18% in 2000. Unemployment also varies significantly by ethnic groups; as 26% of Africans were unemployed which was more than 4 times the unemployed amongst whites in 1998 (Enyedi, 2004:20). Poverty in the Cape Town area is accompanied by inadequate housing. There were more than 140 000 households living in shacks out of the total of 600 000 households in the Cape Metropolitan Area (CMA).

Crime and HIV and AIDS pose the most serious threat to wellbeing and development. Enyedi (2004:21) refers to the case study prepared for the Most Sustainable Cities project, which predicts that the number of deaths due to HIV and AIDS in the CMA will exceed the number of deaths from all other causes by 2009. The impact of HIV and AIDS will further entrench poverty as bread winners become unable to work and the numbers of orphans increase (Enyedi, 2004:21). In the following paragraphs I examine the state of poverty in Khayelitsha, the site of my study.

According to Ndingaye (2005:44-45), Khayelitsha originated out of the overcrowding of older African townships: Langa, Nyanga and Gugulethu. This overcrowding was generated by the mass migration of African families (women and children) from the Transkei and Ciskei in the early 1980s. The majority of Khayelitsha residents are therefore in a state of "transition and acculturation" and they display strong traditional elements of community life (Ndingaye, 2005:44). Khayelitsha has formal housing settlements in areas know as Bongweni, Ikhwezi Park, Khulani Park, Khanya Park, Tembani, Washington Square and Zolani Park and the informal settlement areas are Site B, Site C, Green Point, Litha Park, Makaza and Harare (Ndingaye, 2005:47-48). The study by Ndingaye (2005) of Site C in Khayelitsha therefore closely approximates the conditions in Site B, as both these areas originated and developed under similar circumstances and they are adjacent to each other. My school, the site of this study, is located in Site B.

Khayelitsha is located about 26km from the Cape Town central business district (CBD) (Ndingaye, 2005:47) and workers have to travel for more than an hour by train or taxi, hence travelling costs become a significant determinant of employment (De Swardt, 2004:9). Education attainment and proficiency in speaking English and/or Afrikaans play a role in obtaining employment (De Swardt, 2004:10). As pointed out earlier, employment status is a major determinant of whether a household is in poverty (De Swardt, 2004:8), and these factors (spatial isolation, education and language) have a significant effect on poverty. Ndingaye (2005:4) is unequivocal in asserting that poverty in

Khayelitsha "… is a result of the politically calculated strategy of apartheid that denied black people access to decent living standards".

Enyedi (2004:21) states that the Khayelitsha district has a population of over 500 000 people and has by far the largest concentration of the "poorest of the poor in the Cape Metropolitan area". De Swardt (2004:10) found in the study of Khayelitsha and Nyanga that 76% of the surveyed households fall below the official poverty line of R352 per adult per month. This had a serious impact on food security, nutrition, family health, life expectancy and employment.

The employment status of a household is a determinant of whether it remains in, escapes from, or falls into poverty (De Swardt, 2004:8). De Swardt (2004:8-9) found that unemployment was very high, with 52% of the households surveyed earning no income from wages at all and 64% of the adults being unemployed. Even if people were employed, they earned such low wages that they fell below the poverty line and were labelled the "chronic working poor". De Swardt (2004:9) suggests that spatial isolation, education and language are important factors that affect unemployment.

Thus poverty finds expression in hunger, as 70% of households in De Swardt's (2004:13) survey had been excluded from access to sufficient food in the previous year. Such deprivation must certainly attract social and medical issues that complicate the response to poverty. Poor health is the noted characteristic of the impoverished as they (the poor) are exposed to such large scale risk (De Swardt, 2004:16). HIV and AIDS together with tuberculosis are the main causes of death in the Khayelitsha and Nyanga areas. Most significantly, HIV and AIDS related death is a major cause of chronic poverty and conversely chronic poverty renders poor households, more susceptible to HIV and AIDS exposure and infection (De Swardt, 2004:17). This critical link between poverty and HIV and AIDS is explored in its more general sense in the next paragraph.

African Development Forum (2000:3) explain the relationship between HIV and AIDS and poverty by initially acknowledging that HIV and AIDS affect rich and poor, however poverty seems to facilitate the spread of the disease and worsens its impact. An overarching reason for this is that where poverty is prevalent, responding to immediate short term survival or satisfying needs has more importance than protecting long term benefits. This view is shared by Fenton (2004:1-2). This is precisely the situation with HIV and AIDS, since no immediate harmful consequences are endured and the infection appears to be dormant for several years (African Development Forum 2000:3).

In as much as poverty exacerbates vulnerability to HIV and AIDS, HIV and AIDS aggravate poverty by propelling households back on ever more limited resources, reducing employment opportunities, restricting economic growth because of the loss of skilled human resources and the use of resources for consumption rather than investment (African Development Forum 2000:3, and Fenton, 2004:2)

Whilst Fenton (2004:1) disapproves of many elements of former South African President Thabo Mbeki's approach to tackling the HIV and AIDS pandemic, she does agree with him when he highlights poverty as a factor contributing to the spread of HIV and AIDS; however she quotes Stillwagon (2002), who has argued that poverty increases biological susceptibility to HIV and AIDS. Stillwagon (2002), in Fenton (2004:1), suggests that factors such as malnutrition, parasitosis and lack of access to healthcare undermine epithelial integrity and immunity and increase the likelihood of having other untreated sexually transmitted infections, hence increasing susceptibility to HIV infection and progression.

Another factor, cited by Fenton (2004:1), is that poverty restricts people's choices and forces them to indulge in "high risk behaviours". Poverty–driven labour migration and commercial sex work are activities likely to increase HIV infection. In summary, African Development Forum (2000) and Fenton (2004) both seem to agree that poverty reduction will undoubtedly be at the core of a sustainable solution to HIV and AIDS.

What is the relationship between poverty and education? King, McGrath and Rose (2007:349) quote from Department for International Development (DFID) (2006), who proclaim that education is both a right and a route out of poverty. People who have been to school are more likely to be employed, take care of their health and demand that their governments act in their interests. This faith in the efficacy of education has stimulated Aid agencies to develop Education for All (EFA), millennium development goals (MDG) and other developmental programmes that are directed at reducing poverty (Wedgewood, 2007:383). In the early 1980s, this thinking was the impetus for the emphasis on universal primary education (UPE) (Wedgewood, 2007:383).

Recent evidence suggests that Universal Primary Education (UPE) is not necessarily the panacea for poverty reduction. In fact, Wedgewood's (2007) analysis reveals that UPE could only ever be a partial response to the educational challenges of development (King et al, 2007:351). The inadequacy of UPE was illustrated by Wedgewood (2007:383-387), in her study of UPE in Tanzania. She found that the attainment of almost universal primary education did not translate into poverty reduction. This happened because quality was sacrificed for quantity and the external environment was not conducive to enabling primary school graduates to use their education to lift themselves out of poverty.

The new emphasis on education for poverty alleviation is now on, what is termed, post-basic education (post-primary or secondary education with a bias towards skills development) (Wedgewood, 2007, King et al, 2007, McGrath and Akoojee, 2007). Countries like Rwanda, Kenya, South Africa and India see economic growth as the way out of poverty and seek to develop their human capital in such a way as to deepen skills associated with the knowledge economy (King et al, 2007:352). These countries aim to become globally competitive and now focus on ensuring high levels of English competence, expansion in higher education and developing specific vocational training (King et al, 2007:352). Therefore, education's value and efficiency in conspiring with other favourable factors to lift people out of poverty is not being challenged, but as factors outside the

educational sector change, educational emphasis has to adjust to ensure optimum efficiency.

According to Verner (2004:36), widespread poverty affects, firstly, learners' performance and, secondly, their availability to attend school because parents weigh up the costs and benefits of an additional income earner and household support against future gains from additional schooling. In addition, Ndingaye (2005:63) states that poverty exacerbates the dropout rate of learners in Khayelitsha as they have to cope with inadequate food, poor housing, unhealthy living conditions and high rates of physical and mental disabilities. Further, the inability to get school uniforms, lost birth certificates (for social grants) and the need to provide care for the younger siblings contribute to non-attendance at school.

Family problems, lack of motivation from parents, parental neglect and inadequate parental supervision are other factors affecting school attendance (Ndingaye, 2005:63-64). These characteristics of the poor amplify Godinot and Wodon's (2006;17) views that were mentioned earlier, that when poverty and deprivation take root, the poor become socially excluded, are blamed for their lack of participation, are often suspected of being complacent and experience feelings of contempt and exclusion. Smit and Liebenberg (2003:1) find that schools and teachers are responsible for the exclusion of parents from involvement in their child's schooling through practices and policy formation. Parents need to be involved in the schooling of their children in a proactive manner that facilitates constructive teacher, parent and learner interaction (Smit and Liebenberg, 2003:1).

In order to be effective in bringing parents into the co-operative zone, schools need to understand the community they serve, and particularly the realities facing the people. Schools need to look at their policies and the legislative barriers that are present in the schooling system that impede meaningful parental involvement and then provide the requisite support to parents (Smit and Liebenberg, 2003:5).

In concluding this section on the relationship between poverty and education, the evidence seems to suggest that education, primary, secondary, higher and vocational education have poverty alleviating effects provided external environmental factors have been adjusted to synergise with education. Prevalence of poverty contributes generally to school dropout and poor quality education. The Department of Education has made two significant interventions recently, firstly, it has consolidated and deepened its school nutrition project to now include indigent primary and secondary learners and secondly, as from 2006 it has abolished school fees at certain poor schools.

This intervention from the Department of Education may have been prompted by the research of Phurutse (2005:3), who found that the three provinces which had the highest mean annual school fees have relatively low HIV and AIDS prevalence (less than 6%), whereas the three provinces with the lowest mean annual school fees have a HIV and AIDS prevalence of more than 13%. Whilst Phurutse (2005:3) is at pains to clarify that this does not suggest a link between HIV and AIDS prevalence and school fees, it can lead one to speculate that the mean annual school fees can be considered to be a proxy for the level of poverty because school fees are determined by parents by considering their ability to pay. Then this relationship may be indicative of the relationship between poverty and HIV and AIDS. In the next section, I endeavour to link up HIV and AIDS with education.

2.8 RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN EDUCATION, POVERTY AND HIV AND AIDS

In the previous paragraphs I have shown the link between poverty and HIV and AIDS and thereafter I established the relationship between poverty and education. These relationships may be represented schematically as follows:

Figure 2.7 The relationships between education and poverty and between poverty and HIV and AIDS
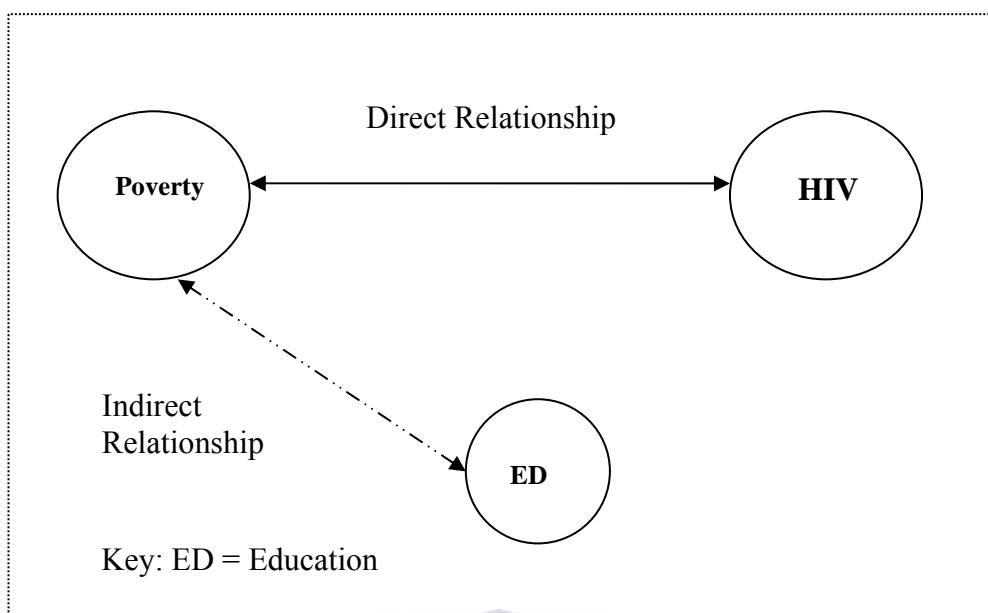
In Chapter One, in the section on the background of this study, I presented the views of a number of commentators (Smart, 2004; Wildeman, 2001; Kelly, 2000a; Kelly, 2002a; Worldbank, 2002; and Badcock-Walters et al, 2004) who all posit that education has a key role to play in limiting the impact of HIV and AIDS. Kelly (2002a :4-5) asserts that behaviour maintenance and behaviour modification can only be achieved through education. The World Bank (2002:xvi) appeals to all countries to accelerate their efforts towards achieving EFA goals, both because of the importance of education for a country's viability and because of the "critical role it can play in preventing HIV and AIDS".

The EFA is a commitment taken on by the international community at the April 2000 World Education Forum in Senegal to achieve education "for every citizen in every society". Moreover it commits the EFA partnership to ensure that by 2015 all children, especially girls, children from difficult circumstances and those from ethnic minorities have access to and complete, free and compulsory education of good quality (World Bank, 2002:8). The Millennium Development Goals (MDG) were endorsed by 189 countries in September 2000 at the UN

Millennium General Assembly in New York. The second MDG directs countries to "achieve universal primary education" (UPE) (World Bank, 2002:4). These efforts at prioritising education are at the heart of the strategy to use education for the purpose of limiting the spread of HIV and AIDS.

Both Kelly (2000a) and the World Bank (2002:5) speak of the window of hope in respect of children aged 5-14 years. This is so because they are least likely to be infected, but moreover, education before they reach the peak vulnerable years will protect them (World Bank, 2002:5). Coombe and Kelly (2001:9-12) interrogate the reasons why education exerts this protective influence. They contend that the health skills and HIV and AIDS education that are provided at school together with the process of becoming more educated are important factors that contribute to this protective influence; however, they argue that the general impact of education in and of itself is the most significant factor (Coombe and Kelly, 2001:9).

Further, Coombe and Kelly (2001:9) contend that education seems to be playing the same role on HIV and AIDS as it does on poverty reduction and improved health. Basic literacy and numeracy and the introduction to a learning culture seem to be key ingredients. However, their argument that, "… it does not seem to be so much what one has learned or even how one has learned that matters. What counts is that one has learned", seems to capture the complex influence of education on HIV and AIDS most appropriately (Coombe and Kelly, 2001:10). They base their assertion on the power of education to enhance potential to plan for the future and education's power to accelerate socio-cultural changes (Coombe and Kelly, 2001:10-12).

In closing this section, I briefly investigate the impact of HIV and AIDS on education. The World Bank (2002:11-25) highlights the extent to which HIV and AIDS affect education. They aver that HIV and AIDS have a "pronounced adverse impact" on both the supply and quality of education. HIV and AIDS are affecting the health of teachers more than the general population in Southern

Africa because of their higher socio-economic status, greater mobility and postings away from home. Increasing AIDS-related teacher deaths will add pressure to an already depleted teacher corps, hence retarding the quality of education (World Bank, 2002:11). HIV and AIDS induced teacher morbidity increases teacher absenteeism, thereby reducing teaching and consequently reducing quality and quantity of education. Rural areas face a drain of teachers as infected teachers migrate to urban areas to be nearer better medical care (World Bank, 2002:13).

With respect to the demand for education, the impact of HIV and AIDS is not so clear; however, increased HIV prevalence will increase the number of infants, between the ages of 0-5 years that will be infected mainly by being infected through mother to child transmission. This will reduce the number of learners to be enrolled at schools (World Bank, 2002:14). As poorer households start to lose family members, the demand for education will be adversely affected, particularly at the secondary and tertiary levels. The ever increasing number of AIDS orphans will pose a serious threat for the demand for education (World Bank, 2002:16). In summary HIV and AIDS has an inverse relation with education, since HIV and AIDS reduce both the demand and the supply of education. Hence the relationship (Figure 2.8) between the three factors (poverty, HIV and AIDS and education) can now be completed as follows:

Fig: 2.8 Relationships between education, HIV and AIDS and poverty
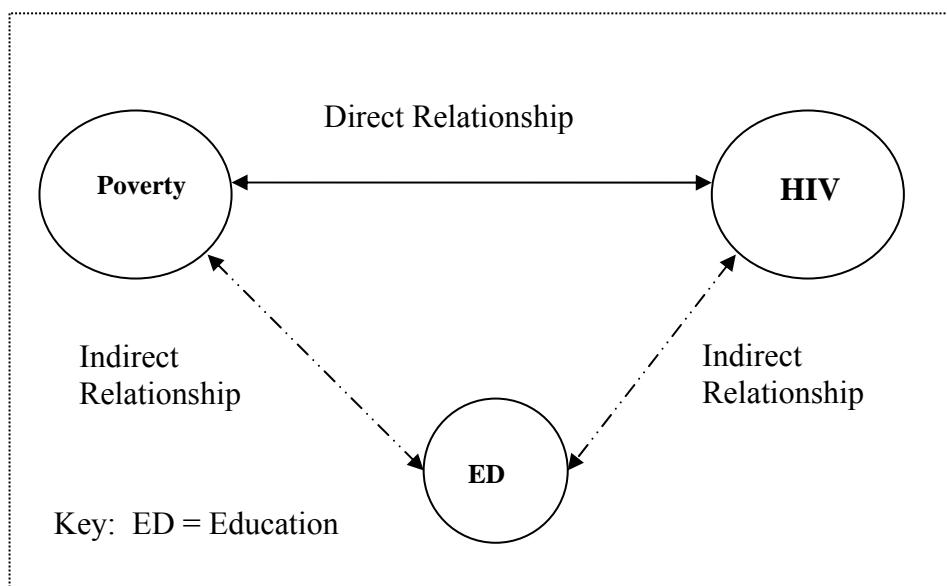
2.9 SCHOOL LEADERSHIP AND HIV AND AIDS

Most of the literature that was consulted (Kelly 2000a; 2000b; 2002a; 2002b Coombe and Kelly, 2001, World Bank, 2002, Badcock-Walters et al, 2004, Smart, 2004, Wildeman, 2001) focuses on the relationship between education and HIV and AIDS at the broad macro level. However, the efficacy of education in impacting on HIV and AIDS is dependent on the work done by school leaders at the micro or school level. To date there are very few studies that have concentrated on the day to day role of principals in dealing with HIV and AIDS.

Wijngaarden et al (2004:6) identified seven roles of school principals that enhanced their strategic position in the effort against HIV and AIDS. Principals' influence in the community and their potential to be role models for good practice gave them prominence in terms of prevention, stigma and discrimination reduction and care and support. Principals' influence in integrating HIV and AIDS education in the curriculum, their potential to defend the teaching of sex education in culturally sensitive communities and their capacity to establish non-formal, peer-based extracurricular activities added to their strategic value. The role of

principals in policy implementation, advocating acceptance of HIV infected and affected learners and staff and their fundraising potential were recognised (Wijngaarden et al, 2004:6).

Rayners (2007) consolidated and extended the above-mentioned roles in her HIV and AIDS School Leadership Model by positing qualities and characteristics that may be able to assist school principals in dealing with HIV and AIDS in their school communities. Rayners's (2007: xiii) model emphasises the principal: as an advocate in dealing with the issues of HIV and AIDS; a visionary rooted in mission and knowledge; a promoter of healthy living; a strategist, who integrates HIV and AIDS into the school programme and curriculum; a role model; and an ally of the school community.

My study builds on the afore-mentioned roles in the context of poverty. In particular, I focus on the leadership role of the primary school principal in circumstances characterised by HIV and AIDS and poverty. Moreover, my study is influenced by the need to improve the quality of teaching and learning whilst aiming to reduce the impact of poverty and HIV and AIDS.

2.10   CONCLUSION

In this chapter I set out to scan the literature to develop a guide to principals' best practice and to provide the foundation for the theoretical underpinnings of this study. During this process it became apparent that, whilst there were South African sources which I cited adequately, it is the work of the researchers from Canada, United States of America and the United Kingdom that was more readily available and which was consulted most extensively by South African researchers and indeed by me. This overflow of studies emanating from the North gives a skewed perspective of school leadership theories because those studies are conducted under very different conditions relative to South Africa and the rest of Africa.

These theories have been included in this study to give school principals a glimpse of the realities that better resources can procure. It will be a challenge for our school leaders to apply these theories, which have been researched under conditions of "near perfection" in the 'laboratory' schools of the North. The resourceful school leader will assimilate the workable concepts and experiment with them under our conditions. A second concern arising out of the prolific writing from the North is the influence of language and culture. It requires astuteness, alertness and strong powers of discrimination to judge the applicability of these theories. The last concern regards the unquestioning attitude that we have developed towards Northern ideology. Lees (2008) illuminates this concern by posing insightful questions as to the authenticity, applicability, appropriateness and the motives of Northern originated theories and interventions.

In the next chapter, I discuss the research methodology that was applied to this research.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1   INTRODUCTION

The literature study in the previous chapter has illuminated the field in respect of the information that lays the foundation for the study. This chapter aims to concretise how the road ahead will be navigated. These descriptions conjure the image of the lonely researcher undertaking a journey into the unknown field of knowledge. To move forward the researcher must know what is around him or her. This knowledge can be equated to the literature study. To progress in this journey, the route must be plotted and different options must be evaluated to arrive at a plan that depicts the map, strategies and instruments that must be used to make the journey into the unknown, successful.
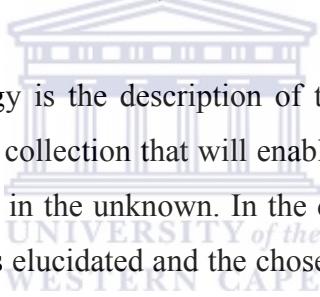
The research methodology is the description of the paradigm, approach, design and the rationale for data collection that will enable the researcher to discover the knowledge that is hidden in the unknown. In the discussion that follows, each of these research concepts is elucidated and the chosen options are justified. In order to understand the point of departure of the various groups and individuals, I first discuss the reasons for choosing the site of the study and then explain the sampling criteria for each of the research groups. Whilst this may imply some degree of homogeneity, it must be borne in mind that individuals make up groups and therefore diversity must be recognised within any group response.

Thereafter an in-depth explanation of the research instruments is given elucidating the reasons why particular questions were posed to specific research participants. All research decisions that have an influence on research outcomes are clarified, hence illuminating the underlying assumptions and expectations. The procedures employed for data analysis are introduced; the constraints and limitations of the research methods and decisions are explored and the ethics of the research discussed.

3.2   DIMENSIONS OF RESEARCH

According to Mouton and Marais (1996: 7), social science research "is a collaborative human activity in which social reality is studied objectively with the aim of gaining a valid understanding of it." In this study collaborative human activity is undertaken with the research participants (parents, learners and teachers including principals) by way of interviews, focus group interviews, questionnaires and observation. The social reality that is studied is the role of principals under conditions of poverty and HIV and AIDS.

To ensure objectivity the study not only has to follow all the requisites of validity and reliability but also has to keep a balanced perspective given that I am the principal of the school in which the study was conducted. I undertook the study according to the prescriptions of generally accepted research practice, thus ensuring a valid (according to Mouton, 2001:100-104 and Anderson, Herr and Nihlen, 1994:26) understanding of school leadership under the specified conditions of poverty and HIV and AIDS.

The above quoted definition of social science research manifests five dimensions of research (Mouton and Marais, 1996: 8): sociological, ontological, ideological, epistemological and methodological. In the rest of this section I rely heavily on the work of Mouton and Marais (1996: 8-19), who succinctly elucidate the dimensions of research and thereafter illuminate how the methodological dimension was deconstructed to reveal the paradigms of research.

The sociological dimension emphasises scientific research as typical human activity that involves joint or collaborative activity. The term ontology refers to the study of being or reality and hence the ontological dimension focuses on the reality that is referred to as the research domain of the social sciences. This research domain encompasses the full diversity of human endeavour: activity, characteristics, behaviour, institutions, products and so on.

The epistemological dimension may be regarded as the key dimension of social science, namely the quest for truth or the generation of research findings that approximate the true state of affairs as closely as possible. Hence the generation of valid findings is characterized by the constant endeavour to eliminate falsity, inaccuracy and error in research. The ideological dimension guides the research to be intentional and goal directed, its main aim being the understanding of phenomena. The methodological dimension ensures that research is objective by virtue of it being critical, balanced, unbiased, systematic and controllable.

Mouton and Marais (1996:17) extend the understanding of these five dimensions when they examine them firstly from the more abstract context of scientific disciplines, and secondly from the more concrete context of a specific research project. In the sociological dimension at the level of research in a discipline, the following are important: the existence of networks or research communities, issues of research ethics and the influence of ideologies and interests. At the project level the sociological dimension manifests in decisions relating to individual versus team projects; issues of project supervision and management and planning and control of time and resource.

The ontological dimension, at the disciplinary level, refers to dimensions and disputes as to the various ways in which research domains can be defined. Some of these domains compare: the cognitive approach with the behaviourist; the realist versus instrumentalist or nominalist approach; and finally the individualist approach is compared with the holistic approach. At the project level, the ontological dimension refers to proper classification of the unit of analysis, individuals, and groups of collectives, interactions and objects.

In the ideological dimension, at the disciplinary level, theoretical goals such as theory construction and theory building and understanding human behaviour are some examples. Practical goals such as therapy or healing of the human being, improving the quality of life and emancipation of the oppressed, also manifest. Within the project perspective, the theoretical element includes exploratory,

descriptive and explanatory research whilst the practical elements mainly involve providing information, diagnosis and problem solving and planning and monitoring social programmes (Mouton and Marais, 1996:18-19).

In the epistemological dimension, various definitions of the epistemic ideal of science and scientific disciplines have been posited. Among these are: the search for truth; certain and indubitable knowledge, empirical adequacy, problem solving and wisdom and insight. It seems inappropriate to claim that a specific project or study will result in truth or even more farfetched is the expectation of certain or indubitable knowledge. At this level emphasis is placed on validity, demonstrability, reliability or replicability of research findings (Mouton and Marais, 1996:19).

In concluding this sub-section, I position my research within four of the five dimensions. At the sociological level this study belongs to the special research fraternity that is investigating the impact of HIV and AIDS on school-going learners [as sponsored by the Dynamics for Building a Better Society, DBBS)] and as such is governed by ethical considerations but is not restricted by ideologies and interests. At the ontological level, this study focuses on the role of the school principal as the unit of analysis. In the ideological dimension, the goals of this study involve developing a best practice guide so that principals may use it to improve the quality of teaching and learning at their school as another strategy in dealing with poverty and HIV and AIDS. The level of epistemology demands that my research must exhibit validity, demonstrability, reliability and replicability. The care taken in developing the research instruments is indicative of the value placed on the above-stated epistemological imperatives. In the next section I examine the methodological dimension in detail and then position my study in the paradigms that manifest.

3.3   PARADIGMS

The methodological dimension, within the context of a discipline refers to high –
level methodological paradigms or schools of thought. These paradigms include:
positivism and logical positivism; phenomenological or the interpretivist
approach; critical theory; and Karl Popper's critical rationalism and scientific
realism (Mouton and Marais, 1996:19).

At the project level three general methodological approaches are prominent in the
social sciences: the quantitative approach, the qualitative approach and the
participatory action approach. Forster (1998) quotes Kuhn's (1970) definition of a
paradigm in the scientific context as

> … sufficiently unprecedented to attract an enduring group of
> adherents away from competing modes of scientific activity and
> sufficiently open ended to leave all sorts of problems for the
> redefined group of practitioners to resolve.

 In a more succinct explanation Kuhn described the term paradigm as "essentially
a collection of beliefs shared by scientists, a set of agreements about how
problems are to be understood" (Emory Education, Undated). However, Dash
(2005) interprets Kuhn's paradigms as an integrated cluster of substantial
concepts, variables and problems attached with corresponding methodological
approaches and tools. Guba and Lincoln (1994:105) agree with Kuhn when they
define paradigms as the basic belief system or world view that guides the
investigator in terms of method, ontology and epistemology.

Dash (2005) posits that there are mainly two paradigms in the verification of
theoretical propositions; however he concedes that during the "post-sixties" the
third paradigm of critical theory was developed. This standpoint resonates with
Mouton and Marais's (1996:19) conception of paradigms except for Mouton and
Marais's (1996:19) classification of Karl Popper's critical rationalism and
scientific realism as a paradigm on its own. Denzin and Lincoln (1994:99) concur
with Mouton and Marais's (1996:17-19), three-dimensional deconstruction of

paradigms: epistemology, ontology and methodology. Denzin and Lincoln, (1994:100) also classify the paradigms into three types: firstly, conventional positivist, secondly, constructionist and lastly critical theory.

There appears to be consensus amongst the experts that the paradigms largely fall into the positivist and the non-positivist dimensions, with critical theory playing the role of critiquing and transforming human endeavour (Guba and Lincoln, 1994:113). It is now necessary to deconstruct the positivist and non- positivist paradigms so that one can justify one's choice of paradigm and thereby use the rules, conventions and methodology that are appropriate for the chosen paradigm.

According to Bernard (2000:15), Saint-Simon was the originator of the positive school of social science, but it was Compte who developed the idea in a series of major books. Compte, (1974 [1855]), as quoted by Bernard (2000:15), posited that human knowledge progressed through three stages: In the first stage phenomena are explained as being attributable to Gods, whose "whims cannot be predicted by human beings." In the second stage, the metaphysical stage, explanations for observed phenomena are given in terms of "essences" like the "vital forces" commonly invoked by biologists of that time. Babbie (1995:41) believes that in this stage God was replaced by nature and natural law. The positive stage of human knowledge is reached when people come to rely on empirical data, reason and the development of scientific laws to explain phenomena. The central position of positivism is that experience is the foundation of knowledge (Bernard, 2000:16).

According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994:100), conventional positivist social science applies three criteria to disciplined enquiry: firstly internal validity, the degree to which findings correctly map the phenomenon in question; secondly, external validity, the degree to which findings can be replicated or reproduced by another researcher and lastly, objectivity, the extent to which findings are free of bias.

John Stuart Mill in 1866, as quoted by Bernard (2000: 15) states categorically that

> … whoever regards all events as part of a constant order each one being the invariable consequent of some antecedent condition, or combination of conditions, accepts fully the Positive mode of thought.

The "positivism" was further developed by the "logical positivism" of the Vienna circle, however it was the "instrumental positivism" coined by Bryant (1985), quoted by Bernard (2000:18) that earned the ire of social scientists of the period. This "instrumental positivism" attempted to crush out emotion and "taboo ethics and values" (Bernard, 2000:18). However, according to Bernard (2000:18-19), the social scientists responded by consolidating humanism through the efforts of Schiller (1864-1937) and Dilthey (1833-1911). Humanism maintains that "truth is not absolute but it is decided by human judgment" (Bernard, 2000:18). Bernard (2000:19) reconciles positivism with humanism by suggesting that humanists do not deny the effectiveness of science for the study of non-human objects, however the study of human beings requires a different method. This feeling is reciprocated by scientists; hence a tenuous harmony is maintained.
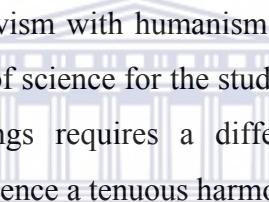
Hermeneutics involves the close and careful study of free-flowing texts, so that deep underlying meaning can be discovered. In phenomenology the direct observation of phenomena is emphasized; however unlike in positivism, phenomenologists seek to sense reality and describe it in words rather than numbers (Bernard, 2000:20). Humanism, Hermeneutics and Phenomenology are loosely grouped under the broad category of the interpretive–phenomenological approach (Bernard, 2000:20 and Schwandt, 1994:119).

According to Bernard (2000:20-21) commitment to an interpretivist or a positivist epistemology is independent of any commitment to, or skill for, quantification. This means that positivists can utilize qualitative descriptions to explain their research, conversely social scientists are equally at liberty to engage in statistical manipulation to elucidate their findings. Notwithstanding these commonalities, Bernard (2000:21) does concede that for social scientists who work in the

humanist and phenomenological tradition, quantification is inappropriate. My study of the leadership role of school leaders in economically disadvantaged areas affected by HIV and AIDS is firmly embedded in the non-positivist paradigm because it does not involve any quantification; however, it also straddles the critical theory paradigms.

Mouton's (2001:137-140) conception of the "three worlds" framework adds value to the understanding of research problems as being positioned in three worlds. In World 1, everyday life problems (social/practical problems – crime, unemployment, learning problems, etc) are investigated to discover solutions. In World 2, scientific research is undertaken, whereby the scientist selects phenomena from World 1 and makes these into objects of inquiry. The search for "truth" or "truthful knowledge" is the overriding goal of science. The World of meta-science is World 3 in which reflection plays a critical role. As scientists we have to constantly submit our research decisions to critical reflection (which theory to select, which indicators to use, which research design to choose) so that we can obtain truthful and valid results (Mouton, 2001:139).

When one looks at the three worlds from a research perspective World 3 (meta-science) focuses on the paradigms in the philosophy of science – positivism, realism, post-modernism, critical theory, and phenomenology. From the perspective of research methodology, in World 2, the paradigms of research methods emerge, namely, quantitative, qualitative and participatory action research. These methodological approaches of World 2 are linked to the real-life objects in World 1 through their respective special relationships. The quantitative paradigm is explored in a structured methodology that sees the researcher as an outsider, whereas the qualitative paradigm engages the researcher from an insider perspective. In the action research paradigm or participatory paradigm, the researcher may also be a participant (Mouton, 2001:141).

According to Mouton (2001:141), realism and positivism are linked to the quantitative paradigm, whereas the qualitative paradigm is closely related to the

interpretivist and phenomenological dimensions of meta-science. Critical theory, in the meta-sciences, is explored through action research.

This study is firmly entrenched in the qualitative paradigm of research methodology for the following reasons. Firstly, I have chosen the phenomena (school leadership, HIV and AIDS and Poverty) from Mouton's (2001:137-140) World 1 and I have made them the object of inquiry. Secondly, from the World 3 perspective, I have engaged in reflection to select the appropriate theory, indicators, design and methodology to obtain truthful and valid results. Thirdly in this study, I have collected my data from my own school, of which I am the principal. I have researched the role of principals; hence I cannot be any more "inside" than I am at present.

Figure 3.1 (Creswell, 2005:44) below distinguishes the differences between qualitative and quantitative research. This study utilises most of the qualitative research characteristics throughout the various steps in the research process.
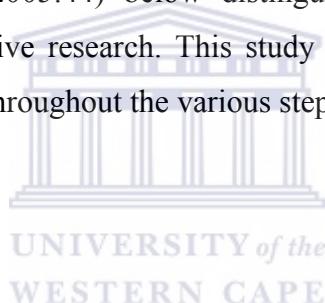
Figure: 3.1 Characteristics of quantitative and qualitative research (Creswell, 2005:44)

Quantitative Characteristics	Steps in the Process of Research	Qualitative Characteristics
• Description and explanation oriented	Identifying a Research Problem	• Exploratory and understanding oriented
• Major role • Justification for the research problem and specification of the need for the study	Reviewing the Literature	• Minor Role • Justification for the research problem
• Specific and narrow • Measurable, observable data	Specifying a Purpose	• General and broad • Participants' experiences
• Predetermined Instruments • Numeric (numbered) data • Large number of individuals	Collecting Data	• General, emerging form • Text or image data • Small number of individuals or sites
• Statistical analysis • Description of trends, comparison of groups, or relationships among variables • A comparison of results with predictions and past studies	Analyzing and Interpreting Data	• Text analysis • Description, analysis, and thematic development • The larger meaning of findings
• Standard and fixed • Objective and unbiased	Reporting and Evaluating Research	• Flexible and emerging • Reflexive and biased

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According to Creswell (2005:45), qualitative research is used to study research problems in which little is known about the problem, and there is a need for a detailed understanding of a central phenomenon. The central phenomenon in this study is the role of school leadership in the context of HIV and AIDS and poverty. However, very little is known about how school leaders should engage with the constraints of poverty and HIV and AIDS. Thus a detailed understanding of the roles of school leaders in the given context may be obtained through exploration.

The literature review is believed to play a minor role that seeks to justify the research problem. However, in my literature study I have concentrated on developing a guide to good practice by providing an in-depth understanding of current school leadership theories. As previously stated most of the studies on school leadership do not focus adequately on HIV and AIDS and poverty. This research seeks the counsel of the direct beneficiaries of meaningful school leadership – learners, parents and teachers, and thereby attempts to expand the value of school leadership as a powerful additional weapon in the struggle against HIV and AIDS and Poverty.

3.4   RESEARCH APPROACH

The research problem of my study, firstly, requires an extensive understanding of the characteristics of meaningful school leadership that has been successful in raising the quality of education delivery. This necessitates understanding the complex world of the school leadership from the perspective of school leaders themselves. The lived experiences of principals are reconstructed in their writings, journals, books and textbooks that describe and evaluate their experiences. The detailed literature review that was conducted in the previous chapter is an attempt at gaining meaningful insights into the world of school leaders.

The constructivist and the interpretivist approaches to human inquiry demand that to gain understanding into the world of meaning one has to interpret it (Schwandt,

1994:18). Consequently this study can be classified as an inquiry into human endeavour from the constructivist and interpretivist approach. Meaning, according to Schwandt (1994:118), is "fashioned" out of events and phenomena in the context of a specific location and time through prolonged and complex social interaction by specific participants.

The critical link between constructivism and interpretivism is that to prepare an interpretation is itself to construct a reading of meanings; it is to present the interpreter's construction of the constructions of the actors one studies (Schwandt, 1994:118). Whilst the two approaches are closely interrelated, they are also different due to the way each responds to the following questions: What is the purpose of human inquiry (as opposed to inquiry into the physical world)? How can we know about the world of human action (Schwandt, 1994:118)? These two approaches are essentially concerned with matters of knowing and being (epistemology and ontology). Interpretive work does not pay too much attention to the methodology (the techniques of collecting and analyzing data) because fundamentally "all interpretative inquirers watch, listen, ask, record and examine" (Schwandt, 1994:119). The research objectives and the purpose of the study give direction to the specific use of methodology.

The second objective of this study warrants an in-depth study of one school community to establish perspectives, from each of the constituents, on what school principals must do in schools affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS. This objective not only suggests the methods to be used but also signals that constructions of participants' perspectives will be interpreted to produce a 'theory'. The third objective requires that the theory generated out of the effort of the first two objectives be synthesised – again an interpretive element is implied – to produce a code of practice that may be useful to school principals in similar environments. Implicit in this endeavour is the need for a critical approach to this study as well. Why am I using the word "implicit"?

Kincheloe and Mclaren (1994:139) posit the following definition of a criticalist that may best explain my assertion that the nature of my study implies a critical perspective. Firstly, the criticalist attempts to use his/her work as a form of social or cultural criticism and secondly accepts some basic assumptions: that all thought is fundamentally mediated by power relations that are socially and historically constituted; that facts can never be isolated from the domain of values or removed from some form of ideological inscription; that certain groups in any society are more privileged than others; that the oppression that characterizes contemporary society is most forcefully reproduced when subordinates accept their social status as natural, inevitable or necessary.

The above listed assumptions are some basic assumptions that have contributed partially or fully to the current state of society and in particular the ills of society (poverty and HIV and AIDS included). As stated in Chapter Two, the critical approach must enable us to be aware of why the social world is as it is and through the process of critique it must inform us how the social world is supposed to be (Ewert, 1991:346) and importantly we need to consider viable alternatives (Wright, 2007:1-11) that must be implemented to make the social world as it is supposed to be.
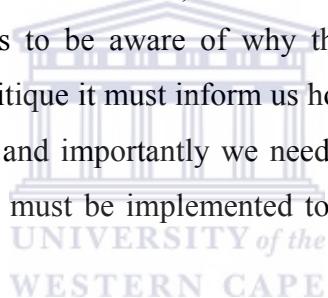
Carspecken and Apple (1992:514) have identified five stages in critical social research: monological data collection that involves minimal or no interaction with participants; preliminary reconstructive analysis; dialogical data generation (interviews); describing system relationships and explaining system relationships. In the process of collecting data for my study, I have undertaken my research along the above guidelines and I have engaged with the data to describe and explain system relationships. The critical approach has a deep theoretical background that guides the researcher to be judicious and vigilant so that one does not ignore its rigour and thereby relegate the critical approach to serve expediency.

Kincheloe and McLaren (1994:144) quote Kincheloe (1991) who argues that the manner in which we analyse and interpret empirical data is coloured by the way it is theoretically framed. It is also affected by the researcher's own ideological assumptions; hence what we call information always involves an act of human judgement. From a critical perspective this act of judgement is an interpretive act (Kincheloe and McLaren 1994:145) thereby linking the criticalist approach to interpretivism, the other key approach to this study. This linkage justifies the approaches taken to make this study valid and reliable.

3.5   RESEARCH DESIGN

Salltiz et al (1965) in Mouton and Marais (1996:32) define the term research design as

> … the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data
> in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose
> with economy in procedure.

Leedy and Ormrod (2005) aver that research is "a systematic process of collecting and analyzing information" for the purpose of gaining a better understanding of the phenomena that are being studied. These definitions imply that there is a desire to achieve the research goals of a project whilst taking serious consideration of all the practicalities and constraints affecting the project.

Mouton (2001:55) succinctly describes the research design as a plan or blueprint of how one intends conducting the research. Mouton (2001:55-56) uses the metaphor of a construction plan whilst Janesick (1994:209-219) uses dance as her vehicle to explain the research design. Both Janesick (1994:211) and Mouton and Marais (1996:32) agree that designs are about decision making, and research decisions have to be made at the appropriate phase of the design. In the construction metaphor, the design has to incorporate a large number of decisions that relate to size, shape, location and style. The architect has to visualize the ideas and transform them into the design or blueprint for the building that is

contemplated (Mouton, 2001:55). Once the building plan is accepted then the builder gives consideration to the methods to be used to build the building.

The table below, adopted from Mouton (2001:56), clarifies the difference between research design and methodology:

Table 3.1 Differences between research design and research methodology (Mouton, 2001:56)

Research Design	Research Methodology
Focuses on the end product: what kind of study is being planned and what kind of result is being aimed at?	Focuses on the research process and the kinds of tools and procedures to be used.
Point of departure = research problem or question	Point of departure = specific tasks (data collection or sampling) at hand
Focuses on the logic of research. What kind of evidence is required to address the research question adequately?	Focuses on the individual (not linear steps in the research process and the most "objective" (unbiased) procedures to be employed.

The research design is directed by the research problem (Janesick, 1994:210). In my study the research problem focuses firstly on the requirements of meaningful school leadership, hence warranting an extensive study of the literature to unearth exemplary school leadership practice. Therefore the literature review of this study has a twofold purpose: firstly to establish the field of the study and to gather the extent to which the research question has been answered in other studies. Secondly, to establish meaningful school leadership practice that will inform the rest of the study.

Using the characteristics of research designs as found in Table 3.1, the envisaged end product is a good practice guide to school leaders. The purpose of the research for this specific research problem necessitated a comprehensive scan and study of the extant literature so that the findings of the literature may be accepted as reliable and valid. The evidence that was evaluated had to be reference

material that is well known, authentic and valid. Books, journal articles and web sites that were consulted were highly recommended and were substantive enough to give confidence to the good practice that was generated.

The second research objective focuses on establishing perspectives on the role of principals in schools affected by high levels of poverty and HIV and AIDS. An in-depth study was to be done of one school community. The fact that one school community is the object of the study classifies this part of the study as a case study (Merriam, 1998:27). Smith (1978) in Merriam (1998:27) delimits a case as a 'bounded system' and therefore Merriam (1998:27) sees the case as "a thing, a single entity, a unit around which there are boundaries." Stake (2005: 444) agrees with Merriam about the case being a 'bounded system' but goes further to posit that the case has to be a 'functioning body' or a system. Case studies are particularly suitable for learning more about a little known or inadequately understood situation (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005:135).

Consequently two criteria demarcate my study as a case study: firstly, the single entity in my study is my school community and secondly the unit of study is the role of the principal. As mentioned earlier, very little is known about the role that principals need to play in the context of poverty and HIV and AIDS, thus this case study will inform school leadership. Stake (2005: 444-445) differentiates between intrinsic case study and instrumental case study. My study is an instrumental case study since it is used mainly to elaborate the role of school leaders. In other words, a study is made of the school community to gain insight into the role of school leaders. Intrinsic case studies are conducted essentially to obtain a better understanding of the particular case (Stake, 2005: 445). Notwithstanding the primacy of the instrumental value of this case study, I, as the principal of the school, have gained valuable insight into the perspectives of the school community on my own role and effectiveness.

Mouton (2001:148-150) deconstructs the case study design into sub-categories that clearly illustrate the key characteristics of this design. Some of these sub-categories are explored as they pertain to my study.

a) Description/Definition: Usually qualitative studies that intend to provide an in-depth description of a small number of cases. According to Stake (2005:460) case studies are valuable to refine theory, suggest complexities for further investigations and help to "establish the limits of generalisability". In my case study, the focus is mainly to actualise Stake's injunction of not only refining theory but to enrich the theory through the experiences of the participants.

b) The design classification is framed in terms of a four-dimensional typology (Mouton 2001:147) that describes the data as empirical (involving trials or experiments) or non-empirical, primary (new data) or analysis of existing or secondary data. The third dimension refers to the nature of the data: numerical or textual data. In the fourth dimension, the degree of control: highly structured (laboratory conditions) or natural field settings (with low control). My study involves the use of non-empirical data because no trials or experiments have been undertaken. New data will be collected (primary) that will be augmented with the secondary data (books, journal articles and websites) that have been used. The type of data collected is predominantly textual, however very limited use of numerical data has occurred. In terms of the degree of control, the research is based in its natural field setting: the school, therefore there will be low control.

c) Research questions: According to Mouton, research questions are exploratory and descriptive. Stake (2005: 448) avers that case studies are organised around a limited number of research questions that focus on issues that are "complex, situated, problematic relationships". My study endeavours to provide answers to the complex roles played by school

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leaders in trying to affect education whilst attempting to limit poverty and HIV and AIDS.

d) Research instruments: Whilst Stake (2005:449-450) differentiates between the methods used by intrinsic case study researchers and instrumental case study researchers, Mouton (2001: 150) makes no such distinction and suggests that participant observation, semi-structured interviewing and documentary sources and existing data be used. Stake agrees that for instrumental case studies, already-developed instruments as suggested by Mouton can be used. I use the interview and its variations as the main means of data collection.

e) Analysis: Analytic induction and the grounded theory approach are the options favoured by Mouton whilst Leedy and Ormrod (2005:136) suggest the following steps: details of the case are organised in logical order; data are categorized into meaningful groups; data are examined for specific meanings for the case; patterns are identified from the data; and synthesis and generalisations are made that may have implications for other cases. I make use of the grounded theory (GT) approach for analyzing my data. This approach has three variations that have been popularized by several individuals (Creswell, 2005: 396-397). Glaser and Strauss (1967) initially conceived this approach in their seminal work,"The Discovery of Grounded Theory"; however the different approaches developed after Strauss and Corbin (1990) extended the original GT to what Creswell (2005:397) calls the "Systematic Design". Glaser's (1992) response to Strauss and Corbin (1990) was a critique that was termed "The Emerging Design" (Creswell, 2005:401). Charmaz (2006) posited the "Constructivist Design". A GT design is a systematic, qualitative process used to produce a theory that explains, at a broad conceptual level, a process, an action, or interaction about a substantive topic (Creswell, 2005:396). In my study, the substantive topic is school leadership, in particular, the role of the principal. The role of the principal is affected by

poverty and HIV and AIDS. A theory will be constructed in such a manner as to suggest a course of action arising out of the interaction of school leadership, poverty and HIV and AIDS. Dick (2005) suggests six phases in the GT study: data collection, note-taking, coding, memoing, sorting and writing. A more detailed explanation of GT specialized design as applied to this study is presented later in this study.

f) Strengths: Mouton avers that high construct validity, in-depth insights and establishing rapport with research participants are the main strengths of case studies while Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 135) place value on the potential of case studies to generate or provide preliminary support for hypothesis.

g) Limitations and main sources of error: Mouton believes that there is a lack of generalisability of results and data collection and analysis can be time consuming. The potential bias of the researcher and a lack of rigour in the analysis are issues that demand the vigilance of researchers.

The third research objective requires a synthesis of the response to the first two questions to generate a code of practice. For establishing perspectives on the role of the principal in one school community, grounded theory was constructed through a process that engaged learners, parents and staff at the school. The envisaged end product for both questions is a theory. The logic of the research objectives suggests that the theory generated through the literature review must be incorporated with the theory that is forthcoming from the school community to create a code of practice that is "transportable" to other similar environments.

The foregoing explanation of the case study design provides a sound platform for the discussion on how the data were collected for the study.

3.6   DATA COLLECTION

The research objective of the study gives direction to the entire process of data collection.   Therefore the rationale for data collection has to be presented methodically so as to justify all research decisions on the basis of the research objectives.   I first tabulate the research objectives with corresponding methods. Thereafter, the sampling criteria and decisions are explained.   Research instruments are then justified.

3.6.1   Research objectives with corresponding research methods

Table 3.2 Research objectives with corresponding research methods

Research Objectives	Research Methodology
1. To establish the characteristics of meaningful school leadership in the form of a best practice guide.	1. Scan of the literature concentrating on the leadership role of principals with the intention of unearthing a best practice guide
2. To establish, through an in-depth study of one school community (parents, learners and teachers), their perspectives on what needs to be done by principals in schools affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS.	2. In attempting to obtain the perspectives of the school community, interviews played a key role; however the other variations of the interview were also used. These were focus group interviews, questionnaires and a specialised artistic response type questionnaire. The grounded theory methodology was used for the analysis of the data
3. To synthesise the theory obtained from the literature with the grounded theory generated by the school community to produce a workable guide for principals so that the threefold goal (educational delivery, poverty alleviation and limiting the impact of HIV and AIDS) can be achieved.	3. Synthesis of the two categories of theory as derived from the response to the above mentioned objectives to be triangulated with the views of other principals in the area.

The first research objective was achieved through the literature review and the best practice guide as presented within the literature review in Chapter Two. The

second objective has warranted the use of research methods that sought to obtain the views of one school community; an authentic perspective on their needs and aspirations based on their life experiences on poverty and HIV and AIDS. The third research objective was achieved through the process of triangulation of the theory produced by the first two objectives. According to Smith (2005:49), triangulation generally presupposes that data, researchers and the methods used can be evaluated to get closer to the truth. Pitman and Maxwell (1992:748) point out that triangulation is the use of multiple sources and types of data to support or contradict an interpretation. They go further (Pitman and Maxwell, 1992:763) by positing that triangulation is a "layering" of data across time, informants, events, documents …" and "… is an essential validation technique for conclusions and recommendations."

Consequently the guide to good practice, compiled during the literature review is layered over the needs and aspirations of the school community and is juxtaposed over the opinions of school principals in the area, thus producing recommendations to principals that better equip them to serve their communities affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS.

3.6.2 Sampling criteria

3.6.2.1 Choice of site

In pursuance of the second research objective, I now describe and justify the sampling criteria. The decision to base the data gathering process within one school community was premised on the following: firstly the need for an in-depth study of one site; secondly, background information on the school was easily accessible; thirdly, access to the school community was assured; and fourthly, the school was located within a geographic site that was almost at the centre of an area having six other schools all within a radius of under a kilometre. These schools were all opened around the same period in the late 1980s and they service a very homogeneous population that is characterized by high unemployment,

living in informal settlements that were being converted to more formal housing, poverty and crime. Learners from this area originated from the Eastern Cape and were consistently shuttling between the two provinces.

The final and, I believe, the most potent reason for the choice of the particular school, was that I, as the researcher, am the principal of the school. This fact had both positive and negative implications. The positive implications were the authenticity of the information about the school, the level of co-operation from all sectors of the school, and the possibilities of using my own knowledge and opinions as potential information for triangulation.

The negative implications were that participants may have felt compelled to "distort" data because they may have perceived this to be the "acceptable" interpretation. Parents, particularly, were very uncritical of the school and its workings. This prompted me to speculate on whether their responses were based on ignorance or a tendency of the poor to be too accepting of their situation because of their perceived powerlessness. My involvement as the school principal and researcher required that I pay special attention to my own bias and opinions so that they did not affect the data collected from the participants. However, Charmaz (2006:509) clarifies that in the interpretive approach the researcher's experience, biographies and interests affect what researchers see and hear.

A further contributing factor to the choice of my school was that just as the learners and parents were representative of the area, the staff too exhibited characteristics that represented staff at other primary schools in the area. The staff were predominantly women in their lower forties, qualified, emerging middle class, emanating from a working class background, racially homogeneous, and having between 10 to 18 years of service.

The school is situated in the township of Khayelitsha, 30km south east of Cape Town in the section referred to as Site B. This area consists of both formal and informal settlements that provide shelter to semi-skilled and unskilled labour.

Unemployment is high and poverty and crime are endemic. The school is a primary school having 750 learners with 23 teachers, two administration clerks and three support staff. The school campus consists of 24 classrooms and a skills room that has been converted into a computer laboratory. I have been the principal since April 2000 (eight years), whilst the staff members have remained fairly stable since 1987 (the inception of the school).

Anderson et al (1994) in their informative book, "Studying your own school – an educator's guide to qualitative practitioner research", posit criteria that require careful consideration for my study. I had to first establish whether the purpose of my study fell into Anderson et al's (1994:28) academic qualitative research, that is characterized by "the knowledge creation/dissemination/ utilization model of applied knowledge" or into the realm of practitioner research where knowledge is used in the same setting in which it is created. Clearly my study encompasses both approaches as my work; by virtue of its academic origins and purpose is academic qualitative research. However, my intention is that it must be used in my school or other schools experiencing poverty and HIV and AIDS.

The next consideration is whether my study can be framed within the action science method. Argyris (1985) in Anderson et al (1994:18) defines the goal of action science as the production of knowledge that is useful, valid, descriptive of the world and informative of how we may change it. This definition also encapsulates the purpose of the study at my school, but the difference is that, the action research, as generally contemplated in a study of this nature, will not be reported on as part of this thesis, but will continue as part of the on-going improvement that will take place in my school.

The third consideration concerns the issues of validity and generalisability. While recognizing the debate between the validity of the positivists and the "comparable standard of trustworthiness (Lincoln and Guba, 1985 in Anderson, 1994:26), as espoused by the qualitative researchers, the criteria for validity for practitioner

research as posited by Anderson et al (1994:26) are relevant to the study in my school.

These are:

a) Democratic validity, that questions the extent to which the research was done in collaboration with all parties that have an interest in the problem under investigation (Anderson et al, 1994:30). In this study parents, learners and teachers are brought into the collaborative process through questionnaires, interviews and focus groups.

b) Outcome validity in action research examines the extent to which actions occur that result in a resolution of the problem under study. As mentioned in the preceding paragraph the action taken and the evaluation thereof does not form part of the scope of this study, but the outcome of this study will be evaluated as an ongoing process consistently after the study.

c) In process validity, the process of action research is under scrutiny and it gives strength to the validity of the outcomes.

d) Catalytic validity is of prime concern in my study as it assesses the degree to which the research process "reorients, focuses and energises participants towards knowing reality" so as to transform it (Lather, 1986, in Anderson et al, 1994:31). In other words, how is the research going to galvanise participants into a new line of action or approach?

e) Dialogic validity encourages a process of peer review in a dialogic tradition, which requires practitioners to participate in critical and reflective dialogue with other practitioners. In this context, the focus group discussion with other principals in the area signalled a commencement of this process within my study.

The issue of generalisability, so crucial to this study because the lessons learnt must be utilized in similar other schools, is related to Lincoln and Guba's (1985) in Anderson et al (1994:33), 'transferability'. However Anderson et al (1994:35) cite the work of Stake (1986), who maintains that coercion to effect change usually fails, but taking ownership generally increases the probability of effecting lasting change. Stake (1986) in Anderson et al (1994:34) argues that "formalistic generalization" (the output of academic qualitative research) is less potent than "naturalistic generalization" (emanating from practitioner research) because naturalistic generalization provides useful narrative accounts from schools and classrooms. Practitioners identify with school stories that "carry the message".

In the preceding paragraphs I have justified my choice of my school as the site of my research, described the environment in which my school is situated and I have examined issues of validity and generalisability arising out of my choice. In the succeeding paragraphs, I explain the sampling criteria pertaining to the choice of learners, parents and teaching staff.

3.6.2.2 Sampling criteria for research participants

In the paragraphs below, I first discuss the sampling techniques advocated by the GT approach; thereafter I explain the sampling criteria pertaining to the choice of learners, parents, teaching staff and principals.

 According to the grounded theory design, sampling can be undertaken in three ways based on the style of coding (the process of analyzing data) that is envisaged (Strauss and Corbin, 1990: 181-187). Open (process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualising and categorising), axial (set of procedures where data are put back together in new ways after open coding by making connections between categories) and selective (the process of selecting the core category, systematically relating it to other categories, validating relationships and filling in categories that need further refinement and development) coding can be derived from open, relational and variational and discriminate sampling.

Open sampling aims to uncover as many potentially relevant categories as possible along with their properties and dimensions. Therefore in open sampling the selection of respondents is quite indiscriminate (Strauss and Corbin, 1990:181). In this type of sampling interviews are not structured "too tightly" to allow for the emergence of many categories or themes, relational and variational sampling leads to axial coding, where categories and sub-categories (identified in open coding) are related and evidence of variation and process are found (Strauss and Corbin, 1990:185).

Axial sampling involves more purposeful sampling where persons, sites or documents are chosen to maximize opportunities to elicit data. As will be seen later in respect of my interview questions to parents, I have to a certain extent already pre-selected some categories on the basis of my knowledge so that the questions have been set to elicit what possible changes can be made to current school leadership so as to provide a better service to learners affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS.

In discriminate sampling – which yields selective coding – the researcher chooses sites, persons and documents that seek to verify the story line or relationship between categories (Strauss and Corbin, 1990:187). This assumes that the theory will be tested in this form of sampling. In the context of my study, this implies that the theory will be applied and an evaluation will be undertaken, but as mentioned earlier, this does not fall within the ambit of this study, even though implementation and evaluation will be done as an ongoing application of the theory for its practical use and for its refinement.

a)   **Sampling criteria for learners**

In selecting the learners and parents the advice of Vandemeulebroecke and de Munter (2006) was that I should identify learners who were living with no parents, one parent and both parents; however besides these traditional household structures, more complex household structures have developed. Amongst these

are child headed households, learners living with foster parents, learners living with relatives and particularly in the area of research, there were migrant households, who have parents living both in the area and the Eastern Cape.

In the face of the afore-mentioned complexities and the degree of uncertainty that surrounded the issue of parents and households, I resorted to the official record. The WCED uses its CEMIS (Centralised Educational Management Information System) programme which requires the capture of all learner details onto an on-line database. CEMIS refers to parents on the basis of whether the mother or father or both parents are deceased.

In attempting to establish the leadership roles of principals in the context of poverty and HIV and AIDS, it was necessary for me to be informed by the poor. Due to the confidential and private nature of HIV and AIDS infection, it is not ethical to resort to enquiry on the basis of HIV and AIDS infection alone, hence identifying the poor became crucial to the study. Furthermore, poverty in South Africa affects HIV and AIDS infection and is affected by HIV and AIDS (De Swardt, 2004; Kelly, 2000a; 2000b and Fenton, 2004). Hence, finding the poor in my school was not only important for this study but also for providing support to the poor and HIV and AIDS infected.

In this process of identifying the poor, I had to identify verifiable proxies. The first was the Child Support Grant (CSG). This grant is given to poor learners who are at school up to the age of 15 years (in 2009) on satisfying a means test (Manuel, 2008:9). However, as most learners received a CSG at my school I had to find additional criteria. This criterion was the earlier identified living status of learner's parents. In other words, I assumed that as the number of parents that passed away increased, the poverty of the learner also increased. This assumption, though not entirely accurate, was reasonable as the probability of learner poverty decreasing with the loss of one or more parent was very low, given the very poor socio-economic conditions that prevail in the area of study.

From my seminars with Vandemeulebroecke and de Munter (2006), I was advised that to get a trustworthy response from learners, their powers of reasoning should be developed, hence they suggested that I consider collecting data from learners that were 10 years and older. Consequently, using these three criteria, as shown below in Table 3.3 and Table 3.4 (CSG, Parent Status and Age), I identified 18 learners from Grade 4, 21 from Grade 5, 20 from Grade 6 and 20 from Grade 7. The gender split was almost even. Two groups were created. Learners from Grade 4 and Grade 5 were called Group A and learners from Grade 6 and Grade 7 were called Group B. In sum 79 out of 368 learners from Grade 4 to 7 were purposively sampled based on the criteria of age and poverty.

Table 3.3   Learner statistics group A

Code Number	Gender	DOB	Parents Deceased	Grant Received
4B5	M	24/03/1997	N	Y
4B6	F	08/06/1997	B	Y
4B16	F	27/04/1997	F	Y
4B21	M	20/12/1996	F	Y
4B26	M	08/12/1996	F	Y
4B28	M	26/12/1997	N	Y
4B40	M	10/10/1995	F	N
4B44	M	27/03/1997	N	Y
4B51	F	02/06/1997	M	N
4A8	F	30/03/1998	N	Y
4A10	M	24/01/1998	N	N
4A12	M	24/12/1997	F	Y
4A15	F	14/01/1997	N	Y
4A17	M	12/06/1997	F	Y
4A22	F	02/08/1997	F	Y
4A28	F	09/03/1997	F	Y
4A29	F	05/09/1997	F	Y
4A36	F	11/04/1997	N	Y
4A47	M	14/04/1997	M	Y
4A51	M	28/09/1998	N	Y
4A52	M	24/09/1997	N	Y
5A8	M	04/01/1995	N	N
5A15	F	09/12/1994	N	N
5A18	M	10/07/1994	N	N
5A24	F	10/08/1996	N	Y
5A29	F	14/01/1996	N	Y
5A33	F	16/11/1996	N	Y
5A41	M	26/09/1996	N	Y
5A44	M	17/1219/95	N	Y
5B1	F	21/09/1996	N	N
5B5	F	30/12/1996	N	Y
5B11	M	24/1219/95	F	Y
5B12	M	07/07/1996	N	Y
5B13	M	18/11/1993	N	N
5B19	F	04/06/1996	M	Y
5B22	M	23/12/1996	N	Y
5B24	F	05/03/1996	N	Y
5B28	M	29/07/1996	F	Y
5B30	F	28/08/1995	F	Y
5B34	F	14/05/1997	N	N
5B36	F	27/02/1996	M	Y
5B41	M	10/10/1996	N	Y
5B45	F	06/09/1997	N	Y

Table 3.4 Learner statistics group B

Code Number	Gender	DOB	Parents Deceased	Grant Received
6A4	M	21/02/1995	N	N
6A6	F	19/05/1995	F	Y
6A7	F	04/02/1995	F	Y
6A9	F	04/04/1994	N	N
6A10	F	09/02/1996	N	N
6A15	M	11/05/1996	N	Y
6A21	M	28/06/1996	F	Y
6A25	M	25/12/1995	N	N
6A42	M	09/01/1995	F	Y
6A44	F	21/05/1995	M	Y
6A49	M	18/11/1995	N	N
6B7	M	03/06/1996	N	Y
6B15	F	23/09/1994	N	Y
6B17	M	20/05/1992	F	Y
6B21	F	05/09/1994	N	Y
6B29	F	26/11/1993	F	N
6B30	M	10/04/1995	F	N
6B41	M	26/08/1993	F	Y
6B42	F	12/04/1995	N	N
6B49	M	25/12/1994	N	N
6B50	F	20/06/1995	N	N
7B5	M	09/07/1993	F	N
7B19	M	13/01/1993	M	N
7B24	F	10/06/1994	N	Y
7B26	F	07/05/1994	F	Y
7B30	F	14/05/1992	M	N
7B31	M	11/02/1994	N	Y
7B35	F	08/06/1993	N	Y
7B36	M	09/12/1992	F	N
7B42	F	07/04/1994	N	Y
7B45	M	26/12/1993	M	Y
7A1	F	22/10/1994	N	Y
7A2	F	23/10/1994	N	N
7A3	F	10/06/1994	F	N
7A4	F	09/06/1994	F	Y
7A10	M	04/11/1993	N	Y
7A15	M	23/12/1991	N	N
7A19	M	15/04/1994	F	Y
7A20	F	28/02/1992	N	Y
7A27	F	30/09/1992	N	N
7A33	M	01/09/1992	F	N
7A35	F	20/06/1994	M	Y
7A38	M	26/11/1993	N	Y

Key: Gender: M→ Male, F→ Female
Parent Deceased: N→ None, M→ Mother, F→ Father
Grant Received: Y→ Yes, N→ No

b)   Sampling criteria for parents

The criteria used for the selection of learners assisted to short-list the parents. In other words I chose the parents of the learners as outlined in the above table. For the first round of data collection I based my selection of parents on their availability during the working day. Thereafter I chose parents so that I could meet them during weekends, and in one case I arranged to meet a parent at their place of employment. I consulted 18 parents. These ranged from very poor parents who were unemployed and were maintained by the CSG to employed parents whose children did not receive the CSG. Some employed parents whose children received the CSG were also consulted.

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Table 3.5 Parent statistics

CODE NAME	RELATION TO LEARNER	GENDER	AGE	EMPLOYMENT STATUS	GRANT
4B43	Sister	Female	24	Employed	Yes
4A15	Father	Male	38	Unemployed	Yes
5A33	Aunt	Female	28	Unemployed	Yes
5B24	Mother	Female	45	Self Employed	Yes
5A 8	Mother	Female	41	Unemployed	No
6A10	Mother	Female	48	Unemployed	No
7B26	Mother	Female	38	Unemployed	Yes
6B50	Mother	Female	35	Unemployed	No
7A 4	Mother	Female	34	Unemployed	Yes
7A 3	Aunt	Female	45	Unemployed	No
6B42	Father	Male	54	Employed	No
7B42	Mother	Female	46	Unemployed	Yes
7B35	Mother	Female	50	Unemployed	Yes
7A27	Mother	Female	32	Unemployed	No
EP 1	Mother	Female	48	Employed	Yes
5B 5	Father	Male	48	Employed	Yes
EP 2	Mother	Female	53	Employed	N/A
Gr 2	Mother	Female	39	Part time Employment	Yes

c)   **Sampling criteria for teachers**

The entire teaching staff present on the particular day (20) responded to the teacher questionnaire. There were no teachers that were absent. Teachers were informed that they will be requested to complete the questionnaire on a particular day. Following the open coding of teacher responses and the subsequent identification of certain categories I invited 11 out of the 20 teachers to a focus group interview. This unusually large invitation was vindicated by the attendance of six teachers. Included in the sample were teachers who were generally very co-

operative and the few who were occasionally uncooperative so that an even mix of teachers was anticipated.

Eventually the six participants had the following characteristics: two female teachers had completed the Advanced Certificate in Education Diploma on HIV and AIDS and Education (ACE). One male was a member of management, a hard working, dedicated staff member, who really has the interests of learners at heart; a family man who is a solid backbone of the school. The other female was a teacher who is conscientious and a good all rounder, in class, sports and fundraising. The second male was a very knowledgeable and outspoken teacher. The last female teacher on the panel was a teacher employed by the School Governing Body (SGB) who taught grade R. One of the 'ACE' qualified teachers was the convenor of the School Health and HIV/AIDS Committee.

d) Sampling criteria for principals

In selecting the sample for the principals' focus group, I used no specific criteria apart from selecting primary school principals who were in close proximity to my school. These schools serviced the same area as my school and have similar characteristics, in respect of learners, parents, teachers and socio-economic conditions, as my school. Five principals responded. The characteristics of these principals were as follows: two principals were in the post for many years; one was in the post for over 20 years and the other was in the post for more than 15 years. They were very experienced and very well known in the entire Khayelitsha area, being respectively 62 years and 58 years old. One principal, who was recently appointed, was in his mid-thirties and the remaining two principals had three to four years' experience and were both in their early forties.

These characteristics of the various research groups are vital for a comprehensive understanding of their responses. They help to give meaning as to why the participants are articulating their particular views.

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3.6.3 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The key research instruments used in this study have been the interview, the focus group interview and the specialised questionnaire for learners. Teachers were also subjected to a semi-structured questionnaire. The teacher questionnaire was designed by taking cognizance of Bell's (2005:164) "what are we trying to find out" rule. This injunction gave direction to the process of selecting the appropriate wording and sense of the question. The questionnaire was modified on the advice of Vandemeulebroecke and de Munter (2006).

3.6.3.1 Semi-structured questionnaire with teachers

Twelve questions were posed to teachers in the questionnaire. (Refer to Appendix C). The questions on the questionnaire were justified by considering the question and its purpose. Each question relates to the achievement of the research objective that seeks to establish the perspectives of the school community, in this case the teachers, on what school principals must do in the context of poverty and HIV and AIDS.

Table 3.6   Teacher questionnaire and purpose of question

Question	Purpose
1. What are our school's core functions?	1. To establish whether teachers are aware of the school's core function so as to provide a starting point for principal intervention. If teachers do not know what the school is supposed to do, then how are they going to do it?
2. Comment on our meaningfulness/ effectiveness as a school in the performance of our core functions.	2. To establish teacher perspective on the effectiveness of our service.
3. What do you think that I or any other principal can do to improve our service in respect of our core functions?	3. To provide the principal (me) with ideas to improve our service in respect of our core functions.

Question	Purpose
4. How well is our school performing in our responsibility to assist the community to cope with poverty? Please motivate your answer.	4. To enable teachers to make a judgement as to the school's effectiveness in assisting the community to cope with poverty.
5. What do you think that I or any other principal can do to improve our service in respect of our role to assist the community to cope with poverty?	5. To give ideas / suggestion as to the action principals should take in schools affected by poverty.
6. What are HIV and AIDS? Respond in terms of your understanding of their causes, methods of transmission, treatment and prevention.	6. To establish teacher knowledge of HIV and AIDS so as to gauge the level of expert knowledge that teachers require to serve learners better.
7. Comment on our meaningfulness/effectiveness as a school in executing our responsibility to assist the community to cope with HIV and AIDS?	7. To ascertain the effectiveness, meaningfulness of the school's response to HIV and AIDS so as to improve its services
8. What do you think that I or any other principal can do to improve our service in respect of our role to assist the community to cope with HIV and AIDS?	8. To gain an insight from teachers as to their suggestions on the role of the principal to assist the community to cope with HIV and AIDS
9. Do you feel that there is hope in the fight against HIV and AIDS? Please explain these feelings?	9. To establish the level of optimism that exists among staff, so that : a) the level of co-operation for intervention strategies may be gauged b) suitable plans that must be put into place to motivate staff c) hope can be engendered
10. What can teachers do to improve our service in respect of: 10.1 Our core functions? 10.2 Our role to assist the community to cope with poverty? 10.3 Our role to assist the community to cope with HIV and AIDS?	10. To establish teacher perspectives on their own roles so as: a) to inform the principal on possible strategies to be used to guide teachers in their own roles b) to identify teacher roles for purposes of reproduction at other sites.

Rosseel (2006) strongly advised that in order to even contemplate a strategy to provide support to a school community burdened by HIV and AIDS, it was necessary to establish each of the constituent's knowledge of HIV and AIDS. This knowledge must be used to set the scale of intervention to be made. In other words, ascertaining prior knowledge directs the depth of the strategy to be used. On closer study of the purpose of each of the above questions, it becomes apparent that I have structured the questioning on two levels.

Firstly, the academic level seeks to inform the study by providing information to clarify the role of the principal in the context of poverty and HIV and AIDS. Secondly, for the purposes of the school, the intention is to inform me of the knowledge, skills and attitudes of teachers in respect of: our core functions, poverty and HIV and AIDS. The responses to the questions will assist to inform the school-wide response for school improvement.

After an initial analysis of teacher responses to the questionnaire I found that, in terms of my own knowledge, 30% of the teachers either misunderstood the concept of core functions or had no conception of the core functions of a school. Due to my assumption and belief that a teacher must know what the work of a school is, in order to be part of the team that does that work, I placed great value on the knowledge of teachers on the school's core functions. Therefore, I felt that I needed to explore this further in a focus group interview.

My initial analysis also indicated that 20% of the teacher respondents to the questionnaire had an unsatisfactory level of knowledge of HIV and AIDS. I believe that the number of teachers having inadequate knowledge was detrimental to the HIV and AIDS endeavour at my school and indeed at any school, hence the inclusion of this question in the focus group interview. Krueger and Casey (2000:3) aver that the purpose of focus groups is to listen and gather information and to promote self- disclosure, in other words I want to establish what participants think and feel (Krueger and Casey, 2000:7).

3.6.3.2 Focus group interview with teachers

The early revelations of the initial analysis gave me a strong impetus to conduct a focus group interview. Frey and Fontana (1994:364) refer to Merton, Fiske and Kendall (1956) who coined the phrase "focus group" to apply to a situation where an interviewer asks very specific questions to a group of participants after much research has been completed on a topic. In my case, the initial analysis was based on a questionnaire that was by no means considerable; however, I believe that the focus group would assist in adding details to the gaps that were identified.

I was guided by Patton (1990:335-337) who specified the following modus operandi for focus group interviews. Six to eight persons should be invited to a 1½ to 2 hour session. Participants must be briefed that the interview was neither a discussion, nor a problem solving session and no decision making was anticipated. Participants shall hear other participants' responses and make additional comments in their own responses. There is no need for consensus or disagreement. Whilst these conditions guided the focus group interview, there was no doubt that the participants, who were specifically chosen, had some knowledge, skill, attitude or value that they shared for their respective growth and indeed my growth as well.

Patton (2000:337) also cautions that facilitators should be vigilant to recognize conflict and power struggles. In the next paragraph I justify each of the questions that were posed to the focus group (Refer to appendix B). All questions seek to give information, direction and advice to principals as to how principals should play their role in communities affected by HIV and AIDS and poverty. This is in response to research objective two. Participants were given copies of the questions at the start of the focus group interview.

Table 3.7 Teacher focus group questions and their justification

QUESTION	JUSTIFICATION
1. The following are some suggested core functions of a school: 1.1 Teach the children to read, write and calculate according to their age cohort. 1.2 Provide a safe, healthy and nurturing environment for learners to grow. 1.3 Identify and support learners with special needs. 1.4 Provide opportunities for holistic development of learners, i.e.: emotional, physical, social, mental and cultural. 1.5 Prepare learners for the world: family, work, civic. Are there any more you can think of?	1. Examples were given to provide a thought framework for teachers so that they could add other pertinent core functions. As stated earlier there seemed to be a lack of congruence as to the actual core functions of the school.
2. Let us consider these core functions and examine how we, as a school, are faring in the performance of these functions.	2. To enable teachers to judge our school's performance in accordance with the given and suggested core functions.
3. Why is it important for us as teachers to know our core functions?	3. To establish whether there is any merit in my pre-occupation with core-functions as a strategic pursuit in the provision of high quality service by principals in contexts of poverty and HIV and AIDS. Knowledge of core functions for direction!
4. How do we go about conscientising all involved in our school about our core functions?	4. Having established the value of knowing the school's core functions it now becomes a priority for all stake holders to be conscientised about the school's core functions. This question seeks to identify strategies to conscientise stake holders.

QUESTION	JUSTIFICATION
5. How is poverty affecting our learners?	5. To gain first hand information on the debilitating effects of poverty on the education of learners.
6. What can we, as a school, do about it?	6. To explore how we can reach out to our poor learners. To get innovative ideas for teachers to use in their classes.
7. Briefly share your knowledge/experience/views on HIV and AIDS?	7. The rationale for this question has been discussed in the previous paragraph.
8. What relationship, if any, exists between us doing our core functions properly and us providing support to our learners and the community in respect of HIV and AIDS?	8. To test the legitimacy of my assertion that diligent execution of our core functions will assist towards providing the community support to cope with HIV and AIDS.
9. How can we provide support to those (Learners, Teachers and Parents/Community) affected by HIV and AIDS?	9. To identify practical means of providing support to the community affected by HIV and AIDS.

3.6.3.3 Interview with parents

Vandemeulebroecke and de Munter (2006) strongly advised that the parent component be interviewed so as to gain a better understanding of parental aspirations and suggestions for the benefit of their children. Fontana and Frey (1994:361) contend that interviewing is an important dimension of sociology, because interviewing is interaction and sociology is the study of interaction. The interaction between me as the principal of the school (since parents will not see me as an unconcerned academic researcher) and the parent is also vital in giving a sense of reality to parental responses. As the principal of the school I have to take

the responses seriously, not only as academic data, but as a genuine guide to what parents want.

The level of literacy among parents also was a contributing factor to utilize face to face interviews. Interviews through a questionnaire, which would have helped to obtain a greater number of responses, would have been futile as most parents would have experienced much difficulty in articulating their thoughts. Even with the face to face interview there were two parents who indicated they could not respond as they did not know the answer to the question, even though the questions required that parents give their own views, thoughts and perspectives.

The parents were mostly unemployed, but this did not make them available for repeated face to face interviewing because they were searching for jobs or minding children, thus Bernard (2000:191) advises that in such circumstances semi-structured interviewing be conducted. The "freewheeling" quality of unstructured interviewing and the same skills required for structured interviews will be directed by an interview guide. This interview guide contains a written list of questions and topics that need to be covered in a particular order (Bernard, 2000:191).

Patton (1990:284) avers that open ended interviews, where everyone is asked the same question ensures that the interview is focused and interviewee time is well to make data analysis much easier. The criticism of this form of interviewing is that it reduces variation, does not provide opportunity to pursue issues that were not anticipated and reduces the extent to which individual experiences or differences can be taken into account (Patton, 1990:287). These criticisms were useful in that they enabled me to give attention to them whilst I conducted the interviews. Consequently, I did follow up on certain individual experiences that served to enrich the emergent theory.

In framing the questions for parent interviews, (see Appendix A) I was influenced by Merriam (1998:76-79) who suggested criteria for good questions and for

questions to be avoided. Good questions were hypothetical questions (usually beginning with 'What if?' or 'Suppose'), devil's advocate questions (challenges the respondent to consider an opposing view), ideal position question (asks respondent to describe an ideal situation) and interpretative question (advances tentative interpretation to what has been said and asks for a reaction) (Merriam, 1998:77).

The educational levels of parents, their experiences and their cognitive development play a deterministic role in the ability of parents to answer these types of questions. I made use of the ideal position question, but found that due to their limited experiences they found great difficulty in visualizing an ideal position.

On the advice of Vandemeulebroecke and de Munter (2006), I used Flanagan's (1954) Critical Incident Technique (CIT), when I asked parents to give examples of specific instances, incidents, situations or occurrences so that very specific responses may be elicited to spare parents the burden of generalizing and in so doing, losing the details. Merriam (1998:79) also cautioned about using multiple questions (question requiring responses concerning more than one issue), leading questions (questions that reveal the researcher's bias or assumptions that may not be held by the respondent) and Yes/No questions.

My interview questions were subjected to intense scrutiny and criticism by Rosseel (2006) and Vandemeulebroecke and de Munter (2006) who ensured that the questions were synchronized with the research objectives. Further, a pilot interview was conducted, so that the interview questions were trialled to obtain responses that could be considered as useful. Since the questions were translated from English to Isixhosa, the pilot interview was valuable in identifying the gaps that had been created. The first question illustrates the discrepancy between the English question and its IsiXhosa counterpart. Whilst the question required a list of expectations the parent had of the school the IsiXhosa version asked what the parent wanted to get from the school; considering the socio-economic condition of

parents, this question in this form was unreliable. This led to a difference in what I expected and what I got from the parent. The pilot assisted me to rectify this inaccuracy when I undertook the final interviews.

When the translator translated question two, she used terms that the respondents did not normally use, these words had to be explained in the live interviews. Question 7 generated some response that was not expected due to misunderstanding hence after the pilot, this question was adequately explained and parents were able to respond by giving examples of the difficulties they have in the process of sending their children to school. The translation asked about the problems they have when they send their children to school. Apart from these valuable instances highlighted by the pilot, the rest of the questions elicited responses that were within the bounds of expectation.

Each of the ten parent interview questions is now interrogated to determine their link to the research objective and the reason for their use.

Table 3.8 Parent interview questions and their justification

QUESTION	JUSTIFICATION
1. What are your expectations from our school when you enrol your child at our school?	1. To establish reasons why parents send their children to school or to this school in particular. This was to identify the parents' perspectives on the need for schooling / schools.
2. Give examples of what you think are the main functions of our school?	2. In concert with the first question, this question aims to find out the parents' opinion on the role of the school.
3. Give examples of the main functions that you think that our school has done well in or where you were happy with the school's performance?	3. This question was asked to establish parental opinion on their level of satisfaction with the schools performance on the basis of Question 2 above (main functions). Positive feedback to consolidate gains.

QUESTION	JUSTIFICATION
4. Give examples of the main functions that you think that our school has not done well in or where you were unhappy with the school's performance?	4. Again a balanced perspective was being solicited, so as to establish what the school was not doing right on the basis of Question 2; to use negative feedback to identify and develop strategies to improve.
5. How can our school improve in the performance of our main functions? Give examples of where we can improve.	5. Parents' responses, suggestions and ideas were being invited to improve school performance.
6. What can I, as a principal, do to improve?	6. I was asking for advice to give me good ideas to improve the school.
7. What difficulties do you experience to send your child to school?	7. To establish the difficulties faced by parents when they undertake the process of sending their children to school so that I could develop strategies to assist

8. Did you know that the school does the following:
  A) Provides breakfast and lunch for very needy learners
  B) Provides a hot meal 5 days a week for 360 learners
  C) Obtains clothing, shoes etc from other schools and distributes it to our needy learners
Do you find that this is helpful to you and your child? How? What more can the school do?
	8. To elicit other strategies to help learners affected by poverty.

9. Our school has a Health and HIV/AIDS Committee that helps learners and parents by: a) Visiting affected families b) Advising them how to get help c) Advising the learners how to cope with problems associated with HIV/AIDS d) Providing support for learners, food, clothing, counselling What more can the school do?	9. To elicit other strategies to help learners affected by HIV and AIDS

QUESTION	JUSTIFICATION
10. Tell me what I as the principal can do to improve our service to the community in respect of poverty and HIV/AIDS?	10. To give me specific suggestions so that I can help the school community in their struggle against poverty and HIV and AIDS.

The data collected from parents closely relates to aspirations of the community, who are the ultimate beneficiaries of the role of the school principal. Every principal, however, would like to see their efforts to be immediately beneficial to their learners. As a principal, I want to know that my innovation, my creativity and my hard work is going to impact on learners in such a positive way that it is going to raise their potential, their opportunities, their education and wellbeing. To this end, in the next section I concentrate on explaining the instrument that was used to collect data from learners.
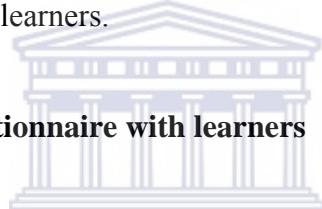
3.6.3.4 Specialised questionnaire with learners

Data collection from learners is fraught with challenges since their age; cognitive development and socio-economic status have an impact on the nature of responses obtainable. In section 3.6.2.2 I have explained the sampling criteria used for the choice of learners. This sample, though biased towards the poor, has a few learners whose parents are employed and self-employed. It was anticipated that this mix of learners will give responses that are reflective of these demographics.

Both Rosseel (2006) and Vandemeulebroecke and de Munter (2006) strongly advised that I should not use traditional methods to gather data from learners. They suggested that learners be given the opportunity to express their ideas through the medium of art. Rosseel (2006) advised that learners be given a specialised questionnaire on which they may be able to draw their response to the question. Attached to the paper should be writing material on which learners must be asked to explain their drawing. This suggestion of Rosseel's (2006) was accepted. Refer to Appendix F for examples of learner responses.

Nine questions were prepared for learners (See Appendix E). Each question was printed on A3 paper with an A4 writing paper attached to it. Learners were advised to answer the question by drawing their responses on the A3 sheet and explaining their response in writing on the A4 writing paper. Evans and Reilly (1996:1) quote the work of Koppitz (1983) who asserts that during the elementary school years, boys and girls can express their thoughts and feelings often better in visual images than in words. According to Evans and Reilly (1996:1), this form of data collection reflects the work of others, including Buck (1948); Machover (1949); Burns and Kanfman (1970); and Knoff and Pront (1985) who have developed conceptual frameworks to interpret children's drawings.

The nine questions were directed to learners (who had been earlier divided into two groups; Group A: Grade 4/5 learners and Group B: Grade 6/7 learners) over a four-day period after school. The learners were engaged for an hour each day after school. Some of the Grade 4/5 group served as a pilot for the questions. The pilot highlighted a few areas that needed attention on the questionnaire. Firstly, it was found that on Day 1 it was not possible to do the first 2 questions as question 1 required that both positives and negatives be illustrated thus requiring more time. Low comprehension skills of learners necessitated that questions be adequately explained thereby clarifying what was required in each question. A critical concern was the difficulty that many young learners had in expressing their thoughts through drawings. I had to give learners the option to write down their thoughts if they felt that they could not draw their responses to the questions. Issues related to the translation also had to be resolved before the questions could be posed to the different groups.

In the following table I present questions posed to learners as well as the rationale for the questions.

Table 3.9 Learner questionnaire and the rationale for questions

QUESTION	RATIONALE
1. Draw a picture of the school as is. Show the positives/good and negatives/bad and explain in words in space shown below.	1. To obtain from learners their perspective on what is good (positive) and what is bad (negative) about the school. The intention was to establish learner levels of satisfaction with the school and areas for improvement.
2. Draw a picture of what your ideal school should be like and explain in words in the space below.	2. To establish learner perceptions of what an ideal school should be like, so that I could establish their priorities, needs and desires. The aim is to be informed by them so as to provide learners with the necessary support.
3. Draw a picture showing the problems in your life now. Explain in words in the space below.	3. To establish the issues that are affecting learners the most during this phase of their growth. To draw up a list of barriers to learner learning and wellbeing so as to plan possible support strategies.
4. Draw a picture showing what the school should be doing to help you with these problems. Explain in words in the space below.	4. To ascertain from learners their own perspectives on how school should be supporting them during their times of difficulty. To use these ideas to design support strategies.
5. Draw a picture showing how the school has helped the poor in our school. Explain in words in the space below.	5. To establish whether the learner is aware of possible support structures that can be accessed at school by the learner.
6. Draw a picture to show what more can be done by the school. Explain in words in the space below.	6. To obtain learner perspectives on the kind of additional support that they think they will need.
7. Draw a picture that shows what HIV and AIDS is to you. Explain in words in the space below.	7. To establish the knowledge of learners in respect of HIV. To be certain as to the level and scale of intervention that may be desired.

QUESTION	RATIONALE
8. Draw a picture showing what our school does to help those affected by HIV and AIDS? Explain in words in the space below.	8. To ascertain the learners' knowledge on what the school is doing for those affected by HIV and AIDS so as to improve access to services
9. Draw a picture showing what more the school can do to help those who are affected by HIV and AIDS? Explain in the space below.	9. To establish learner perspectives on the support which learners affected by HIV and AIDS should receive from the school

Even though a large number (more than 65) of learners responded to the specialized learner questionnaire, the quality of responses was below expectations. This reflected the abilities of the learners, as it showed the paucity of their literary skills as well as their creative talents that were not nurtured. Notwithstanding these structural inadequacies, many learners displayed ingenuity and inventiveness.

3.6.3.5 Focus group interview with principals

The last group from which data were collected was the group of principals of schools closest to my school. The characteristics of their schools closely resemble the conditions present in my school.

Their role in this study was:

a)   To serve as a form of triangulation. Their views will serve as verification of what the other three groups (parents, teachers and learners) have suggested; and

b)   They gave the perspectives of a principal.

It must be noted that whilst my school was the site of the research, my views as the principal of the school under investigation were not solicited as they would have been, if I was not the researcher. Therefore, in theory, the voice of the principals was meant to echo my voice. However, part of their voice would cover a part of my voice; that part that relates to the experiences I had gained by serving in the Khayelitsha area. Their voice was a tapestry of many years of their collective experience gained by learning and teaching in many different

environments. My experience consists of my early schooling in the Kwa Dukuza area of Kwa Zulu Natal (KZN), my university studies in Durban, my teaching career on the North Coast of KZN, my management career in Rylands and Gugulethu in the Western Cape and my leadership role in Khayelitsha. In sum, the focus group with the principals provides a more than elaborate substitute for my 'absent' voice.

Seven questions were posed to the principal focus group. (See Appendix D). These questions and the reasons for asking them are presented below.

Table 3.10 Principal focus group questions and reasons for the questions

QUESTION	REASON / RATIONALE
1. What, in your opinion, are the core functions of any primary school?	1. To establish the opinions of the principals in respect of the core functions of primary schools. To establish the principals' understanding of the term 'core functions' so as to gauge whether there is congruence of understanding amongst them. The term 'congruence of understanding' assumes that all principals interpret the policies of the National and Provincial Education Departments uniformly.
2. How do we go about conscientising all involved in our school about our core functions?	2. The question implies that there is general agreement that it is important for all involved in schools to be aware of the core functions. Hence it is intended to establish how principals undertake the task of conscientising all constituents about the core functions.
3. Share your opinions/ experiences/ knowledge on the way HIV and AIDS is affecting our community.	3. To gain first hand from principals the impact of HIV and AIDS on their school communities. The question aims to tap into the collective knowledge reservoir of the principals to expand my own knowledge, skill, attitude and values base.

QUESTION	REASON / RATIONALE
4. How is poverty affecting your school?	4. To establish the impact of poverty on our respective schools
5. What can be done about it?	5. To use the collective experience of the principals to generate a theory to alleviate poverty, since attacking poverty is a significant lever in improving education and fighting HIV and AIDS.
6. What link, if any, exists between the successful execution of a school's core functions and the provision of support to learners affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS?	6. This question seeks to verify this key assumption that successful execution of the school's core functions will concomitantly provide support to learners affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS. The intention is to interrogate this link, if it exists,
7. What is our role, as principals, in the struggle against HIV and AIDS?	7. This is the main purpose of the study. To use the views of the parents, learners and teachers to triangulate against the principals' responses to this question.

3.6.3.6 Summary

In the foregoing section on the research instruments used in the study, I justified the use of the interview, questionnaire, focus group and the specialised questionnaire used to collect data from the learners. In addition, I provided the rationale or the reason for the construction of each question that was posed to the various participants. Every question is linked to providing participant perspectives on the role principals must play in communities affected by HIV and AIDS. A critical assumption of this study and a corollary are consolidated in this section.

Firstly, the critical assumption is that schools cannot hope to make a positive impact on poverty and HIV and AIDS if schools are struggling to deliver quality education. The concept of quality education is directly related to the execution of the core functions of a school. Consequently, in this study I regard it as vital that all constituents (parents, teachers and learners) are fully conversant with the core functions of the school so that everybody knows what to expect of the school.

Secondly, the corollary is that the successful execution of a school's core function will, in the short and long term, greatly assist in providing support to communities affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS.

3.7   DATA ANALYSIS

Just as the research objectives guided the entire process of data collection, so too do the research objectives guide the reduction and analysis of data. In response to the first research objective, the literature was reviewed and a comprehensive guide to good practice was developed. The fieldwork was the preliminary response to the second objective, since it required obtaining the perspectives of the school community on the role of principals in areas affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS. To complete the response to the second research objective requires the reduction and analysis of the data to generate a theory. The third research objective requires a synthesis of the theory generated from the analysis of the fieldwork and the good practice guide obtained through the literature review to produce a guide to principals.

The GT design was utilised in this study. Dick (2005) points out that there are six phases in the GT design. These are data collection, note-making, coding, memoing, sorting and writing. These steps were generally followed with some deviations. The deviations from the above stated precepts occurred as a result of the three variations of GT. The originators of the GT design were Glaser and Strauss (1967), but the variations developed after their partnership was terminated. Glaser's GT, according to Creswell (2005:401), prescribes an analysis where the theory emerges from the data instead of the theory being forced into preconceived categories as is the case with Strauss and Corbin's GT (1990). The third variation is that of Charmaz (2006), who posits the 'constructivist' approach. I have chosen to make use of both Charmaz's approach and that of Strauss and Corbin's at different junctures in the analysis because I regard Strauss and Corbin's systematic approach as being helpful to organise the analytical process, while Charmaz's constructivist style gives a degree of freedom to the analysis.

Data collected from teachers through the questionnaires were initially analysed on the basis of whether the responses answered the questions concisely or whether the question was misunderstood or whether a neutral answer was given. This was to establish the areas that needed more clarification during the focus group interviews. Learner responses were translated from Isixhosa to English and then categorised by determining the number of times the exact or similar response was given. In view of the difficulties faced by learners in drawing their responses I did not use any analytic technique to analyse the drawings of learners. Learners' drawings were used to validate their written responses. For the adult data collection (parents, teachers and principals), I pre-selected some of the categories. In sum, the data that were collected were subjected to the rigour of analysis as specified in the design.

3.8   CONSTRAINTS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The nature of the research, as directed by the research objectives and the research decisions taken, gives sufficient scope for the identification of constraints and limitations of the research undertaken. Choice of research design, choosing one site for the research, sampling criteria and an over-reliance on one form of research instrument is now explored as possible sources of constraints and limitations in the research.

The choice of the research design, in particular the GT design, may have contributed to a sense of confusion surrounding the exact analytical approach that was to be used. Glaser's (1978) in Creswell (2005), emergence, Strauss and Corbin's (1990) systematic, together with Chamaz's (2006) constructivism, have shaped this study, however my decision to oscillate between Charmaz's (2006) and Strauss and Corbin's (1990) prescriptions, may create the impression that the findings are based on weak foundations.

In choosing just one site for the research, it may appear that I am basing my findings on circumstances and conditions that are prevalent at only one site, thus

restricting the 'transportability' of the theory generated. Whilst these are genuine concerns, I have shown earlier in this chapter that my school could stand as a proxy for the other schools' basic characteristics. Choosing my own school also may have created limitations because of the bias of all constituents in my favour or otherwise. Since most of the questions to the participants focused on the role of principals in general rather than specifically on my own role in our school, I believe that this fact made their responses reliable. The possibility that I may have manipulated the participants to suit my assumptions is real, but, for the validity and reliability of my study, I cannot compromise the efficacy of this study.

In terms of the sampling criteria in respect of parents, a possible limitation is the fact that I have interviewed only 18 parents, thereby limiting the perspective of the parents in the study. Moreover, parental input lived up to the expectation that it would be affected by economic and educational attainment. In other words, the level of parental input seemed to correlate with improved economic circumstances and education. The socio-economic circumstances of sampled parents were skewed heavily in favour of the poor. This could be interpreted as a constraint to the research because very few voices of those who could be classified "less poor" have been heard. Are the educational priorities of the poor significantly different from those of less poor parents? The wealth differential between these two sets of parents may generate a greater difference in educational aspirations among parents than among learners. Hence, the above argument that may be applicable to parents is less applicable to learners.

An over-reliance on the interview and its related adaptations (focus group and questionnaire) may be construed as a limitation since the research may be described as one-dimensional and restrictive. Other forms of data collection instruments (dramatic art, observation) may be regarded as more efficacious. The interview questions may also be classified as being too directed or leading to the assumptions of the study, running the risk of being too restrictive and thereby constraining the responses of the participants.

3.9   ETHICS IN RESEARCH

Punch's (1994:85) observation that fieldwork

> … is not a soft option, but, rather represents a demanding craft that involves both coping with multiple negotiations and continually dealing with ethical dilemmas …

is an accurate assessment of the rigours of fieldwork. The ethical dilemmas can be reduced or exaggerated by one's philosophical standpoint concerning ethics in research.

Deyhle, Hess and le Compte (1992:602-609) discuss May's (1980) five ethical theories: These are: the teleological ethic emphasising the pursuit of truth as an end in itself; the utilitarian ethic focuses on a cost benefit approach to finding out what is ethical; the categorical duty relates to what one must do irrespective of the results (common sense way to deal with ethics); the critical theory and advocacy ethics involves writing about and on behalf of the participants; covenantal ethics relates to having 'obligations' and a significant relationship between the researcher and the participants. They posit that researchers, depending on the issues, context and participants may adopt several ethical positions (Deyhle et al, 1992).

My own perspective on these ethical positions finds some merit in each of these positions. I too, am committed to ensuring that the truth is non-negotiable and that my study must generate the truth for the benefit of these communities affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS. This implies that I have to be driven by a strong desire to serve my learners and their community irrespective of what transpired during the fieldwork. As a principal, I have the obligation to both the constituency I serve (learners, parents and teachers) as well as the special fraternity to which I belong (principals), to ensure that there is potential for improved learning and welfare.

Consequently, my ethical position (as informed by the contents of the previous paragraph) has guided me to collect the data according to the following criteria as identified by Mouton (2001:243) and Booth (2005:167). These are anonymity and confidentiality, privacy, informed consent, voluntary participation and beneficence. All participants were informed at the first instance and also reassured throughout the period of data collection that their identity would not be disclosed to anyone else.

Their opinions have been used judiciously and responsibly to arrive at the findings of this study. They were also informed that they were under no obligation and compulsion to participate. All personal details that were gathered during the process have been handled with the highest degree of confidentiality. Learner identity has been specifically protected because of the limited but real possibility of teacher staff victimizing learners who may have made critical comments about teachers. Feedback to staff on learner responses that are vital for school improvement will be undertaken in a professionally constructive way. Consent for participating in the study was obtained verbally in most cases after the invitation, detailing all aspects of the study, was given in writing.

In terms of criteria of beneficence, the pervasive poverty of the parents and the learners influenced me to reciprocate their co-operation by providing them with food parcels. For the benefit of my principal colleagues, I have planned several workshops where the findings of this study will be shared. For my staff, a series of school improvement orientated staff development workshops will be programmed into our school improvement plan (SIP).

As regards learners, since the benefits envisaged are more medium to long term in nature for most learners, I provided learners with immediate gratification with a party on completion of the data collection process. In compliance with Mouton's (2001:245) views on "the rights of vulnerable groups", I have given special consideration to children and parents, who were mostly illiterate, thus the

principles of respect, value for opinions, protection, professionalism and genuine appreciation greatly assisted in the collection of data.

3.10 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I have endeavoured to describe the research methodology that I used according to the theoretical foundations of research methodology. The research objectives of this study are absolute determinants of the theoretical foundations used for this research. In other words, what dimensions of research, paradigms, approaches, designs, sampling criteria, data collection methods and data analysis were selected for this study were governed by the three research objectives.

At the outset the five dimensions to social science research were explained according to Mouton and Marais (1996:8). Thereafter, an in-depth inquiry was made into research paradigms and I justified that this study would employ the qualitative research paradigm. The research approach that guided the study was the constructivist and interpretivist approaches. Both these approaches demand that to gain understanding into the world of meaning one has to interpret it (Schwandt, 1994:18).

The scope of the second and third research objectives warranted that a critical approach to the research also be included because it was necessary to critique the social world of school principals and also posit viable alternatives so as to improve practice for the benefit of learners and communities affected by HIV and AIDS.

The research design that was chosen was a case study design which featured the construction of theory using the GT approach. Data collection methods, sampling criteria and the research instruments were thoroughly interrogated to establish what role they would play in the achievement of the research objectives. To

critically evaluate the worth of the research, its constraints and limitations were explored and the ethics in research were outlined.

An introduction to the data analysis techniques was made to elucidate the methods used so that in the next chapter, the findings of the research could be presented.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

My engagement with the collected data commenced early during the data collection process. I reduced and organised the data so that early coding and category construction could begin. GT requires this early engagement with the data so that future data collection could be directed to strengthen and refine categories that have been constructed (Charmaz, 2006:11). Therefore, in this chapter the results are the reduced data that have been organised into descriptive categories.

The results are the responses of the research participants to the second research question of this study that focused on the need to establish the perspectives of the school community on the role of the principal in disadvantaged areas affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS. I have resisted the temptation to engage comprehensively with these results in this chapter so as to present the results as they unfolded.

Firstly, I present the response of learners. From the responses to each of the questions asked of the research groups I identified a range of categories that assisted me in explaining their perspectives. In subsequent sections I present the responses of the parents, teachers and principals.

The influence of experience is clearly discernible from the results since learners and parents - to a lesser degree - displayed a lower level of sophistication on school issues than the other groups. However, they (learners and parents) showed a higher level of honesty than the other groups in terms of the realities that existed in the school.

4.2   PRESENTATION OF RESULTS OF SAMPLING PROCESS

4.2.1   Learners' perspectives

By encouraging learners to draw their responses it was anticipated that learners would firstly, enjoy the experience of responding to the questionnaire and secondly, the opportunity to draw pictures would have unleashed their creative talents to express themselves better than if they were to respond only in words. From my observation of learners during the data collection process I found that the first expectation did in fact occur, but the second expectation did not materialise because learners, especially the younger learners struggled to express themselves. This was due to their having very little experience in drawing. Thus, it was necessary to make them feel comfortable by allowing them to write their responses in their mother tongue.
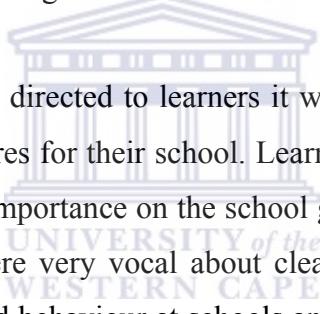
In the first two questions directed to learners it was intended to ascertain learner priorities, needs and desires for their school. Learners were very sensitive to their surroundings in placing importance on the school grounds, sports fields, buildings and equipment. They were very vocal about cleanliness, ["*Clean school. Clean toilets*"], violence and bad behaviour at schools and they expressed concern at not having transport for those learners who lived far away from school. A school library, computer education, good teaching skills and food were prioritised by learners as elements of their ideal school.

By recognising that the principal and staff have cared, supported and protected them (25% of sampled learners), learners indicated the high premium they have placed on this important characteristic of the principal and staff. Older learners in grades 6 and 7 were more sensitive to the aesthetic environment, cleanliness and the bad behaviour of their colleagues. Some responses from senior learners were: "*Not taking care of garden, lazy caretakers; Dirty toilets; Bad behaviour; I don't like stealing; Writing on walls; I don't like smoking*".

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To determine the challenges that learners faced in their daily lives and in order to devise strategies for supporting them, they were asked to list their difficulties and suggest ways in which the school could help them cope with these challenges. Many learners are confronted with sibling, parental, teacher and street violence and abuse. For most of the learners the effects of alcohol, divorce and neglect seem to drive them into feelings of despair and hopelessness as indicated by the following responses from learners:

> *Being beaten by brother; Scolding; Beaten by teacher; Parents beating us, for no reason; Swelling from beatings; Being treated badly; Fighting and shouting at home; Don't want to be touched; Nobody cares.*

The lack of recreation facilities and very small homes make the streets the play-ground for learners. Fear in the home is extended to fear on the streets where they are exposed to pickpockets, shootings and being knocked down by negligent drivers. Some learner responses revealed their fear: *"Danger of pickpockets; Being shot at, knocked down by car; Playing on the street, being robbed; Need safety and protection."* In the context of such risk and danger it is not uncommon for a small minority of learners to get attracted to a life of crime.

Crime and exposure to danger further exacerbate the levels of poverty, thus learners experience deficiencies in many aspects of schooling. Among these are the inability to obtain all requisites for schooling, failure of parents to get employment and hence an incapacity to provide for the needs at home are major challenges being faced by learners. The basic necessities are difficult to obtain. Food, money for lunch, clothes, school uniform, a proper home, beds, table, school writing material, books for leisure reading and any form of luxury items like sweets and fancy clothes are even scarcer. Below are some feelings expressed by learners: *"No money to buy nice things that will make me happy; Want to work; I don't get money like other children, and parents need better jobs".*Younger children long for the consumer goods (toys, dolls, fast foods) that they see being consumed by their counterparts in the more affluent areas.

Health and morbidity are severely affected by these conditions for most learners. For some learners sicknesses (HIV and AIDS and TB) are serious setbacks as they have to deal with them personally and from within the family: *"Mother and brother are sick and I am sick (HIV); I can't see; I must care for brother and sister, care for parents."* A few learners have to play the role of parent by caring for siblings and sick parents. One learner has to cope with her own illness as well as that of her mother and brother. Evidence is suggesting that these learners are overwhelmed by these challenges and some have expressed longing for their parents who have passed on.

How is all this affecting their schooling? Many older learners have indicated that they cannot cope. They want to learn but need help in their schoolwork, particularly in English, Afrikaans and Mathematics. A few learners have requested additional support from the Special Educational Needs (SEN) teacher by stating the following: *"I need help with schoolwork; I want to learn; I need help in maths; I cannot understand English; Problem with Afrikaans, need LSEN support, help me till I understand; Help with computers"*.

The lack of the basic support from the home in respect of their schooling is a painful experience for most of the very poor learners in the sample. Results of the School's Systemic Evaluation conducted by the WCED confirm the extremely low achievement of learners (WCED, 2006) in literacy and numeracy for both grade 3 and 6 learners.

Sampled learners also bemoaned the fact that they had to do chores at home. These chores were more than the average expectation of learners to keep their rooms clean. In these circumstances where learners lived in tiny shacks with their parents and three to four other siblings, learners had to wash dishes, cook, wash clothes, clean up the home and take care of siblings before any thought was given to schoolwork.

Another concern of learners was that due to parents' unemployment they did not receive money like other learners did, thus preventing them from experiencing the comforts enjoyed by their more affluent colleagues. In this regard two learners responded as follows: *"No money, to buy nice things that will make me happy; Want to work; I don't get money like other children; Parents need better jobs"* Feelings emanating from these remarks serve to consolidate inequality and inferiority early in the child's life.

Most learners made some very practical suggestions as to the way the school can help them cope. Some learners did suggest some ideas - like building homes - that were well beyond the scope of a school's influence. Nevertheless, these suggestions were representative of these young children's desperate cry for help. Approximately 15% of the learners appealed for help from the principal to intervene to stop parents and teachers from beating them. They asked for protection and security at school by responding as follows: *"Discuss the problem of corporal punishment and harsh discipline; Parents must stop beating us; Principal, ask teachers to stop beating us"*.

The pivotal role of parents in the education of their children was also recognised by learners when they asked the school to provide support for their parents by running workshops to develop the school and discussing problems with parents. Learners' opinions were as follows: *"Support parents, set up parents' meeting; Involve parents to get needs of school; Develop school, sit down and discuss problems"*.

Learners wanted the school to provide health services to them, to assist in the arrangements for applying for a grant for their parents and to obtain sponsors who can provide their parents with goods and services that will contribute to alleviating their suffering.

The provision of food was a major form of support as identified by most learners. This basic need was still problematic as the school is not able to provide for all

learners in need. A few learners suggested that food gardens be initiated by the school to provide vegetables for households in need. The need for shelter and survival motivated a request for beds, windows and water by a small percentage of learners.

The principal was also requested to ensure that all the maintenance requirements of the school be completed so that they can use school facilities optimally. Learners' responses in this regard were as follows: *"Clean the school, fix the toilets. Fix up grounds, taps and water."* The reason for this request was that most learners did not have basic facilities like toilets and taps for drinking water. Most learners requested that the school provide them with basic writing materials as these were not available from their homes. Clothes, uniforms and shoes were requested by many of the learners.

Nearly half the sampled learners appealed to be taught to think: *"Teach the children, to think, to read and write, let us learn."* Many wanted special help in English, Afrikaans and Mathematics. Learners are aware of their learning needs and have correctly diagnosed their inability to think critically. A few learners also expressed the desire to be morally developed. They wanted to be taught manners, respect and good behaviour. This may be a response to their own or their colleagues' behaviour, which they perceive to be in need of modification. Some learners wanted encouragement and happiness at school.

In order to ascertain whether learners knew of support structures at school and how they could access them, learners were asked to show how the school had helped poor learners. A large number of learners (more than 50%) responded as if the question required them to suggest ways in which the school can help the poor. Notwithstanding this misunderstanding, a significantly large number of learners knew that the school provided food and clothing to the poor. Others appreciated the school for not collecting school fees from parents as this enabled parents to utilise these funds elsewhere. The facilitation of health services (optical, dental, medical and counselling) was recognised by many learners. It was enlightening to

note that many learners appreciated the school (staff and principal) for '*taking care*' of them and providing support during their bereavement.

The following remark by a learner captures an important secondary value of providing support to learners: "*Some children think that they are better than those that are poor. Now that the poor is getting help, no one sees themselves as better than the other.*"

Those learners that misunderstood the question about their knowledge of support structures at school actually responded to the subsequent question, where they were asked to show what more the school can do to help poor learners. The rationale for this question was to obtain learner perspectives on the type of additional support that they think they will need. Most learners requested help in obtaining food and clothes. Food was the highest priority and they suggested very strongly that poor learners be given food parcels regularly to take home. Furthermore, they requested that a special dining/feeding area be created where learners who are provided with meals can be fed. Food gardens must be developed to feed hungry learners and their families. Clean drinking water must be made available to the community.

A key concern of learners was unemployment. Some learners appealed as follows: "*… help the unemployed; Employ our mothers; Help with grants, long-term loans from government; Employment from government*". They wanted the school to facilitate employment for their parents, particularly for their mothers. They expected the school to lobby the government to provide employment as well as long-term loans for their parents. Further, the school was tasked with the responsibility of facilitating grant applications. More bursaries must be made available for poor learners. Learners also expected the school to devise strategies to assist their parents to get decent houses.

They also expected to be taught to read and to write and appealed for the provision of learning materials, books and writing materials. According to some

learners, the language of instruction (English) must be changed so that learners may be able to learn better in their mother tongue (IsiXhosa). *"… change the language of education, teach self-sufficiency…"* Learners also want to be taught to be self-sufficient and independent. The school needs to provide all the requirements for school and to enable them to take library books home. Due to the risk of damage to books loaned to learners, reference library books are not allowed out of school. There was also a request to be taught sport, manners and rules of behaviour from one learner.

Many learners saw the need for support for poor learners and orphans. They felt that these learners should be identified and special assistance be given to them. Orphans and the poor must be given care and support especially during traumatic experiences. Poor learners, especially those who travelled far distances, should be provided with transport.

This study concentrates on determining what must be done by principals to support their communities in terms of poverty and HIV and AIDS. Therefore it was essential to establish the knowledge of learners in respect of HIV and AIDS so that I could be certain of the level and scale of intervention that may be required. Most learners seem to have a reasonable understanding of HIV and AIDS and their responses can be classified into seven broad categories.

a) Nature, Symptoms and Disclosure

The majority of learners are aware that HIV and AIDS are dangerous diseases that kill. They responded as follows:

> *HIV kills; Dangerous disease; Stay away from it; I don't know my status, contagious; Symptoms and signs of HIV-person is* (sic) *very thin and has sores/pimples ; Person who bites other people, coughing; Goes with TB and other diseases; Walk very slow; Loss of appetite, I have HIV; Disclose your status to parents and to people you can trust.*

They also know that the disease is transmitted through sexual and blood contact. Learners have also observed that sufferers appear very thin, may also have sores and pimples, and have very little energy and a poor appetite. Further, they are aware that HIV and AIDS are associated with TB and other opportunistic diseases. There was a concern among a few learners about their own status. Most of them felt that one should disclose one's status to one's parents or to people one can trust.

b) General precautions

The general precautions appear to be well known by most learners. They know that they must not touch blood or open wounds or used needles without wearing gloves or some protection; hands should be washed and good hygiene should be observed at all times. A few learners did hold the erroneous view that HIV was transmitted through any form of contact and therefore cautioned against kissing, holding hands and hugging. Younger learners tended to avoid referring to sexual contact, however they cautioned against sleeping anywhere without parent's permission and *"Don't speak to men you don't know; Don't misbehave when you have HIV"*. Older learners were more explicit when they cautioned: *"Abstain; Don't get into relationship with a HIV positive girl; Don't sleep around; No unprotected sex; Don't share underwear; Don't do anything that you will regret later."*

Other precautions suggested by learners were *"… don't eat something from another person's mouth; Don't cough on someone's face; You should not share the same bed; Don't share a toothbrush."* These precautions illustrated learners' general knowledge on contagious diseases; some of which do not apply to HIV and AIDS.

c) Sex

Older learners generally were aware of the need to use condoms when having sex but lamented the fact that many people don't want to use a condom. Some younger learners spoke about needing permission to have sex. Others cautioned: "*… use your brains; Don't go with boys; No sex with HIV positive person and with multiple partners.*"

d) Treatment

Learners urged that people should to go to the clinic to seek treatment and not to ignore it, to talk about it otherwise one wouldn't survive, to eat healthy foods and take medication. Love and care must be provided.

e) Feelings

Divergent feelings were expressed by learners.
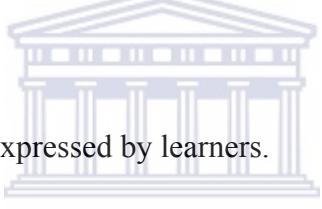
> *You hate people, you want to infect other people (don't); Don't want to get out of the house, makes me sad; Heartbroken, hurts, don't regard as filthy; Don't despise, or ridicule or regard as inferior; Worrying; Affects happiness; Don't want to hear about it.*

Some felt that they hated people; another wanted to infect other people but seriously reconsidered this view and even more felt worried and wanted to be isolated. A few learners felt sad, heart-broken and hurt.

f) Attitude to the infected

Learners were mature enough to suggest that sufferers should not be regarded as filthy nor should they be despised, ridiculed or regarded as inferior. The following comments were made in this regard:

Play and love them; Be yourself with HIV positive learners; Take things offered by HIV positive person; Look after sufferers; Hug, nothing will happen; Talk to people; Can eat from HIV positive person; Don't make fun of a HIV sufferer.

g) Advocacy

According to many learners HIV and AIDS education must be taught at school since more knowledge is required about it. People must wear HIV badges and T-shirts.

In the penultimate question I asked learners: "What does our school do to help those affected by HIV and AIDS?" The purpose of this question was to ascertain the learners' knowledge on what the school is doing for those affected by HIV and AIDS so as to improve access to services. Their responses indicate that the majority of learners did not know what the school was doing or they misunderstood the question, since most of them chose to suggest what the school should do to help learners affected or infected by HIV and AIDS. This was the expected response to the final question. Therefore the final question, that required learners to suggest ways in which the school can support learners affected or infected by HIV and AIDS, was not asked.

Learners' responses can be classified into four related categories. Firstly, treatment: The majority of learners felt that the school must refer infected learners to the nurse or hospital. They must be given medication, healthy food, vitamins and minerals, fruit and vegetables, clean water and high quality treatment. Nurses must visit them regularly and help them with anti-retrovirals (ARVs).

Secondly, care and support: Learners felt that financial support must be given to parents that don't work. The following are some of the collective responses:

> *Clothes, houses to live, beds and linen must be provided; Learners must have access to social workers; Teachers must do home visits; The school must provide transport when someone is sick; Learners must be given food from the garden to take home; Parents must be assisted to apply for grants.*

Learners' believed that those who are infected must be given help and advice on how to live with the virus. Learners must be treated the same as other learners. Learners were clear as to the roles of teachers and stated that: "*Teachers must help learners to disclose to them; Must protect learners; Make them happy; Care for them and give uniforms.*"

Some learners hoped that the school could help to bury the dead here in Cape Town. Whilst most of these suggestions are practical enough for schools to implement, it is not possible for schools to impose on families as to where they bury their dead even though schools do assist families financially when circumstances warrant it.

Thirdly, education and advocacy: Learners were unequivocal about what should be taught: "*Teach about HIV; Give warnings about HIV; Teach general precautions and proper lifestyle; Teach not to sleep around; Teach about the importance of exercise; Give books.*"

Lastly, prevention: Learners responded as follows:

> *Careful with their blood; Chase them away from school, separate them as they will infect others; Send them home, need to drop out of school; I need to be tested, my family too, arrange for testing at clinic; Make condoms available; Make school grounds available for sport.*

Learners believed that proper knowledge on handling blood was essential. Arrangement should be made for testing at the clinic. Most learners felt that condoms should be made available at school. This is a sensitive issue in the primary school as many parents and teachers believe that availing condoms at schools promotes early sexual experimentation. One learner suggested that the

school grounds should be made available for sport after school. This is significant as it resonates with the widely held view that after-school activities are effective in limiting early sexual debut. On the negative side, there was a small minority of learners who felt that infected learners must be sent away from school because they would infect others. This comment illustrates that, whilst learners are reasonably well informed about HIV and AIDS, more education is still required to overcome stigma and discrimination.

From the foregoing it is apparent that learners felt strongly about what was good and bad in their school and they were passionate about their problems and the solution to them. Learners had insight into the kind of support they needed and were knowledgeable enough about HIV and AIDS so as to make valuable suggestions on the way they should be supported.

In the next section I present the responses of the parents.

4.2.2   Parents' responses

Parents were subjected to an interview during which they were asked ten questions. These questions mainly focused on eliciting parent perspectives on how the school community must be supported in the face of poverty and HIV and AIDS. In the first question parents were asked about their expectations from the school when they enrolled their children at the school. The purpose was to establish reasons why parents send their children to school or to this school in particular. This was to identify the parents' perspectives on the need for schooling and schools.

The first category that I identified was the quality of education. A third of the parents (33%) expected the child to pass or progress at the end of the year, but even more poignant was that 66% of the parents wanted the children to be "*taught right*", implying that they wanted the best education for their children. The parents, at this very early stage, have placed the element of quality very firmly on

the education agenda. Also, at the primary level parents wanted learners to understand what was taught.

The functional value of education was recognised by most parents when they emphasised that education must help learners to obtain employment; they must get knowledge because "*life needs educated people*". They also maintained that education must assist learners to deal with health issues, rape and other forms of abuse. The value of being competent in English and having knowledge of the internet was firmly stated by some parents. The learners' educational advancement must also benefit their parents and families.

Schooling for character development was given very high priority by most parents. Discipline and respect must be developed among learners so that they can free themselves of the shackles of township life and "*make something of themselves*". So ultimately learning has to be for life and for the improvement of life. Learning must help children stay away from drugs and alcohol. They need to grow up with self-reliance and self-restraint. One parent felt strongly that: "*My child must become better than me*". A good work ethic must be developed both for school and home.

Sport and extracurricular activities are very important to parents as learners are given opportunities to learn from other experiences. Finally, parents expect the school to treat the learners with love and care and expect teachers to cooperate with them for the benefit of the learner. One parent remarked: "*Treat child very well. Cooperation between teacher and child and parent.*" It is sobering to observe that notwithstanding their poverty and lack of education, parents exhibit the same desires for the development of their children as any other parent in any other environment.

In concert with the first question, the second question aims to find out the parents' opinion on the role of the school. Parents were asked to suggest what they thought were the main functions of the school. In response they suggested five main

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functions. Firstly, learners must be taught to read, write, speak and calculate. Most of the parents wanted the learners to pass at the end of the year, implying that learners must be taught in such a way as to satisfy the required standards for progression. *"Children must get good learning; Help slow learners."* A significant feature of this injunction to teach is that parents also want additional help for learners who are struggling to cope.

Secondly, parents want schools to develop learners in terms of providing a platform for the future. Some parents subscribe to the view that the school plays many roles in the lives of the learner and as such makes a greater impact on learner development than parents."… *many duties of school; School helps learner more than parents."* This opinion is debatable and some (teachers in particular) may view this as a deliberate ploy by parents to abdicate their responsibility and make the development of their child somebody else's duty. At the same time, nobody can deny the enviable role played by a dedicated teacher in the long term development of learners. Discipline, obedience and respect are highly prized qualities that parents want schools to inculcate in their children.

Thirdly, health and safety of learners is given very high priority by most parents:

> *Take care of children, safety of child, lots of crime; Day care;*
> *Teacher calls parent if there are problems; Check children that*
> *they are right – school to be observant about children's problem;*
> *Drug problems etc.*

Clean, drug free buildings, observant and supportive teachers play a significant role in learner satisfaction and learner retention. In terms of learner health, schools must provide services by facilitating entry to the clinic and dentist. Parents expect schools to assist the learners in the absence of parents. Parents expect issues of safety to be taken seriously by schools; to provide day care facilities so as to avoid crime and abuse of learners in the period when learners are left unsupervised after school.

Fourthly, sport and extracurricular activities are essential for holistic learner development. Finally, parents saw the school playing a support function by helping children who are poor; feeding hungry children and providing assistance to unemployed parents by giving books and clothing.

In the next two questions parents were requested to give feedback through examples on the main functions that were done well by the school and those that were not done well. The purpose was to establish parental satisfaction on the school's performance so as to consolidate success and to identify and develop strategies for improvement. In terms of teaching, some parents expressed the view that children were taught better at this school than at other schools. Costs at this school were much lower as well. A few parents were satisfied that some teachers stayed after school to assist learners. Other parents appreciated that learners were motivated by awards, which encouraged them to do well. On the negative side, one parent stated that some work was found uncorrected by a teacher in her child's book.

Teachers were punctual and this contributed to the good discipline at the school. Children too were disciplined and neat and tidy in their school uniform. The school was clean with a very beautiful garden. Staff were very cooperative and respectful. However, one parent was not happy with the attitude of one member of staff. Parents were always well received and problems were solved amicably.

In respect of learner health and safety they responded as follows:

> *… taken care of learners, they are protected, gates closed; They don't go on the streets; I am happy with the reports from child about school; Any problem school helps* (sic)*; If child is sick he gets help, Children are well looked after.*

Parents were pleased that the school takes care of their children by not allowing learners to leave the school, locking the gates and generally protecting the learners from outside interference. The school provides support to sick children; by referring them to nurses and doctors and by arranging for transport to hospital and

clinic. According to parents, learners are well looked after. Learners are provided with food and educational support if they are not coping with schoolwork.

When asked to state the negative aspects of the school's performance most parents responded by saying that they had not encountered any poor performance whilst a few were noncommittal. This response raises the question of whether the poor feel so disempowered that they tend to accept mediocrity or whether they feel so grateful for whatever service they get that it would be regarded as ungrateful to criticise it. One parent who renders service to the school was unhappy that some caretakers at the school were not doing their work properly and were stealing school property. This was a reference to a temporary caretaker who was subsequently dismissed.

A former parent related that in the past, before my arrival at the school, there were many aspects that were not done well at the school.

> *In the past there were many aspects that were not done well:*
> *Principal's influence in appointing staff, use of school funds,*
> *teacher absenteeism when studying, punctuality of teachers and*
> *financial irregularities. These have all since been corrected.*

She was pleased that all of these have since been corrected.

Parents were subsequently asked for examples as to how the school could improve in the performance of its main functions. Parents' responses, suggestions and ideas were invited to improve school performance. As has been the trend, a few parents circumvented this question by stating that there was improvement already or that they did not see anything that needed improvement. One parent was so convinced of the school's improvement that she suggested very strongly that "*You can make this a high school. We can really do it. Children can continue their education here.*" There were a few parents who stated that they did not know enough about the school. Parents, being ignorant of the workings of the school, reflect the school's inability to communicate their procedures to parents or this points to parental failure in their responsibilities towards their children.

Another parent suggested that we should improve respect, care and love. These three are the basics for any improvement that can be done at any institution from a moral perspective. In terms of parental support and involvement, the following ideas were suggested: that the school should make loans to help parents; help parents on how they could help their children with homework; and improve school security through parent vigilance.

It was surprising to observe that a third of the respondents suggested: *"Parent / teacher meetings to co-operate for the child"* (sic). Parent/ teacher meetings are a regular feature on the school calendar, however parental attendance is very poor, which may imply that a large number of learners do not submit school correspondence to parents.

School maintenance was also a priority among some parents and the grounds and garden needed further development. Parents also felt that the school should provide learners with more options in respect of extracurricular activities. Drum majorettes, drill competitions, singing and beauty competitions were some of the suggestions that were made.

With respect to curriculum delivery respondents felt that the school should help the child by assisting the child to learn, more relevant subjects like computer literacy should be added to the curriculum, the skills of teachers should be improved so that they can handle problematic children, and teachers who do well should be complimented. Schools also have to play a support role by providing additional food and clothing.

Since this study is about the role of the principal, I asked respondents what exactly the principal should do to improve. The following advice was offered in terms of the principal's day to day functions:

Take charge of staff discipline, make sure that teachers come to school and that they attend classes and teach the children. Don't only give instructions, asks for suggestion from everyone. The principal must trust workers and workers must trust the principal; Provide support to your staff; Resolve conflict. Need to be assertive. Principal must attend workshops to be up to date on educational matters; The school governing body (SGB) must be supported by the principal.

A further role that was identified by parents was one of motivator. According to parents the principal must engage parents in school matters in the following ways: "*Call parents, talk to parents, and ask what they think parents must do? It is their duty – not only principals' role; Work cooperatively with parents.*" The principal must work cooperatively with parents. Parents felt that the principal must encourage and support parents to participate in the development of the learners and the school. The principal must also serve as a link between parents and government or any other interested party to develop the school.
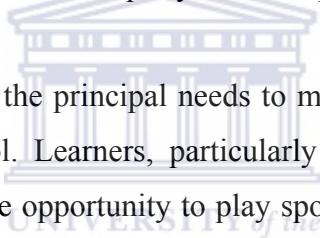
Parents felt strongly that the principal needs to make every effort to upgrade the sports facilities at school. Learners, particularly boys, who misbehave can be helped by giving them the opportunity to play sport. Girls must also be given the opportunity to play sport. A parent remarked: "*Children must be occupied to prevent untoward behaviour.*"

The financial role of the principal was important to parents. They felt that the principal must exert proper financial control, find sponsors to donate and initiate fundraising efforts. These claims were not motivated by parents. In the absence of any financial query at the school, I assume that these remarks are standard advice that parents will give to principals.

In order to establish the difficulties faced by parents when they undertake the process of sending their children to school and so that I could develop strategies to assist, I asked parents to list the difficulties they experience in sending their children to school. Three of the eighteen parents interviewed stated that they did not face any problems. This was indeed a short-sighted answer because even if

they were economically well off, the rampant crime in the area was a very serious threat to learner attendance at school. The rest of the parents all forcefully indicated that poverty and crime were the main sources of concern for parents as they undertook the process of educating their children.

Poverty was the most widespread difficulty that was experienced by most parents. One parent expressed her anguish as follows:

> *I am not employed. That is the main problem. We both are*
> *unemployed; it is difficult, not right nutrition, uniforms, wash*
> *clothes. I am sick, father unemployed – uneducated. Financial*
> *problems!*

Unemployment was listed as the main contributor to poverty. Some parents were emotional when they related how dependent they were on family members. As a result, the children did not receive the appropriate nutrition. They had no school clothes or shoes and this not only impeded learners learning but it affected both the learner and the parent emotionally. Illness and a general state of hopelessness pervaded many homes. Even the CSG was insufficient to provide relief.

Single parenthood was another contributor to poverty. Obtaining basic food for the family was a major challenge especially when single mothers had to depend on casual employment that was very uncertain. Some employed single parents were unable to wake their children up in time for school as they had to leave very much earlier to go to work, thus not having the support for their children. This also led to the abuse of little children who were left unsupervised.

Parents expressed the following sentiments in respect of the role played by school in protecting their children:

> *School protects your child from the evils of the location. Send to*
> *school for safety; Too many problems like drugs, alcohol, lack of*
> *respect (ill mannered speech); Children are being robbed and*
> *harassed on the roads.*

Crime, violence and abuse were cited as major threats to children. They were robbed of their money and were being harassed as they came to school. School was the only safe haven for the learners as it protected them from the evils of the township. Drug and alcohol abuse and a lack of respect among youngsters were on the increase so the value of schooling became very important to parents

In the subsequent question I informed parents of the efforts that we as a school were making to support learners in need. I asked them if they were knowledgeable about these efforts. I then asked them to share how this had helped them (if it did) and thereafter I asked them to suggest other ways in which the school can assist. The majority of parents, approximately 83% were aware of the school's efforts to help poor learners.

Everyone agreed that these efforts were a very big help and in this regard a parent reflected the sentiments expressed by other parents by stating that: *"Helps if he has eaten, he can learn, – same like others" (sic).* Some respondents felt that the school, in providing food and clothing, not only ensured that learners were able to focus on their studies but also contributed to making all learners equal. This equality was very important to both learners and parents as it prevented the marginalisation of poor learners. Isolation, labelling and stigma can be very debilitating to young children and these may scar them for life thus preventing them from freeing themselves from the vicious cycle of poverty.

Parents suggested the following ideas that can be pursued by schools in order to alleviate poverty. Firstly, employment: *"Need to give work to people to clean the school; May be I can sell at school to make some money."* The school should employ needy parents to provide services to the school. This will allow the poor parents to provide at least the basics for their children. Another parent expressed the hope that she would be allowed to sell food items at school so that she could make a living for her children. It was interesting to note that while parents wanted the school to be a direct employer, no parent suggested that the school could become an employment bureau; a centre that facilitates the employment of parents

by providing access to information, application facilities (typing and computer) and communication facilities (telephone, facsimile and electronic mail).

The school as an arm of government should be able to serve as a link between the poor and the government. One parent commented that: *"Ask government to provide support for whatever else that we need help."* It should be able to deliver government's poverty alleviating services to the people. In this case respondents suggested that the school facilitate the provision of grants and food parcels to the poor. Schools should consider engaging government for the provision of bursaries to needy learners.

The SGB needs to undertake fundraising activities to support destitute children. They should seek donations from business and use them to provide for the needs of the poor learners. Further, the SGB and principal should form partnerships with other organizations to share and distribute resources.

In the penultimate question I first informed parents of the scope of the work of the school's Health and HIV/AIDS Committee and then they were asked to give us advice on what further action could be taken by the school. The intention was to elicit other strategies to help learners and the community. A parent responded as follows: *"Help in securing grant for those who are affected."* This consistent request for assistance in acquiring the grant for affected learners indicates firstly, the dire need for such assistance and secondly, the difficulty that is experienced by applicants in obtaining the grant. This is clearly an area in which the school may be able to provide some relief.

Apart from the usual complimentary feedback that poor parents seem to feel that they must provide for this type of question, parents also made some very pertinent suggestions: *"Sport, music provides alternate to crime and other practices like early sexual experimentation."* Firstly, in respect of the curriculum, some parents felt that physical exercise was very important, as part of the school curriculum (sport and physical education lessons), since it helped the body to fight diseases.

A further value of sport was that it provides an alternative to crime and other practices like early sexual debut. This response from parents presents an effective focal point to rally support for interventions from both parents and staff. One parent suggested that HIV and AIDS must be taught as a subject at school.

Secondly, in respect of spirituality, there was a belief that some aspects of the new political dispensation had contributed to the erosion of family values and therefore the spiritual development of learners was being neglected. In this regard the following response is worthwhile to mention:

> *Church plays a big role. I think that the school and church can*
> *co-operate. Because they both teach how to carry oneself in terms of*
> *HIV. School to emphasise the value of church and the role it plays.*

Hence there was a need for the school to work closer with the churches as the churches were playing a significant role in teaching families how to cope with HIV and AIIDS. Consequently the school was encouraged to emphasise to parents and the learners the value of the church and the role it plays. The school and the church must be partners in the struggle against HIV and AIDS.

Lastly, many parents suggested the formation of support groups that will assist in the campaign against HIV and AIDS. Parents comments were: "*Try to support those who are suffering; Communicate with affected households; How can we fight this together? Connect with nurses and hospitals*".

 Parents suggested the following modes of support: that the school needs to identify learners who need to be supported; members of the support group can visit affected homes and ascertain how they are living and what they need; they can check symptoms; liaise with school committees to assist and help in the treatment of HIV and AIDS; can provide physical support; clean; and feed the suffering. These support groups can provide physical support if they can.

 Parents may have to be counselled on how to protect themselves against HIV. A parent suggested: "*Counselling; to show parents how to protect themselves*

against HIV; Visit home and check HIV/TB/pneumonia – how they live, what they need." The support group could refer cases to social workers for more expert support. They could facilitate the distribution of food to the needy families and liaise with the relevant authorities to provide other services like medical care and housing to the affected and infected. The support group should facilitate Voluntary Counselling and Testing (VCT) among parents and learners.

A further function of the support group, as posited by the parents, was to foster communication and hope:

> *We don't talk about our problems; the support group could help in this regard; Speak about it, people listen, not everyone is shy to talk. Communicate with affected households. How can we fight this together?*

The support group could provide opportunities for the affected and infected to enjoy some interaction with others. A parent suggested the following: *"Bring them to school; give them opportunity to enjoy; play ball; take them on a Friday to school, where they could be entertained."*

The concept of the support group is a very laudable one; however parents did not expand their thoughts to the composition of the support group. Issues relating to the main role-players, the role of teachers and resources were not considered. These are issues that must be given careful thought for ensuring sustainability of a very workable concept.

The final question to parents was an extension of the previous question, however this focused on the specific role of the principal in improving the school's service to the community in respect of poverty and HIV and AIDS. The principal needs to support the learners and the community. The principal can ensure the confidentiality of all information pertaining to HIV and AIDS, particularly information on learners, as failure to do so may undermine the support effort due to stigma and discrimination. School leaders must be sensitive to the special needs of learners infected and affected by HIV and AIDS.

Parents suggested that the school leader can facilitate parents to help one another in the following ways: *"Facilitate parents to help each other. Get other parents to assist those who need it financially; Approach big companies for help; Ask for co-operation in fundraising."*

They further suggested that parents need to be motivated to assist those who struggle financially. Those who are unemployed can be recruited to render service to the school and receive some financial help in return. According to some parents, principals should help in obtaining decent homes for families.

Parents also saw the advocacy role of the principal as crucial to the HIV and AIDS effort as reflected by the following:

> *People, who don't know about HIV, try to inform and give advice about HIV; Make an event on the field. Awareness programmes for parents, explain what is happening; Speak to street committee concerning poverty and HIV.*

Mass campaigns should be undertaken to inform and advise the community about HIV and AIDS. The school should advertise its own efforts so that people may become aware of the services rendered by the school. Alliances should be struck with street committees and community service organisations so that wide scale education on HIV and AIDS can be facilitated. Health and social workers must be used directly to take the message to parents or parents can be reached indirectly through the learners.

These responses from parents reflect the extent to which poverty and HIV and AIDS have dominated the lives of this community. They also reflect the state of desperation that they are in. Some responses clearly indicate that parents see schools not only as educational institutions but also as community service centres. In some cases parents tended to completely ignore the educational role of the school. A further glaring omission by parents was their apparent disregard for the health of teachers. They seemed to have focused on their own suffering,

understandably, thus ignoring the crucial effect of teacher health on the education of their children.

4.2.3   Teachers' views

Teacher opinion was canvassed through a questionnaire and later by a focus group interview. All teachers were subjected to a questionnaire that comprised ten questions. For the focus group interview I purposefully selected teachers that I believed that would assist to provide differing viewpoints. In the focus group interview participants were asked nine questions, four of which were repeated from the questionnaire because these questions needed more depth and clarity from teachers concerning core functions, teacher knowledge on HIV and AIDS and the school's role in providing support to those affected by HIV and AIDS. To avoid duplication I have integrated the responses to those questions that were repeated in both instruments.

4.2.3.1 Questionnaire

Teachers were initially asked to list the core functions of the school. The purpose was to establish whether teachers are aware of the school's core function so as to provide a starting point for principal intervention. If teachers do not know what the school is supposed to do, then how are they going to do it? Six out of the twenty respondents either misunderstood the question or they had no idea of what the school's core functions were. This is alarming as it implies that since some teachers are oblivious of the work done at the school, then the nature and quality of their contribution will be questionable. Consequently this question was repeated in the focus group interview so as to give an opportunity for discussion.

The main responses from the questionnaire were good quality teaching and learning as a right. One teacher advised: "*Ensure that learners read, write and calculate according to age*". Other responses included learner development, developing the school, developing the community, care and support and the

provision of Life Skills and support for those affected by HIV and AIDS. In the focus group interview teachers were given a list of core functions to which they were requested to add, namely:

- Teach the children to read, write and calculate according to their age cohort;
- Provide a safe, healthy and nurturing environment for learners to grow;
- Identify and support learners with special needs;
- Provide opportunities for holistic development of learners, i.e. emotional, physical, social, mental and cultural; and
- Prepare learners for the world: family, work, civic.

Some specific functions were suggested; however it was possible to fit each of these into the broad core functions that I proposed initially.

In order to establish teacher perspective on the effectiveness of our service I asked teachers to comment on our meaningfulness or effectiveness as a school in the performance of our core functions. This question was also repeated in the focus group interview to provide teachers with an opportunity to pass judgement on our performance of our core functions. The responses in the questionnaire were both positive and negative. The positive comments focused on care and support as well as learner and community development.

In the category of care and support, many teachers were aware that we provide financial assistance through bursaries, we assist in the application for birth certificates and social grants and, with the support of NGOs, we provide food to indigent learners. The gardening project also assists in the nutrition of the poor learners.

In the context of learner development and performance, some teachers were satisfied that learners can read and write; however others felt that we had produced some worthy citizens over the years. Children receive good support in respect of food and psychological support. HIV and AIDS education is taught as

part of the curriculum. It is of concern to note that there was one teacher who did not know this fact. Some teachers observed that: "… *absenteeism lowered due to provision of food" to* the poor learners.

As far as community development was concerned, regular parent meetings promoted cooperation between the school and the community. This cooperation manifested in the community protecting the school. According to teachers, parents were being encouraged, motivated and educated.

A significant feature of the responses from the questionnaire and the focus group interview on our effectiveness in the performance of our core functions was the reluctance on the part of all but one teacher to critically evaluate our performance. Was this a deliberate attempt not to draw attention to our inadequacies as a school or was it a genuine response because we did not know any better? It is against this backdrop that the following response from one teacher casts a shadow on the veracity of the responses from the rest of the staff:

> *We are failing in the quality of teaching and learning. We have very limited sport and cultural activities. We are failing in life skills training of learners.*
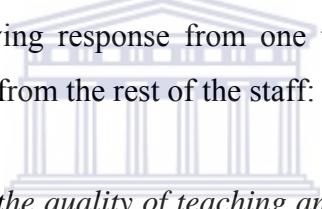
While the vast majority chose not to critically evaluate the school's performance, a few chose to validate current performance by proffering a list of needs. Amongst these were the need for more human resources; more learner support materials (LSM); to bring the teacher/learner ratio down; to improve working conditions; to develop a code of conduct for learners to guide them; to develop sport for growth, to create a safe school environment and to educate learners not to be careless about sex. Even though a few teachers cited school development as a core function, none commented on our meaningfulness in that core function. The same trend continued in the focus group interview as teachers cited examples of our daily work that fitted into each of the suggested core functions.

One teacher attributed the low achievement of our learners in reading and writing to the prevailing language policy of schools in the townships. The fact that our learners were not being taught in their mother tongue placed them at a severe disadvantage in comparison to their white colleagues who were taught in their mother tongue. Our learners had to interpret and translate into their mother tongue before they could conceptualise. The teacher argued as follows: "*... before they conceptualise things, they have to translate while they are thinking, they are trying to conceptualise and at the same time they are trying to solve problems, which is a very big burden.*" This argument was a very plausible explanation for learners from grades 4 to 7 as they were taught in English; however it cannot be used to justify learner performance from grades 1 to 3 as they were being taught in their mother tongue.

In the third question I requested teachers to provide the principal (me) with ideas to improve our service in respect of our core functions. Teachers made suggestions based on the categories identified in the first question of the questionnaire. Firstly, learner development: teachers felt that learners should demonstrate their learning at special functions. Discipline should be improved by setting goals and making rules for learners to follow for smooth functioning of the school. Learners should be taught skills that will enable them to support themselves. In addition to more support services that need to be provided, the feeding scheme needs to be expanded to include more learners. For better learner security, teachers suggested that security guards and an electric wire fence should be provided.

Secondly, teacher development: more opportunities for teacher training and staff development should be provided. Principal should ensure teacher discipline so that learners are disciplined. Teamwork needs to be promoted and more supervision and support for teachers should be conducted.

In respect of parents and community development, the third category, teachers felt that "*… parent meetings for the purpose to educate, motivate and give*

information", were vital to develop the community. Parents must be involved during the policy making process and community building initiatives should be encouraged and supported by the school. In respect of poverty and HIV and AIDS, the school should endeavour to provide parents with support so that they could access information and support services.

In the last category, quality of teaching and learning: Teachers advised that the principal should see to it that "… *everyone does their duties at school, ensure that the curriculum is delivered in the way it is supposed to be"* and that principals should listen to the opinions of other, evaluate their worth and share them with others if valuable.

In response to the question requiring an evaluation of the school's performance in our responsibility to assist the community to cope with poverty, the majority of teachers listed the services rendered by the school. Amongst these was financial support: bursaries were awarded to those deserving learners who showed their educational potential and most parents were assisted with their grant applications.

Other services included the school feeding scheme that was funded by the state. This service catered for only half the number of learners at school. Since the need was so great the school sought the assistance of an NGO, which now provides two hot meals a day for the poorest of the poor learners. The arrangement with the NGO also includes a garden that produces vegetables that feeds the poor learners and excess produce is sold to the community at low prices when available. This intervention frees up some of the state provided resources for more learners. However, one teacher expressed the view that the school feeding scheme must become more effective because there was still too much wastage.

The principal obtains donations and sponsors that assist with clothes and food and staff help by providing clothes to indigent learners. Teachers knew that "... *some parents are given casual jobs as poverty alleviation strategies."* Learners that are identified to be experiencing social problems like neglect, deprivation and abuse

are referred through the school social workers to the Department of Social Services. Teachers were of the opinion that the school could still improve its service by identifying more learners in need and then interacting with their parents.

When teachers were requested in the questionnaire and the focus group interview to give ideas or suggestions concerning the action, principals or the school should take in assisting the community to cope with poverty, teachers responded to the questionnaire in terms of the current efforts made at the school. In other words, they stated the services rendered at the school as discussed in the previous paragraphs. In addition, the following were suggested under the provision of food and clothes:

> *… arrange for food parcels for learners to take home; Appeal to learners and their parents to donate clothes that are not being used to learners in need; Concerts and bazaars should be arranged to raise funds for those who are vulnerable.*

Most teachers saw the provision of the state grant as being critical to the poverty alleviation process. Therefore, great emphasis was placed on the need for the school to facilitate the process by ensuring that all learners have birth certificates and by holding workshops for parents on how to apply for grants. Job creation was also seen as the other way of alleviating poverty. However, the limited scope of the school in this regard was also recognised. Nevertheless, teachers did suggest that when employment creation opportunities did arrive, then first preference should be given to parents who were in need. A further suggestion was that the school should create an employment advice bureau that could serve as a conduit for job opportunities to parents.

Entrepreneurial empowerment was a key to lifting families out of poverty. The school needs to organise empowerment workshops for the community on the ways of living, planting and running a business. These workshops must galvanise the community to "*… help each other to help themselves; build their self-image; if they sit down then nothing will happen*". Teachers also suggested that the

principal should motivate parents to form groups and have projects such as handwork and sewing and the products can be sold. A teacher stated:

> *Allow the community to use the school to empower one another with skills that they already have. Create an Adult Learning Centre where unemployed adults can start their own projects like making beads and clay pots.*

In addition to this entrepreneurial support that was envisaged, many teachers suggested that parents also needed counselling and psychological support. Whilst teachers did not explain the reasons for the afore-mentioned suggestion, it is possible that they were reacting to some of the psycho-social problems they have observed from learners.

In the focus group interview, teachers repeated some of the above stated ideas; however they made three further suggestions. Firstly, they suggested canvassing the support of more well-off parents, who could be asked to donate good used clothing that their children have outgrown. Secondly, poor learners who were not realising their potential should be identified and given opportunities to develop their talents so that their self-confidence can be boosted and serve as an encouragement when they come to school.

Lastly, one teacher exhorted others to give poor learners the opportunity to run errands or do little tasks for them, so that they feel integrated and accepted in the class, by stating the following:

> *We must try to give them love so that they feel accepted here at school because some of the time we usually have thoughts in our heads that we want to make use or work with learners that are well off, this demotivates the poor learners, especially those learners who have a problem at home.*

The integration of learners as contemplated in the above quotation will develop confidence, self-esteem and prevent mental withdrawal of learners even if they are experiencing difficulties at home.

As teachers, who are teaching about HIV and AIDS, it is essential that our knowledge about HIV and AIDS is thorough. Teachers must ensure that their knowledge is accurate and up to date. To ascertain this for the purpose of developing appropriate support to teachers I asked them about HIV and AIDS, particularly about their understanding of the causes, methods of transmission, treatment and prevention.

Whilst respondents went into great detail about their understanding of HIV and AIDS, an alarmingly high percentage, approximately 50%, of respondents did not make mention of causes, transmission, treatment and prevention. Here are some responses from teachers: "*HIV is the virus that causes AIDS; Found only in humans; Virus attacks the body's immune system making the body incapable of fighting disease.*"

Another area of concern was the complete omission by all respondents of the problem of stigma and discrimination experienced by those infected. The issue that HIV and AIDS affects females more than it affects males was also not alluded to, thus implying that teachers are oblivious of the gender implications of HIV and AIDS.

On the nature of HIV and AIDS, the effects of the disease were clearly understood both at the family level and at the national level. Some responses from teachers were as follows: "*It is destructive to the economically active population of South Africa; Incurable; Collection of diseases; Affects orphans before and after birth.*"

The double-barrelled impact of HIV and AIDS on AIDS orphans was cogently highlighted by many teachers. The clinical issues of transmission seemed to be understood by approximately 50% of those teachers who responded about transmission. The emotional issue of transmission was explained as follows by one teacher:

> *After becoming infected one does not accept it and does not go for support; keeps secret to themselves and by so doing spreads the disease to someone they love. This can be prevented if one discloses to their loved one.*

Many teachers saw poverty as one of the key players in the spread of the HI virus and in general responded as follows: *"It is caused by lack of understanding and lack of resources; Not having anything else to do; Poor accommodation and families that are congested in one roomed shacks."* If nobody was employed in a family, young girls are then forced to sell their bodies for money.

About 50% of teachers who responded in terms of treatment seemed to know most of the technical details in respect of anti-retrovirals (ARVs) and the need for a healthy diet and exercise. Below are some responses in this regard:

> *No vaccine as yet except ARVs which slow down the growth of HI Virus; If CD count is 200 and below one must take ARVs; Taking ARVs does not mean that one is going to become HIV negative again; Together with ARVs healthy diet and exercise is essential.*

The importance of voluntary counselling and testing (VCT) was also emphasised by many teachers.

In respect of prevention, teachers were knowledgeable about condom use and abstention; however, the issue of condom distribution was controversial. Older teachers did not favour condom distribution at primary schools while younger teachers were comfortable that condoms "… *must be placed in places where learners cannot feel shy to take them, for example in classrooms*". It was significant that a few teachers believed that early sexual debut should be delayed. To achieve this, learners must be provided with alternate activities that could delay experimentation with sex.

The value of a "sound education" was emphasised. It was unclear whether this related to the value of a general education as espoused by Coombe and Kelly

(2001) or whether it referred to HIV and AIDS-specific education. What was clear though, was the knowledge of some teachers of targeting all learners aged between nine and fourteen years, who were so vulnerable. They stated that:

> *Target the at risk learners aged between 9 and 14 years; Everyone*
> *is responsible for protecting themselves by having more information about*
> *it; The disease is the same as cancer, etc, and people must go to*
> *workshops to get to know about it.*

Thus people need to access the relevant information to be able to cope with it. Teachers saw information about the disease as being crucial to the prevention effort.

It was also important to develop the correct attitude and behaviour. Teachers observed that:

> *Carelessness/negligence of having sex without a condom and*
> *multiple partners; Safe sex; Be faithful to one partner to avoid*
> *spreading the disease*

Safe sex, avoiding multiple partners and being faithful to one partner were important behavioural injunctions that were applicable not only to learners but to teachers as well.

When asked to comment on our meaningfulness or effectiveness as a school in executing our responsibility to assist the communities to cope with HIV and AIDS most teachers again chose to state the services we render rather than evaluate the performance. Only one teacher was prepared to evaluate the school's performance. The teacher was not sure of our meaningfulness as yet and responded as follows: "*We have made some effort but this is inadequate; we need a more comprehensive programme to become more effective.*"

According to teachers the following were some of the efforts made by the school: The school starts the process of educating learners early in their lives about HIV

so that they will be able to make the right choices. Groups or NGOs are invited to school to educate parents and learners about HIV and AIDS. The school has initiated health projects like the 'hand washing project' to encourage better hygiene and awareness. The school's HIV and AIDS Committee has developed an HIV and AIDS policy that gives direction to everyone at school. Parents have been invited to workshops where issues of HIV transmission, prevention and care and support have been discussed.

As mentioned earlier, the majority of respondents chose not to evaluate the school's performance in assisting the community to cope with HIV and AIDS. Most chose to advise the principal on what should be done to assist the community to cope with HIV and AIDS; this was required in the next question. Consequently these responses are incorporated in the responses to the next question which is the central research question for the entire study and the responses guided the strategy that was developed. **"What do you think that I or any other principal can do to improve our service in respect of our role to assist the community to cope with HIV and AIDS?"**

Since the main role of school principals is their instructional role, the principal needs to affect learners positively in respect of HIV and AIDS primarily through the curriculum. One teacher captured the principal's role as follows: *"Strengthen teaching and learning by striving for improved quality in teaching. All prevention programmes require literacy as foundation."* The focus on teaching and learning must be at the forefront of the principal's strategy. Teaching and learning has to focus on literacy, especially in the primary school. All prevention programmes require literacy as foundation hence high literacy and numeracy achievements are crucial targets for all primary schools.

Some teachers didn't seem to know that HIV and AIDS was an integral part of the curriculum in the Life Skills learning Programme in the Foundation Phase and in the Life Orientation Learning Area in the Senior and Intermediate Phases. Others were more knowledgeable and responded as follows:

> *Monitor life skills teaching and ensure it is done thoroughly;*
> *Provide support for teachers in teaching strategies;*
> *Ensure that HIV and AIDS is integrated across the curriculum.*

One teacher felt that to reach the parents, the learners need to be properly taught so as to spread the 'gospel' of HIV. Another idea was to give learners challenging assignments so that parental assistance guarantees learning benefits for both groups.

The principal's influence is also significant in the domain of education and advocacy on HIV and AIDS amongst learners, parents and teachers. The following suggestions were made by teachers in respect of education and advocacy amongst learners:

> *Workshops, talk shows and drama can be effectively used to inform and promote better attitudes towards HIV and AIDS; Give learners support through provision of information, building trust and maintaining confidentiality; Encourage the formation of clubs, like Soul Buddz, that promote healthy living and life styles; Capacitate staff on how to provide support to learners that are affected and infected. Ensure that there is no discrimination of learners. Make every effort to educate in the learners own language to promote understanding and practice of learning.*

Teachers suggested the following in terms of education and advocacy amongst parents and the community. Individuals who have disclosed their status as being infected or affected should be approached to address learners and parents. Also stakeholders from the Department of Education, health workers and personnel from community clinics should be used to make the community aware of prevention, care and support. Further suggestions included that NGOs should be engaged to supply the community and educate them about condoms and rubber gloves; that a healthy lifestyle should be promoted and every opportunity should be used to advocate to the community through meetings, letters, posters, newsletters and competitions; and that the language of the community should be used throughout the advocacy process.

The community should be encouraged to get involved in campaigns and celebrations like World AIDS Day. Teachers advocated the following strategies:

> *Parents to be encouraged to do activities for World AIDS Day;*
> *Encourage community to get tested and disclose their status;*
> *Put AIDS related posters on School fence; Use questionnaire to*
> *ascertain parents' understanding of HIV and take it from there;*
> *There is a need for counselling on how families must cope with*
> *an infected person in the family.*

During these events diverse informative activities should be used to encourage people to get tested and disclose their status. Counselling services for families straining with trauma, grief and the inability to cope financially should be provided.

The majority of teachers advocated the formation of community support teams by schools. The mechanics of such action has generally been ignored, thus undermining an excellent idea. However, some teachers did suggest that these support groups must work closely with the community and community support structures. They commented as follows:

> *Organise support teams in the community; Work closely with*
> *community and community support structures; Get to know their*
> *needs; Help to get birth certificate for learners; Bring Department of*
> *Home Affairs to school.*

Teachers advised that the support groups need to be in tune with the needs of the community. They need to help parents to apply for identity documents, learners' birth certificates and social grants. A dimension that was not captured by teachers was that for support groups to work smoothly, the school's HIV and AIDS committee needs be properly organised, enthusiastic and willing to engage the community.

Teachers expected the principal to engage the community by forming counselling teams with interested teachers and parents. A teacher believed that:

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The principal needs to be visible in the community when there is a cry for help. The principal could form prayer groups and be involved with the different churches to provide support.

Paulo Freire (1998a) in Williams et al (1999) maintains that the progressive teacher must have hope and that trying to do without hope "… is a frivolous illusion." Therefore, to establish the level of optimism that exists among staff, so that the level of co-operation for intervention strategies may be assessed and to engender hope, I asked the teachers whether they felt that there was hope in the fight against HIV and AIDS. They were asked to explain their feelings.

In response only two out of the eighteen sampled teachers expressed reservations about the outcome in the struggle against HIV and AIDS. Their reasons for this belief were firstly, that "*… there were still too many people who did not believe that HIV exists*" and secondly, the obvious reason that many people will feel hopeless about was that: "*… people were still dying of HIV and AIDS*." The former reason is explored in more depth by the participants of the teacher focus interview, which is presented in the next section.

Those teachers who were more hopeful cited the following explanations for their positive disposition. They believed that education and the correct attitude were vital for a successful outcome of the struggle against HIV and AIDS. HIV and AIDS is like any other life threatening disease. They commented as follows: "*If we provide the necessary education and support, we will give learners clear choices to look after themselves."* Teachers believed that it is about attitude and awareness. People were starting to be aware of HIV. Teachers observed that: "*People are practising safe sex. People are seeing what it is doing to their loved ones and are beginning to protect themselves.*"

Others expressed their hope conditionally. In other words certain changes will have to be made in attitude and behaviour before success can be achieved. Amongst these changes were: people need to be honest with one another; if people could take it seriously and know that it exists; if people can stop being

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superstitious. One teacher drew her hope from other infected people: *"As long as there are people who stand up and tell us that they are surviving with the virus for years; that means that we can fight this disease"*.

Critical issues that must be bravely tackled, according to teachers, are ignorance, use of condoms and abstinence. Teachers also believed that self-discipline is the key to success. Proper knowledge, disciplined treatment and a healthy diet were vital to success.

Other teachers were more dependent on medical science as the saviour of society when they placed their hope on ARVs and the scientists that were busy in their laboratories trying to discover the cure for HIV. Their argument is that there were other diseases that were as life threatening as HIV and AIDS, but they have now been brought under control due to the successes of medical science.

In the final question to teachers on the questionnaire they were asked what contribution teachers can make to improving our service in respect of a) our core functions, b) assisting the community to cope with poverty, and c) assisting the community to cope with HIV and AIDS. The intention was to establish teacher perspectives on their own roles so as to inform the principal on possible strategies to be used to guide teachers in their own roles and to identify teacher roles for purposes of reproduction at other sites.

In respect of our core functions teachers mainly placed emphasis for improvement on the delivery of the curriculum and a more positive attitude. For improving the delivery of the curriculum they made the following suggestions:

Teachers must have goals when teaching learners. Concentrate on reading, mathematics and life skills; The Life Orientation lessons must be made more meaningful; Focus on good quality assessment and feedback. Provide effective extracurricular activities; Provide a conducive and non-threatening learning environment for learners.

Most teachers agreed that the quality of teaching and learning can be improved by providing after-school classes for learners experiencing academic problems; that there must be close cooperation with parents to help learners and that learners must be motivated to become more self-disciplined. Most teachers placed high value on attending workshops that will help them to deliver the new curriculum well and they also felt that improving one's qualifications was also valuable to improving quality.

Teachers are aware that their attitude to their calling is also decisive in the quality of service they render. Therefore they advocated that: "*Do your work properly; commit to brighten the future of the learner; Practise what we preach; We are role models in the community and are regarded as leaders.*" Other attitudinal adjustments involved working as a team; supporting the principal; taking ownership of the school; being practical and aware that actions are better than words; and accepting change and being prepared.

Many respondents did not seem to understand the meaning of the term 'core functions'. They seemed to think that since the questionnaire appeared to be about HIV and AIDS, then their responses should be about HIV and AIDS. Teachers generally repeated the advice that they gave earlier in respect of improvement in our role to assist the community to cope with poverty. However, some teachers did suggest that providing moral support to parents and eliminating wastage through efficient use of limited resources would be helpful. The following response by a teacher captures an important dimension of this study: "*Teach learners about the importance of coming to school as a vehicle towards eliminating poverty.*"

Other new ideas generated by teachers involve being alert for employment opportunities for parents in need; educating parents about foster parenting; and adoption of a learner if one has the means to.

In terms of improving our role to assist the community to cope with HIV and AIDS teachers saw their influence in education and advocacy as being most meaningful. They felt that they should encourage those who are affected to attend support groups and they could advise infected people to follow a proper diet. They also had knowledge and experience to workshop the community about testing, prevention and care and support.

Teachers also saw their close working relationship with parents as an opportunity to provide parents with information and counselling. They believe that teachers should talk to parents about HIV as often as they can. Thus teachers need to be well informed about the disease. Teachers valued the importance of information as follows:

> *Helping parents with their questions; Counselling; Talk to parents about HIV as often as you can; By being well informed about the pandemic; Know your status.*

Knowing one's own HIV status and protecting oneself was also seen as important to the effort of improving our service. Teacher involvement in community support groups was also seen as an effective way in which teachers can assist. Other suggestions included being visible in the community when help is needed; participating in active community structures; and visiting those who are sick.

Improving support to learners affected and infected by HIV and AIDS was seen as the most obvious way in which teachers can assist because they spend much time with learners. Some suggestions made by teachers:

> *Being open in the classroom situation, gaining learners' trust, avoid discrimination of the infected or giving special treatment, and be sensitive and alert to learners that are affected and infected; Create good HIV learning opportunities for learners and parents; Form clubs, drama activities and other extracurricular activities.*

In the foregoing section I have presented the views of teachers as obtained from their responses to the questionnaire. I have integrated the responses for two of the

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questions that were repeated in both the questionnaire and the focus group interview. In the next section I present the views expressed by the participants in the focus group interview. Even though two additional questions were repeated in both instruments, I have decided to present their results separately because the focus group interview generated categories that were unrelated to those generated by the questionnaire.

4.2.3.2 Focus group interview

The responses to the first two questions have been presented with the results of the corresponding questions in the questionnaire. In the third question I enquired of the panel why it is important for us as teachers to know our core functions. The intention was to establish whether there is any merit in my pre-occupation with core-functions as a strategic pursuit in the provision of high quality service by principals in the contexts of poverty and HIV and AIDS. The teachers in the focus group interview all agreed with the value of knowing the core functions of the school.

The knowledge of core functions gave purpose to the teachers' work. *"It is important to know why you are in this place"*, remarked one teacher. Another teacher equated the core functions to outcomes: "W*e are working towards them"*. Knowing the core functions was also linked to being able to judge whether one had reached one's goals or not. A good awareness of one's own core functions gives ample power for one to convince others of the importance of the work that we do. This can be used to leverage support and sustain a project.

Having established the value of knowing the school's core functions it now becomes a priority for all stakeholders to be conscientised about the school's core functions. The next question sought to identify strategies to conscientise stake holders. The first respondent to this question emphasised the importance of the vision and mission statements as follows: "*Mission and vision statement*

transparent (visible for everyone to see) – revisited more frequently so that we know whether we are on the right point (sic) *that we are doing our core functions.*

Another respondent felt that the SMT played the role of conscientising by supervising, supporting and evaluating teacher performance of the core functions. Weekly grade meetings should be expended judiciously to motivate teachers of their purpose in the school. The respondent commented as follows:

> *There are also grade meetings that we have every week – it should be pointed out at these grade meetings to teachers or teachers should be reminded as to what their duty is to the learner and the school so that they know why they are here.*

Another teacher advocated that 'Parent Days' should be optimally used to conscientise parents about our core functions as well as to educate them about their own roles. The recognition of learner achievement monthly and annually also draws attention to the core functions of the school.

In the next question I asked the group to describe how poverty was affecting our learners. The intention was to gain first hand information on the effects of poverty on the education of learners. Teachers articulated the following thoughts: Learners were not performing at the level they were supposed to because they were not obtaining the appropriate nutrition. This leads to the situation where some learners have to take part-time jobs that prevent them from spending the required time with their studies, hence resulting in very poor learner achievement.

One teacher believed that poor parents, due to their situation, neglect their duty to follow up and motivate their children to take school work seriously because they see their role as parents solely as providers of food. The teacher responded as follows: "… *but poor parents have no other aim but to provide food; that is the only role they are playing, the school must do everything else.*" They do not involve themselves in some of the other parental responsibilities that are required

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to support learners learning. This attitude, though understandable, seriously retards learner progress.

When learners fail to cope with their studies they drop out of school becoming a liability to both the parents and the community. The parent then struggles even more to support the dropped out learner and quite often the learner gets involved in crime. According to one teacher: "... *some of the learners end up being drop outs – that's how crime rate affects the community – drop outs and become 'skollies' /hooligans. That is the result of poverty.*"

Teachers stated that poverty affects learners emotionally. If learners come from poor families they find themselves socialising with more well-off learners; this may cause them to withdraw into their own shell which is going to prevent the learners from realising their full potential. Teachers added that those learners who do not have shoes or proper uniforms often tend not to come to school because they fear being mocked by other learners. All participants agreed that: "*… poverty promoted absenteeism*", which retarded learner achievement.

One teacher was concerned that parents were spoiling their children by giving them money to come to school when they actually should be providing them with lunch boxes. When parents do not have money to give learners they are then reluctant to come to school, thus resulting in the loss of tuition and consequent inability to achieve according to their age.

The participants in the teacher focus group were then asked to suggest ways in which the school can assist learners affected by poverty. These responses were presented with the results of the questionnaire in the previous section.

In the questionnaire, I specifically asked teachers to share their understanding of the causes, transmission, treatment and prevention of HIV and AIDS. However, in the focus group interview I asked teachers to share some of their views and experiences of HIV and AIDS. Teachers shared a wealth of experiences that indicated the extent to which each participant had been exposed to the effects of

HIV and AIDS. Teacher responses showed a deep concern and frustration at the lack of seriousness and the apparently careless attitude that was displayed by both young and old towards the disease. Their frustration has given rise to despair in some cases. A participant articulated this despair when she said:

> *To see the rate of teenage pregnancy! Are these learners being taught how dangerous it is to do unprotected sex? They know but they are taking risks. Everywhere you go, people are talking condoms, you know, but people are still so careless. I really don't know exactly what we must do or what language we must speak so that people understand the danger of this whole thing.*

The apparent carelessness towards the disease was not fully understood by most of the participants because they felt that there were many excellent awareness campaigns that delivered high quality education to the public, yet there were more and more people that were being infected.

The impact of the disease on poverty and the impact of poverty on the disease were brought into sharp focus by participants. The disease was affecting single parent households and extended families to such an extent that whole communities were being affected. One teacher's analysis is as follows:

> *… e.g. Single parent with school going children – bread winner of extended family, if she gets AIDS and dies then the source of income for a number of people has suddenly dried up. The growth and development of the children is affected and the extended family find themselves in a desperate and untenable situation.*

Families and communities were suddenly being cast into poverty due to the infection of breadwinners.

Poverty was also cited as the reason for the spread of the disease. Many young girls were resorting to prostitution because they did not have any other source of income. In most cases these girls have to bear the risk of unprotected sex resulting in infection. The following remark by a teacher captures the vicious cycle that is created by poverty: "*This impacts on everything, if one does not have anything to*

eat or any hope in life, what is she going to do? Take risks, which makes the problem even worse."

Poverty exacerbates the spread of the disease in another way: families living in small shacks share very small living areas. Children are visually exposed to the sexual practices of parents and they themselves begin to experiment very early with sex. The result is infection. The abuse of alcohol is also a very significant factor in accelerating poverty and HIV infection.

The extent of the pandemic is not fully comprehended by the policy makers because they have not implemented sustainable policies that are making any difference. Two teachers felt very strongly that the government response has been very ineffective mainly because it was poorly coordinated and therefore disintegrated. The Department of Education also sustained criticism for its role. According to a teacher the Department of Education develops policies that must be implemented at schools, yet there are no monitoring or follow-up programmes to ensure that schools were following the right procedures. She elaborates as follows:
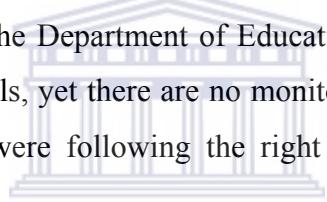
> *The Department goes on the media and says that it is serious about this disease but if you look at the implementation of what they have said then there are no follow up programmes. Nobody comes to school to evaluate what we are exactly doing in our schools. As a result, we in our schools do have learners who are infected, but we as teachers don't know how to deal with those learners because we are not fully equipped; We don't have the skills.*

The government's involvement has been questioned from the very beginning of its tenure in 1994. A teacher queried the role of the new government in HIV and AIDS. The teacher claims that there was no knowledge of HIV prior to 1994 even though people had no exposure to the use of condoms:

> *Where was HIV then? You know, I think there is a question mark. If HIV and AIDS was there before 1990-1994, I think then even myself, I should be infected. There was no condom in those days,*

we knew nothing of condoms. Where was HIV in those years? [Laughing]

Another participant stated that it was the present government that had brought awareness of HIV and AIDS to the level it is now, therefore this government should be commended. This debate, that appeared to be humorous, does have implications for the government. If such thoughts can be articulated by a teacher then it is possible that poorer and less educated people may have similar but stronger beliefs because they were not exposed to the facts.

Notwithstanding the government's efforts in increasing awareness of HIV and AIDS, there was still a lack of knowledge of the disease because HIV positive people were still being discriminated against. Participants then debated whether the current state of infection and behaviour was as a result of a poor attitude to the disease or ignorance. Denial of the existence of the disease and irresponsibility were also cited as underlying factors contributing to the spread of the disease. The refusal to use condoms was a powerful indicator of the attitudes people had. Attitudes determined behaviour. The perplexing question for teachers was:

How do we change the attitudes of people ... because if you say that the problem here is not education but attitude ... how do we change the attitude of people so that they don't only know but also implement the strategies that shall prevent them from getting infected?

According to teachers the process of changing attitudes was a complex one that defied current methods. People were tired of being lectured to or advised and there were many variables affecting attitudes and behaviour. Changing attitudes required a new set of methods.

Another teacher raised another dimension of the disease when she spoke of the possibility of being innocently infected by one's spouse or long term partner. This is a very emotional circumstance as it creates the opportunity to blame someone else. However, it was felt that couples need to support each other and families must cooperate for the benefit of the children involved. These circumstances,

though tragic, must be embraced because HIV was not a death sentence. It must be used as a rallying point for families.

The mood of the majority of the participants of the focus group interview seems to contradict the great optimism that was expressed by the entire staff in the questionnaire. The mood of despair is borne out of the apparent lack of responsibility, denial and negative attitude that is displayed by people as observed by one participant as follows:

> *I really don't know what people are doing. There is a lot of awareness campaigns yet the way in which people are conducting themselves it seems that people do not care even if they know that the disease kills.*

In the next question my intention was to test the legitimacy of my assertion that diligent execution of our core functions would assist towards providing the community support to cope with HIV and AIDS. The majority of participants did see some link between diligent execution of our core function and the provision of support to the learners and community but were unable to articulate the relationship. They focused on the HIV and AIDS related activities (care and support) that the school performed.

On further explanation of the question, teachers then articulated the value of doing our basic teaching and learning functions well. This is the view of a teacher:

> *As the result of the learners being able to read and write they will be able to pass on information to the rest of community especially to those who are illiterate. Because they can read they can access information and transmit it to people who are illiterate.*

Learners had to be literate to gather as much information as possible about the disease and use it for their own benefit and to pass on the information to others thus further increasing the value of general literacy. The special skills, knowledge, attitude and values taught in Life Skills and Life Orientation lessons will equip learners to protect, care and support themselves and their families.

Teaching to develop learners as future parents was seen to be a very good investment for the country as this will raise the quality of citizens, thus retarding the growth of the disease.

The final question posed to teachers in the focus group interview inquired about the ways in which the school can support those (learners, teachers and parents/community) affected by HIV and AIDS. The purpose was to identify practical means of providing support to the school community affected by HIV and AIDS. Teachers were well aware of the challenges faced by the community. The issue of accessing the social grant was still a very important strategy in the struggle against HIV and AIDS. Therefore teachers saw the school's role as in being able to facilitate the applications for birth certificates, identity documents and the social grant.

Developing a sense of volunteerism was seen to be an initiative that has a great deal of potential to support the community. One teacher commented as follows:
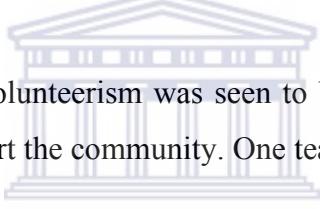
> *I think that school can play a big role by teaching a sense of volunteering among our children because our children are a resource that can be used effectively in our community. Our children, if they are taught and have a sense of volunteering can help people who are HIV positive and who do not have people to help them. They can do a lot of work in the community that will have a big impact.*

The school has to recruit learners and facilitate special training for them. Also special projects aimed at supporting the community must be initiated. A proper framework of support including an efficient system of procedures must give direction to this worthy initiative. NGOs should be enlisted to help in the training of the learners.

The school could become an Information and Support Centre (ISC) that renders support to all who need it. A teacher commented as follows: "… b*y making our school an Information and Support Centre. I don't know exactly the term … but*

the community must know that if they are having a problem with HIV they can come to school..."

Other teachers also supported the formation of the ISC and made the following suggestions in respect of its operations: The community must be informed that the school is an ISC and will be able to provide information and support for those who need it. The ISC must be a structure within the school that provides the following types of support: provides access to social workers, refers learners and parents to support groups, provides information, refers learners and parents for counselling and provides learners with their basic needs.

Teacher enthusiasm for the ISC can be gauged by the creative suggestions that were made to use the ISC as a central support structure for the community. The school has to network with all the service providers so that these services are accessed by the school community at the school. All information for the community can be stored in a special room designated for the ISC. The room can be staffed by members from the community who can volunteer their services.

Teachers suggested that it was imperative that staff know everything there is to know about the disease because the school will be the initial contact to the community. Parent disclosure of the disease can be facilitated in a much more conducive and private environment like the ISC room. Disclosure is a critical facet of support and it has to be handled very sensitively. A teacher reinforced the value of confidence in disclosure as follows:

> *Once our school becomes a centre of information, then they will know that we are serious about this disease ... further they will know that we are not careless with this information. It will give confidence to parents to disclose.*

According to teachers, community support structures can be invited to make presentations to the community and they could leave their pamphlets and contact details in the ISC room. Essentially all education, care and support initiatives for the entire school community can emanate from the ISC. The concept of the ISC

has much potential for the development of meaningful education, care and support for members of the school community.

Teachers have made very constructive and pertinent suggestions on the support the school can render to the community. It appears to be an initiative that attracts very minimal costs yet it promises great benefits to its clients.

4.2.4 Principals' opinions

The principals were the only 'outsiders' from my school that were consulted. Their purpose was, firstly, to provide opinion that did not emanate from my school; secondly, to obtain thinking on the issues from a level that approximated my experiences; and thirdly, to provide opinion that reflected their vast collective experiences from an environment that I was relatively new to.
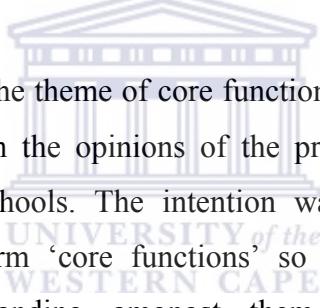
At the outset, I pursued the theme of core functions as I have done with the other groups so as to establish the opinions of the principals in respect of the core functions of primary schools. The intention was to establish the principals' understanding of the term 'core functions' so as to gauge whether there is congruence of understanding amongst them. The term 'congruence of understanding' assumes that all principals interpret the school-related policies of the National and Provincial Education Departments uniformly.

Clearly all principals were on the same plane with regard to their understanding of the term core functions. In the words of one principal:

> *Teaching, teaching the curriculum, that is the core function of a school*
> *As the word says, primary, so that is the basic education that has to*
> *be offered, literacy and numeracy; I think those are the core things.*

Teaching of the curriculum, more specifically basic literacy and numeracy, is the expectation from primary schools. Other principals noted that whilst the curriculum was prescribed by the state, the local context had to be taken into account when schools drew up their teaching plans. The norms and values of the

community have to be factored in. At the same time it was incumbent on the school to rectify any attitudinal and behavioural characteristics amongst learners that were not socially acceptable.

A principal posited the concept of the 3 Cs as follows:

> *Firstly let me start by saying, primary education basically has to address 3 areas: 3 skills, writing, reading and arithmetic (3Rs) but in addition there is also something called the 3Cs … which means in the process we need to develop confidence, that the kids have courage and in the end, because we are preparing them to serve their community – citizenship…*

The holistic nature of education was also emphasised:

> *… one of the things I believe in, is that our education needs to be holistic, it shouldn't only be intellectual development and I feel the new curriculum does in a way take that into account, that it is not just intellectual development, we are concerned about; we are also concerned about physical, cultural, social aspects …*

Principals agreed that the vision of the school is affected by all the above stated factors and must therefore reflect these as the core functions of the school.

Having established that there was 'a congruence of understanding' among these principals, it was important to find out how principals went about conscientising all involved in the school about the school's core functions. There was a belief that consistent reference to and revisiting the vision and mission statements was imperative to maintaining awareness of the school's core functions. The development and implementation of policies in support of the vision and mission facilitated understanding and maintenance of this awareness.

Another avenue of conscientising is through the activities of the school. One principal articulated the following: "*Also the activities that the school presents, so*

that activities will conscientise the school community about what the school is actually all about ... the teaching is about."

The following is a summary of principals' views on the mode of conscientising the community. The entire school community will become aware through exhibitions, all forms of communication and the media that the school uses. Meetings with parents and special parent education sessions will also prove useful as they provide an opportunity for feedback which is vital to indicate where the school is going. People will become aware of what is supposed to be achieved and what is achievable.

The conscientising process has to be directed at the teachers as well. A principal felt that teachers, though they are in the school, have to be actively engaged through constant capacitating and motivation.

In the next question to principals I asked them to share their opinions, knowledge, experiences on the way HIV and AIDS are affecting our community. The reason was to gain first hand from principals the impact of HIV and AIDS on their school communities. The question aimed to tap into the collective knowledge reservoir of the principals to expand my own knowledge, skill, attitude and values base.

Some principals believed that HIV and AIDS impact on the vision of the school because they affect teaching and learning. However, this is happeneing unobtrusively at this stage mainly because parents and learners are very reluctant to disclose their HIV status. The community is still very uncomfortable about speaking about HIV. A principal expressed the dilemma faced by principals as follows:

> *... our community is not willing to talk about HIV... they still see it as a taboo... that's another struggle we have as teachers especially at primary school level, since we are mainly teaching young ones, when we teach them sex education, the parents blame us for exposing them to sex at an earlier age... but now as the primary*

school, as we said earlier, we need to teach the children what is wrong in the community so as to correct them …

In the above context the distribution of condoms in a primary school was very problematic to one principal. He refused to distribute them to learners as he did not know how it was going to be interpreted by learners as well as parents. The problem is more deep seated as it starts from the general view of parents that they should not talk to their children about sex or about their sexual behaviour. One respondent speculated that this may be a '*cultural thing*' and as such is contributing to the very high infection rate in the area. At school it was difficult to see learners who are visibly affected because the nutrition programme and free education may be masking the visible effects of the disease.

Notwithstanding the above observations, HIV and AIDS were affecting the community on a very large scale as children were being orphaned, families were being left destitute and communities were being robbed of their leaders. In this context and in the spirit of schools responding to community crises, some schools had initiated awareness programmes but these have been poorly attended. It appears as if the public have been bombarded with information to such an extent that people have adopted a negative and fatalistic attitude to the disease.

Such attitudes are fertile circumstances for unscrupulous people to exploit the situation to make money. One principal remarked:

… and again my major concern again, is that, to some people this whole disease is also a way of making some sort of money. That people are getting all sorts of grants, but those grants does (sic*) not really reach the deserving cases, so the whole thing is being exploited in some circles.*

The availability of grants from the government gives incentive for people to recruit orphans, obtain the grants but they do not provide for the orphans as they are expected to, leaving the orphans emotionally and financially destitute. Consequently, little children have to parent their younger siblings, seriously compromising their own development and their schooling. Learner achievement is

also affected by absenteeism resulting from death of parents or care givers. Children usually have to commute to the Eastern Cape for the funeral and quite often don't return because there is no support.

As intimated at the beginning of this section, one of the purposes of consulting these principals was to obtain information outside of my school so that a good approximation can be made of conditions in our area. Consequently, they were asked to relate how poverty was affecting their schools. Poverty, to a lesser extent than HIV and AIDS, also attracts stigma and discrimination amongst learners. Therefore, learners prefer not to talk about it. Parents, however, are always very vocal about their poverty and often overstate their circumstances.

Learners have to be identified and provided with support from NGOs and the state's nutrition project. This programme has been known to be wasteful and inefficiently administered in some schools. Hence, for optimal efficiency schools must ensure that the programme is run diligently. Learner attendance at school ensures that a poor learner does not starve for the day. As observed by a principal:
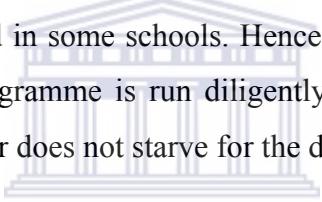
> *… therefore, we need to commend the Department (of Education) and the Social Services because they are doing good. But now what they are doing for the community, for the parents is something else because they (parents) stay at home…without having a job. Therefore, poverty is still evident at home!*

Providing food for the school-going child at school assists the learner significantly; however, it does not solve the problem of poverty in the household as the parents, who are mostly unemployed, undergo great hardship.

Principals revealed their insight into their communities by explaining the effects of poverty as follows:

> *I feel, because of poverty, one doesn't get the kind of parent commitment in school activities, in education as one will find in probably in the white community, because in a poverty stricken environment everybody is struggling to survive, and their priority is*

to get food, and you will find that the child doesn't really get that necessary support from home …

Further, if alcohol and drug abuse is incorporated as it often is in poor communities, then learners have very little hope of achieving anywhere close to what is achieved by their more fortunate colleagues of the same age cohort.

Principals indicated that poverty also forces school-going children to neglect their schooling to supplement the family income-generating effort resulting in poor school achievement. If the learners continue to experience difficulty in their studies under the afore-mentioned conditions then they will most likely drop out of school. Inevitably hunger, desperation and association with unscrupulous people lead some young children to engage in crime.

Single parenthood is another cause for concern and usually it is the mother that is forced to leave her children in the care of other people to earn a living. Learners from these circumstances are mostly poor and often neglected resulting in poor learner performance at school. As explained by a principal:

> *… one can talk about late coming to schools; now that's also due to poverty, because parents leave home very early in the morning and therefore the kids are responsible for waking themselves up to prepare for school, whereas if they were not in this kind of situation, there would have been somebody to look after the kids.*

Little children have to fend for themselves, often missing school.

Poor housing and unhygienic living conditions, according to principals, firstly, impede learner progress because the facilities are not conducive to study (no tables, chairs, lighting, sanitation, overcrowding) and secondly it creates a culture of tolerance for unhealthy and unhygienic conditions that often gets replicated in the school.

A further consequence of poverty is the poor parent's inability to contribute to the development of the schools in the townships. According to one principal:

> *… there are other things the learners need to develop themselves in terms of teaching, playing, extramural activities and all those things, now because of the issue of poverty, you will find that parents are unable to contribute to those things, afterwards you find that our learners are not developed holistically or in totality ...*

Their more affluent counterparts in the suburbs have more disposable income that is made available to the school for its development. Consequently, schools in poor environments like the townships are grossly under-funded resulting in poor facilities and the lack of stimulating extramural activities. The holistic development of the learner is then seriously compromised. Characteristics like creativity, innovation and critical thinking are therefore very poorly developed among poor learners.

Poverty also has a debilitating effect on social value systems. As one principal observed:
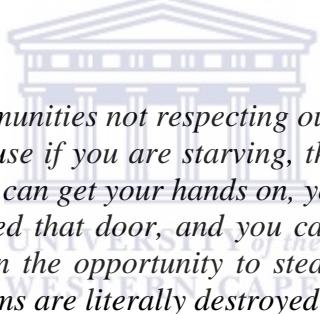
> *Why are our communities not respecting our schools? It's because of poverty. Because if you are starving, then you lose self-dignity and whatever you can get your hands on, you don't say no, this is a school! If you need that door, and you can make money out of it and you are given the opportunity to steal it – why not? So the whole value systems are literally destroyed by poverty.*

Another principal noted that a perverse incentive of the CSG was that it encouraged young girls to have babies to qualify for it as a means out of poverty. This observation was corroborated by another participant who stated that even though high fertility rates existed in poor communities worldwide, the CSG seems to be exacerbating the situation and therefore increased the threat of HIV infection due to unprotected sex.

After establishing the effects of poverty in their schools it became necessary to ask them what can be done about it. The intention is to use the collective experience of the principals to generate a theory to alleviate poverty, since attacking poverty is a significant lever in improving education and fighting HIV and AIDS.

A principal asserted that:

> *The key is job creation! I know that's a major problem and I think one of the problems is, in whose hands is our economy? Because you can talk about job creation, but if you don't have control over those people who have the means to create these jobs – that becomes a major problem.*

However, as a school we have very little opportunity to create wide-scale employment. The Extended Public Works Programme (EPWP) is a creative way of giving poor parents an opportunity for employment. Employment creation is in the hands of government and the business sector; hence the school did not have the means to create large scale employment.

The school, as an institution where knowledge and skills are transferred, has to focus on skills development because there is a critical shortage of skills in our country. Even if there are jobs, but one does not have the necessary skills, there will be no opportunity for employment. Schools have to create every effort to position themselves as developers of skills. If schools are poorly resourced like most schools are, in the townships and the rural areas, there is very little chance for quality skills development.

The development of sport in the township schools is seriously jeopardised by the lack of sporting equipment and facilities. This factor contributes to the poor commitment of teachers to the sporting and cultural development of learners. Learners in the more affluent areas are advantaged by their parents' ability to pay for specialised coaching that is provided at their schools.

A principal suggested that '*discretionary funds*' need to be made available to schools so that services like coaching and other extramural services can be paid for so that the skills gap can be removed. These funds can also be used to pay for the services of a pool of relief teachers who can provide support to schools when their teachers are absent. These initiatives, according to principals, will not only

attack the skills shortage but they will also be able to provide employment in much the same way as the EPWP.

As principals we are not suitably qualified nor do we have the appropriate skills to deal with poverty in our schools. Therefore one principal suggested that:

> *. . . We need all those stakeholders of the government departments to come into school; to be permanent on our site, to see what we are experiencing, then they can take a submission to the Department; to say that this is needed in a specific area...*

In view of the scale of poverty in our schools and all the other conditions under which teaching takes place some principals suggested that the school be given permanent non-teaching support at the school. These officials must be based at the school and be experts in poverty alleviation, social work, health and nutrition. They must support the school in the areas of their expertise.

Principals seemed to confine their response to what was lacking in their schools or to what they expected in terms of support from the state or NGOs. What was lacking in their responses was what they themselves are doing or can do for their schools. This does not imply that they were not doing anything in their schools to support their poor.

In the penultimate question to the principals' focus group, I asked them what link, if any, exists between the successful execution of a school's core functions and the provision of support to learners affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS. This question sought to verify this key assumption that successful execution of the school's core functions will concomitantly provide support to learners affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS. The intention was to interrogate this link, if it existed.

In response, principals, similar to some teachers, either misunderstood the question or did not see any relationship between doing one's core functions well

and the provision of support to learners affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS. The following comment by one principal seems to support the latter view:

> *Our success to me is only with regard to intellectual development, how, over a number of years will that play itself out ... that's another issue, but if we take it at the practical level, is it possible for a teacher to be successful in dealing with poverty and HIV and AIDS? I would say, not at all, and therefore, what we need to do in our school, is to bring in special people who are there all the time, who can provide the necessary support.*

Another principal pointed to the value of accepting the learners and their circumstances at school in a supportive, non-discriminatory and inclusive way that will ensure that these learners will stay at school and complete their schooling. Implicit in this answer was the understanding that the school needs to do everything in its power to ensure that learners are retained at school because such retention at school and the ultimate completion of their schooling fulfils the promise of schooling; where schooling ensures a better future, a future out of poverty and HIV and AIDS.

Principals were finally asked one of the key questions of the study: 'What is our role, as principals, in the struggle against HIV and AIDS?' A principal stated:

> *What is expected of the principal in respect of HIV and AIDS? – there should be a policy document that should guide teachers at the school. It must be familiar to teachers and must be practiced.*

According to the principal, the policy should spell out the functions of HIV committees and their terms of reference. The role of the teacher should also be clarified in this policy; particularly on issues concerning discrimination, confidentiality of information and disclosure. The policy must also guarantee the rights of the infected and the affected. Education of parents has to be undertaken as part of the on-going awareness campaign.

Other principals asserted that the principal must be very alert to the developments in the HIV and AIDS agenda. Knowledge of the different role players, changing

legislation and the NGOs that are working in the sector is crucial to any school leader because these are resources that have to be consulted to facilitate care and support. The principal must also have valid, up to date information on the extent of the epidemic in their community. Statistics, though difficult to obtain, should be collected and maintained to monitor progress.

A critical feature of information and statistics is the availability and accuracy of such data. Most principals agree that it is extremely difficult to get people (parents, learners and staff) to disclose their status early so as to take proactive steps to support them. A principal queried: "... *but at what point will they disclose? Because I take it, that as long as there are no visible signs they will not disclose."*

Principals agreed that disclosure commonly occurred when the symptoms are at an advanced level or when physical signs are present or when work commitments clash with treatment regimens. Another observation by principals was that teachers may manipulate disclosure to facilitate their own comfort, for example, an alcoholic teacher may disclose one's HIV positive status to relieve pressure from the principal due to consistent absenteeism. Principals, therefore, have to be fully aware of the developments around HIV and AIDS not only in their own schools but also in their areas.

Some principals felt that disclosure also needs to be nurtured in an environment of trust and confidentiality especially when discrimination, stigma and ignorance about the disease are still major negative factors hampering treatment, care and support. The formation of support groups for teachers, parents and learners may hold promise of better care and support for each of these groups that the principal has to service.

Encouraging and facilitating the formation of staff and learner support groups is less complicated than initiating support groups for parents because the staff and learners are available within the school and can function under the auspices of the

school. One principal believed that parent support groups initiated by the school may experience problems of legitimacy and may lose support. One principal commented as follows: "*… now when you want to instil that as the principal, then you are going to find that 'Ok, now you want to get into our Community's business'. Principals' input may be viewed with suspicion.*" It is for this reason that two principals of the five interviewed maintained that we should engage the experts in this field to provide this support.

Another view held by principals was that learner support groups can be established through the formation of clubs and activity groups. Learner groups can render good support to the community; however, they must be adequately trained and be led by committed and caring adults. Teachers need to expose learners to the realities of life so that they could apply their learning to real life situations. A principal asserted that:
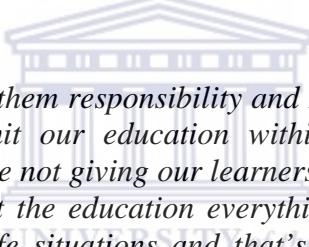
> *We need to teach them responsibility and I think the tendency in our schools is to limit our education within the four walls of our classroom. We are not giving our learners exposure, experience and challenges so that the education everything that they learn can be applied in real life situations and that's how we can re-instil the whole ubuntu culture.*

Another view articulated by a principal was that learners must also be exposed to gardening skills that must enable them to cultivate their own gardens at home so that they may be able to provide food for their families and also to give them opportunities to learn wholesome habits that may keep them off the streets.

As explained in an earlier question, the extracurricular programmes in townships schools are virtually non-existent. A principal concurred:

> *I am concerned about the extracurricular programme that is non-existent in our schools ... If we can engage our learners; re-direct those energies into something constructive … have various groups that will be involved in different activities. If we can do that, I think it will help solve the problems in our communities. Our kids have absolutely nothing to do and they become the victims of the devil.*

Since extracurricular activities are so vital to engage learners in the critical period after school, principals have to utilise creative means to revive these by providing incentives and motivating teachers, without whom it is not possible to implement. The Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) was suggested as a possible incentive for teachers; however, some principals had little faith in this system.

The experienced opinions of these principals have provided a framework against which the views of the other participants can be evaluated.

4.7 CONCLUSION

The result of the research done in close cooperation with learners, parents and teachers in my school not only illuminates the state of affairs of poverty and HIV and AIDS in my community, but also reflects the conditions prevailing in many peri-urban sites around the world. From the responses, I was able to obtain information from the community on their perceptions of the way the school is being led and managed - feedback that is so vital for the development of my school.
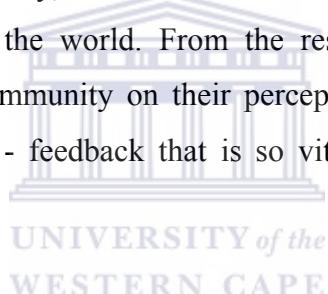
The value of the data from learners is powered by the authenticity of the information. Learners were forthright in condemning circumstances and practices that they felt were hindering their development. At the same time they expressed their gratitude for the basic support that they were entitled to.

Parents tended to be more accepting of their circumstances than their children to a point where they were satisfied with mediocrity. Parents seemed to think that if they were too critical it would indicate that they were ungrateful. Clearly this is a by-product of poverty, namely powerlessness. Notwithstanding their poverty and illiteracy, parents still desired the best for their children.

Teachers were a rich source of data in respect of strategies to address poverty and HIV and AIDS. However, many teachers were not certain of what the core

functions of the school were. Consequently, it was not possible to establish the value of performing the core functions well.

Principals helped to enhance the value of insight into the research. They explored the realities of school leadership in the contexts of poverty and HIV and AIDS.

In the next chapter I use the insights gained from the data to analyse the data for the development of a practical strategy that will guide principals on their role to support their school communities affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS.

CHAPTER FIVE

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

5.1   INTRODUCTION

The research groups (parents, learners, teachers and principals) were rigorously challenged around three critical issues: the core functions of a primary school, the extent of poverty and the school's role to address it and finally, HIV and AIDS and the possible support that can be offered by the school. These three issues were preconceived because the research questions were seeking to find out the perspectives of the respondents on the role of the principal under conditions of poverty and HIV and AIDS. GT, in the tradition of Strauss and Corbin (1990), permits the use of preconceived categories for analysis.

Initially it is necessary to discuss the theoretical foundations for analysis so that a clear understanding can be gained of the method of analysis that was implemented. Such an understanding will give insight into the nature of the theory that was constructed. Thereafter the analysis commences with a critical examination of the respondents' impressions on the core functions of the school and teaching and facilitating learning as the core activity in a school. Since all activity is directed towards learner development, learners' needs as indicated by their school plant expectations and their current difficulties are given consideration.

In the next section respondents' perceptions on the needs of the poor are interrogated and their opinions on how the poor could be assisted are evaluated. The respondents' knowledge of HIV and AIDS and the manner in which the pandemic is affecting the community form the next focus of attention. Thereafter, some of the options for support available to principals in respect of HIV and AIDS are explored. The value of research as an essential aid to principals is then

posited. The chapter concludes with a summary of the three basic roles of a principal.

5.2 THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS FOR ANALYSIS

The GT tradition of analysis was implemented to construct the theory in this study. As was stated in Chapter Three, paragraph 3.7, GT analysis is informed by three main branches that were propounded by Glaser and Strauss (1967), Strauss and Corbin (1990) and Charmaz (2006). This analysis was guided by the structured technique of Strauss and Corbin (1990) and the constructivism of Charmaz (2006). Charmaz (2006:10) maintains that theory does not emerge from the data separately from the scientific observer. She believes that:

> *… we are part of the world we study and the data we collect. We construct our grounded theories through our past and present involvements and interactions with people, perspectives and research practices.*

The data was coded using the open coding technique that involves the breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualising and categorising of the data (Strauss and Corbin, 1990:61). Two analytical procedures are basic to coding: making comparisons and asking questions. These procedures help to give the concepts their precision and specificity (Strauss and Corbin, 1990: 62).

As I became more familiar with the codes I raised certain codes to become conceptual categories (Charmaz, 2006:12). Thereafter through the process of writing and sorting memos on the conceptual categories I was able to construct GT utilising my experiences as suggested by Charmaz in the quotation above.

Theory has two elements: Firstly, positivist theory that seeks causes leans towards deterministic explanations and emphasises generality and universality. Secondly, interpretive theory "*… assumes emergent, multiple realities; indeterminacy; facts and values as linked; truth as provisional and social life as processual*" (Charmaz, 2006:126). These two elements of theory emanate from the paradigms

of research and the approaches to research since positivist theory has its roots in the positivist paradigm that encompasses quantitative research. Interpretivist theory clearly has its foundations in the non-positivist paradigm that envelops qualitative research. Further, positivist theory seems to assume that all phenomena can be neatly compartmentalised into measurable facts and figures. Interpretive theory recognises the complexities of the social world by giving recognition to the potential for divergence.

It is essential at this stage to clarify that the theory in this study was constructed in the interpretive tradition. According to Charmaz (2006:135), theorising implies stopping, pondering and rethinking anew. It involves looking at studied life from many vantage points, making comparisons, following leads and building on ideas. Hence theorising relates to seeing possibilities, establishing connections and asking questions.

In concluding this section, I want to raise two significant points that affect the presentation of these analyses. Firstly, the GT analysis encourages a very flexible approach to constructing theory (as evidenced in the previous two paragraphs). Therefore the analysis has the potential to be reflected in multiple realities. This implies that there will be reduced scope for triangulation with evidence from the literature. Secondly, the dearth in studies linking school leadership to HIV and AIDS further constrains the availability of supporting evidence. Notwithstanding these two constraints, the analysis is still given the requisite rigour.

5.3 CORE FUNCTIONS OF A SCHOOL

5.3.1 Prioritising the core functions of the school

As the principal of a primary school, I am preoccupied with the concern of whether we as a school are doing what is expected of us. In other words, principals are interested in establishing whether the school is executing its core functions according to the expectations of learners, parents and the state. In

pursuance of this objective it is important to establish a common understanding of the school's core functions from learners, parents and teachers. The state's expectations are embodied in the Critical and Development Outcomes and are given expression in the learning Area Policy Statements that are all contained in the National Curriculum Statement (NCS). The two perspectives will have to be integrated and made into a cohesive school programme.

The results of the first endeavour, establishing a common understanding of a school's core functions from the school community, as presented in the previous chapter, indicate the following. Firstly, learners reveal that poverty influences their expectations by virtue of their underdeveloped knowledge and experiences (as discussed in a later section). Secondly, all groups are in some agreement with what must be done in schools, however only principals seemed to emphasise teaching the curriculum as the main core function. Principals are supported in this belief by Kruger (2003:206), who maintains that teaching and learning are the core activities of the school.

Parents saw the school as an institution that must support them in bringing up their children. This expectation is borne out of the parents' inability or struggle to provide for their children. So the school needs to provide goods (food, clothes, money, books) and services (education, safety, health, life skills, values, character). Teachers too, seemed to concentrate on the more peripheral functions (learner support, teacher development, parent support, security). The motive for this emphasis is unclear; however a possibility may be that the term core functions may have not been adequately understood. The other possibility is that some teachers are really unaware of the core functions of a school; this situation, if accurately diagnosed, should be targeted by principals for remediation. The core functions give direction and purpose, thereby paving the way for better execution of duties.

Parents, though poor, have the right to expect the best for their children. Sometimes middle class beliefs (those of teachers and principals) could

undermine poor parents' aspirations for their children. Parents may be made to feel that they should be content with their circumstances and not expect upward mobility for their children because their poverty will restrict their children's development. Therefore, there wasn't an intense call from parents for schools to drastically improve the quality of teaching and learning. Smit and Liebenberg (2003:2) explain the apathy of poor parents as being a function of parental belief that schools themselves pose barriers to the involvement of poor parents in the education of their children. The reason is that poor parents experience school staff to be out of touch with the realities of living in sub-economic circumstances.

Many poor parents appeared to accept current low levels of teaching and learning. The reluctance of parents to be critical about performance of our core functions may be born out of the parents' preoccupation with an inferiority complex that compels them to be accepting of mediocrity. There is the alternate possibility that due to their own poor schooling or non-existent schooling experiences parents do not have a good understanding of what good quality teaching and learning is about.

In contrast to the parents' and teachers' views, principals adopt a seemingly one-dimensional approach (emphasis on teaching and learning) to the core functions of a school. This approach may be self-defeating for the school because it could devalue the importance of the other supportive, developmental and service oriented functions played by the school. These functions should, of necessity, be complementary to the teaching and learning process.

It is useful, however, to ask why principals have laid such emphasis on teaching and learning as the main core function? Could it be that they are responding to the situation in the schools in our area, where the quality of teaching and learning has been questioned (WCED, 2006) following the low achievements of grade 3 and grade 6 learners in the Systemic Evaluation conducted by the WCED.

Principals, as the main officers accountable for learner achievement, may feel pressured into concentrating their efforts into the teaching and learning function; however they have to realize that the supportive, developmental and service oriented functions of the school are crucial for the delivery of improved teaching and learning in the classroom. Nutrition, health, safety, character development, life skills, sport and culture contribute to better teaching and learning.

Teachers and principals agree that parents and staff must be conscientised about the core functions of the school. Parents need to be made aware of the scope of activities of the school so that they know what is achievable and moreover they also need to know their own roles in the execution of the school's core functions. In poor schools, school principals carry the additional burden of capacitating the SGB on how they are expected to perform their governance functions.

In many cases, particularly in disadvantaged areas, SGBs neglect their governance role and often it is convenient for principals to continue executing management and governance functions, a practice that undermines the development role of the principal. Capacity constraints among parents frequently fuel this practice. This view is corroborated by Heystek (2004:3) who contends that the competency and literacy levels of parent members of the SGB may place restrictions on the working of the SGB; however mutual trust and ethical behaviour can contribute to minimizing such restrictions.

5.3.2 Teaching and facilitating learning as the main core function

Having established the main function of a school as teaching and facilitating learning and after agreeing that the supportive, developmental and service oriented functions of a school are necessary to support the main function of teaching and learning, it becomes imperative to assess the value placed by the adult respondents on its efficacy. The reason is that if one knows that an action is effective one will endeavour to perform at the optimum level of efficiency to produce the highest benefit.

A few teachers and principals recognized the importance of literacy in providing learners with the opportunities to gain information, which is vital in all human endeavours, especially to alleviate poverty and limit the spread of HIV and AIDS. Information can be used for the learners' own consumption or it can be transmitted to those that are illiterate. The acquisition of information has multiplier effects both for the individual and the community, but more importantly the effects are sustained over time, generating more benefit.

If a learner gains valuable insights, skills, values and attitudes now, then it augurs well for the future because this learner ought to become an exemplary parent and a worthy citizen generating a stream of benefits throughout life. Basic literacy facilitates the acquisition of life skills that are invaluable for social interaction and health.

The foregoing analysis and interpretation on the value of the teaching and learning system is given force and effect by the World Bank (2002) and Coombe and Kelly (2001:9-12). Primary school learners between 5 and 14 years are said to be in the "window of hope" because they are least likely to be infected with HIV and AIDS (Kelly, 2000a, and World Bank, 2002:5). Education exerts a protective influence over these learners. The health skills and HIV and AIDS education provided at school together with the process of becoming more educated contributes to this protective influence (Coombe and Kelly, 2001:9). Education seems to be playing the same role on HIV and AIDS as it does on poverty reduction and improved health.

Coombe and Kelly (2001:9-10) maintain that the value of basic literacy and numeracy and the introduction to a learning culture seem to be key ingredients. Education's value in and of itself is the most significant factor (Coombe and Kelly, 2001:9). This implies that if a school concentrates solely on its main core function and achieves the desired outcomes then it will be concurrently providing protection for its learners against poverty and HIV and AIDS.

I was very concerned that principals at that time were less aware of the value of focusing on the main core function of the school, particularly when one principal was convinced that it was not possible for the school to affect learners positively in respect of poverty and HIV and AIDS. Consequently, on giving further explanation on the main core function, principals then posited that while they agreed that successful execution of the main core function did promote better support to learners affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS, they strongly maintained that poverty and HIV and AIDS was hampering the effective and efficient execution of the core functions.

Teachers noted the value of effective curriculum delivery and the development of the appropriate attitude as the critical means in which they as teachers could improve in the execution of their core functions. Teachers placed great emphasis on the need to develop themselves so that they could be better equipped to deliver the curriculum. This view of teachers is amplified by the Mckinsey Report, (Barber and Mourshed, 2007:29), which asserts that the only way to improve learning outcomes is to improve instruction. Favourable interventions to improve instruction are coaching classroom practice, moving teacher training to the classroom and facilitating cooperative learning among teachers.

The focus on attitude as a critical means of improving in our core functions also indicates that some teachers are aware of the unsatisfactory level of commitment that exists among some teachers. This recognition indicates that these teachers are willing to be critical teachers and are not going to allow themselves to be co-opted into supporting teachers who are reneging on their duties. These critical teachers experience "rage" at the unjust educational experiences of the poor and marginalised learners (Williams, et al 1999). This critique of the situation must lead to the development of "viable alternatives" (Wright, 2007:1-11). Thus it is not only about recognising the inadequacies in our practice, but it is also about establishing how we as critical teachers are going to undertake this journey of transformation within ourselves, our classrooms and our schools.

As previously stated parents did emphasise the supportive, developmental and service oriented core functions; however, they also viewed teaching and learning as pivotal to learners' development. Teachers' skills must be consistently upgraded so that they are capable of developing learners of different abilities, interests and temperaments. Parents recognised the valuable position of teachers in the education of their children and wanted the best support and encouragement for them.

Teacher perceptions of parental support for teachers are coloured by the negative sentiment that exists among parents towards teachers, particularly in the affluent areas. In poor areas parents are very grateful for the roles played by teachers in the lives of their children. It is a moot point whether most teachers really appreciate this positive endorsement of their roles by poor parents by firstly reciprocating the respect and esteem accorded to them and secondly by responding to parental acclaim by diligently producing a high quality of service.

5.4 ADDRESSING LEARNER NEEDS

5.4.1 Satisfying learners' school plant requirements and expectations

The school, being in the midst of informal settlements, experiences various forms of abuse; gross as well as subtle abuse resulting in unhealthy practices in and around it, thereby raising the ire of children who expect a school to be free of influences of the area. Violence and bad behaviour are by products of the location of the school. Learners see the school as a place of safety, a sanctuary; hence they want it to be aesthetically attractive, clean, safe and inviting.

Learners are observant of the minute details that undermine this place of sanctuary. They are also aware of the many positive things in a school – that would be taken for granted in an affluent school. Mundane items like "wheel-bins", new classroom cupboards and a well-kept garden are signs of hope and order, things that are missing in the home environment.

Poor learners, disempowered by the limiting potential of poverty, have low levels of expectation of their idyllic school. A swimming pool, a library, or a bus are low in expectation as opposed to lap tops, high tech computer equipment or top notch canteen facilities that are commonplace in affluent schools. Poor learners, challenged by their limited experience, lack the imagination or knowledge to yearn for these luxuries. These low expectations are consolidated both by parents and teachers who seem to underrate the potential of the learners to rise above adversity, thus compelling learners to accept poor quality and thereby perpetuating mediocrity.

The generational difference in school plant expectations were perceivable through parents' almost complete inability to focus on this important facet of schooling. Even though parents were not directly consulted on the issue, the value placed on the quality of the school plant was seriously lacking. This may stem from the extremely poor schooling conditions faced by the parents during their school days.

Their current dismal living conditions are no inspiration for them to work for, or yearn for or expect the highest standard in safety, health, hygiene or teaching. Littering and poor sanitation, for instance, were initially generated by the poor services that were rendered to townships by municipalities; however, this situation is now endemic to township life due to the fact that people have internalised this as a way of life. This phenomenon permeates the psyche of many people affected by poverty.

In appreciating the support and protection of the principal and staff, learners have indicated the value they place on these forms of care emanating from school leaders and staff. Though these forms of care are essential components of a school's service to its learners, learners have made a point of highlighting them because of the limited extent to which they receive support and protection from within their communities. This seems to indicate that neglect and abuse may be more prevalent than expected.

5.4.2 Addressing learners' current difficulties

Violence from all of their immediate caregivers (parents, siblings and teachers) appears to be of most concern to learners. The inability of these caregivers to find and implement alternative forms of discipline is highly frustrating for most learners. The added despair results from a perception of a lack of care and support from all the potential caregivers. Learner insecurity is exacerbated through poor parental relationships, divorce, the abuse of alcohol and deprivation.

Insecurity is heightened by family morbidity and the learners own state of well-being. The loss of parents, siblings and having to assume the role of caregivers themselves become overwhelming for learners. This reflects on learner performance and attainment at school. The shouldering of such responsibility is an unfair burden on children in primary schools. This insecurity and family burden is compounded by poverty, the spectre of which hovers over and soon engulfs the family.

The effects of poverty manifest in the lack of basic needs - food, shelter, clothing, sanitation – and they seriously affect the emotional development of the learner. Deprivation spawns behavioural problems that often render some learners incapable of recovery. This assertion is supported by Van den Bergh (2008:168) who cites her study in Tanzania where learners from poor economic and social backgrounds described the behaviour of their colleagues who smoked cannabis, drank alcohol, and engaged in theft and prostitution, as "*problematic behaviours.*"

The inability to have their basic needs satisfied at home extends to the school where many learners struggle without basic school requirements. Since poor schools are often inadequately funded, learning without basic school needs in the form of transport, pens, pencils, crayons, scissors, coloured pencils, books, and pritt becomes a significant handicap.

The school as social institution exposes learners to the differences in society. Learners, very quickly, are able to fit themselves into a social hierarchy based on the ability to afford the basic school requirements, including school uniforms every year, excursions and lunch boxes. This stratification, if not adequately addressed by the teacher, can be debilitating to the learner and may in some cases motivate learners to adopt anti-social habits like pilfering, cheating and more serious disobedience.

Crime then becomes an expected activity to which some learners graduate. Consequently township life is fraught with danger from pickpockets, armed robbery, unregulated traffic, poor physical environment and general abuse. Insecurity and fear in the home are translated to the social and physical environment. Learners are placed under immense pressure by all facets of township life.

Woolley, Grogan-Kaylor, Gilster, Karb, Gant, Reischl and Alamo (2008:142-143) confirm from their study of the effects of physical conditions of neighbourhoods on the school achievement of primary school learners that poor conditions in the neighbourhoods are associated with decreased school achievement of primary school learners in mathematics and reading. Furthermore, they maintain that efforts to upgrade the local physical environment and encouraging greater local adult interaction with learners can facilitate better learner achievement.

Academic achievement or even extracurricular achievement becomes a distant expectation. Learners want to succeed, but don't know how. They experience difficulty with languages and numeracy and many learners have barriers to learning that can only be addressed by specialist teachers. Poor schools have to share this precious resource with one another. Schools have no additional funding to provide extracurricular coaching, a practice that is a norm in more affluent schools.

In this context, how does a child develop normally? The parents, the school, the Department of Education and society expect learners to perform as close as possible to their potential! Is this in any way achievable? Parents and learners look to the school to provide succour in these contexts. The nurturing role of the school is now extended to providing a secure environment not only for learning but also for the general protection of the learners for longer than the school day so that learners are safe until parents come home after work. This is a challenge for poor schools under current legislation and financial constraints.

When parents and learners are under such stress to eke out the most basic living, then they see the school as a safe haven that can solve all their problems. This unrealistic expectation is born out of sheer frustration and hopelessness! A request for decent houses by both learners and parents from the school indicates this utter hopelessness and despair. How does the school begin to address these circumstances that appear to be well out of its sphere of influence?

Learners have been very perceptive in identifying their developmental needs. Thinking skills, particularly critical thinking skills have been requested by learners so that they will be able to cope with the new NCS curriculum. In addition learners have raised the level in terms of their expectations regarding life skills. Behaviour modification, coping skills and the need for quality teaching have been demanded by learners. Contrary to popular thinking learners still want to be guided by adults.

Poverty compels parents to demand of their children the execution of chores at home. Some learners are forced to do much more than others; caring for siblings, cooking and cleaning are some of the tasks. Learners are exposed through the media to the lifestyle of their more affluent colleagues and their deprivation soon engenders feelings of inequality and inferiority. These feelings were experienced by their parents during the years under apartheid, where people were discriminated against because of their race. The promise of a life free of

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inequality and inferiority after apartheid has not been kept for these learners now discriminated against by being poor.

The language of learning and teaching (LOLT) was raised as a determining issue by some teachers and learners. This is a continuing transformational process from the old apartheid-created education system to the new approach. The WCED has requested all primary schools to review their language policy so that it is in line with the provincial policy that requires mother-tongue instruction for at least the first six years of primary education (WCED, 2002). This will give learners additional time to master their mother-tongue, thus consolidating language skills and abstract concept building. It is envisaged that after grade 6, the learners will be taught in English and the mother-tongue, thus improving attainment in both mother-tongue and English at the end of grade 12.

The language issue has been raised as a justification for poor learner attainment in external assessments at grade 3 and 6. Whilst there is justification for citing this at grade 6 level, it cannot be used to justify poor learner attainment at grade 3 level where learners are taught in their mother-tongue.

5.5 POVERTY AND THE SCHOOL'S ROLE

5.5.1 Learner perceptions of the needs of the poor

Learners have illustrated that they are observant, perceptive and knowledgeable about the needs of the poor. The knowledge in most cases emanates from their own experiences of poverty. The basic human needs are given priority. Learners have not thought about luxuries even though they are exposed to them on radio, television and in the print media. The simple requirements of the poor (food, shelter, clothing, safety, education, employment, health services and transport) have been emphasized.

The provision of these basic needs must be accompanied by protection from violence and abuse and the provision of love, care and support. Learners are

especially aware of the plight of orphans and advise that orphans must be given special assistance. Learners have bought-in to the value of education. They see education as a pathway to an improved standard of living. Self-sufficiency is an important product of education. Bursaries must be made available to the poor to improve their studies. Access to higher education for the poor is through state sponsored bursaries.

Employment for their parents, particularly their mothers, is a pre-requisite for lifting the poor out of poverty. Learners focusing on employment for their mothers have several interpretations. Firstly, fathers are usually absent, single parenthood being very common. Secondly, mothers are too often the breadwinners because fathers may be unemployed or unemployable. Lastly, fathers are more prone to alcohol abuse, criminal activity and desertion.

Learners accepted that the family as a social unit was under pressure and the state had a role to play to integrate families through providing employment, assisting financially through grants and loans and providing good health care and transport.

Learners recognized the pivotal role that parents play in their education by requesting the school to capacitate parents through running workshops to develop the school and educating parents on parenting skills. This request clearly suggests that learners know the importance of the role of parents in their schooling, but parents themselves are either oblivious of their duties or do not have the capacity to execute them.

5.5.2   Teacher perceptions of the impact of poverty

Teachers and principals agree that learners are placed under severe mental and emotional strain on account of their physical deprivations. The lack of the basic needs (food, shelter, clothing and school requirements) therefore impacts directly on their ability to learn. The efforts made by the state and NGOs to feed poor learners are laudable but they are inadequate because firstly, sustenance is

provided for poor learners whilst they are at school, implying that poor learners are in deep distress after school hours. Secondly, due to scarce resources it is not possible to provide for all the deserving learners in a school. Notwithstanding these difficulties the school feeding scheme has been instrumental in improving learner attendance. This observation by teachers has been confirmed by van der Berg (2008), who asserted that learner attendance at school was stimulated by the introduction of the school feeding schemes and the CSG.

Poverty is a significant barrier to learning because hunger and deprivation of school essentials physically restrict the mental process of learning by affecting concentration, behaviour and consequently work output. Learner achievement is severely curtailed. The school endeavours to provide food, clothes, books and other necessities for learning, but poverty prevents the extension of these benefits to the home.

Learning at school is not consolidated in the home for two reasons: firstly, parents understandably prioritise their providing role (provision of food and shelter) and neglect their supportive roles. Secondly, the home in many cases does not have the requisite infrastructure (table, chairs, electricity, books and space) to make it an environment conducive for study and learning. Further many parents, due to their illiteracy and their own inadequate educational achievement, do not see the value of education and this attitude transfers to their children when they display a poor attitude to school work. Van der Berg and Louw (2007: 5) attest to this analysis when they assert that affluent parents provide their children with a better educational environment not only because they have the resources but because they have a better understanding of its value.

Teachers and principals have drawn attention to the growth in criminality that has been spawned by poverty. Learners experiencing difficulty in learning and achieving very poor results, due to poverty, find themselves isolated and without support at home. Those learners tend to be overage because they may have repeated a few grades. These learners cannot compete with their younger peers

and soon vent out their frustration though anti-social and often violent conduct. Learners then tend to drop out of school and soon become a burden to their families and the community. A poor self-image, the need to survive and the erosion of self-dignity all contribute towards the slide into crime by some learners who choose alternative means to obtain resources for survival.

Poverty determines the quality of education that a poor learner receives. Lupton (2005:589-604), in her study of high poverty disadvantaged schools in England found that the context (high poverty) exerted a negative influence on the quality of education at these schools. Moreover, for an improvement in quality in these schools, the context needs to be changed through policy measures or additional resources must be diverted to these schools in order to improve their organisational capacity to respond to the context.

Parents are too poor to pay school fees. Affluent parents can afford to pay large sums in school fees. This facilitates the acquisition of additional Learning Area teachers, sport coaches, cultural activity facilitators and health services. Affluent parents raise funds for their schools' development. Poor schools continue to be disadvantaged and learners are deprived of innovative learning strategies, critical thinking skills and the development of their creative potential. These characteristics of learners are vital for making them competitive in the labour market; however, the absence of these skills consigns poor learners to the lower end of the labour market, further entrenching them in poverty.

The ability of parents in affluent schools to pay for the hire of additional teachers assists these teachers to acquire teaching loads that are realistic and manageable. Teachers in poor schools have to carry heavy teaching loads and they have to teach more learners resulting in despair, despondency and poor quality of teaching and learning. This accounts for their reluctance to work additional hours or to make sacrifices.

Whilst the provision of food has been found to be effective in attracting learners to school, the emotional consequences of poverty have been undermining the positive effects of food provision. Some learners cannot bear to be mocked and emotionally abused by fellow learners due to being deprived of clothes, shoes or money for school activities. Learners stay away from school, further depriving themselves of education and placing themselves at risk in the township.

Poverty also exacerbates the difficulties experienced by single parents, especially mothers, who have to maintain low paying jobs whilst leaving their children to be cared for by others. These children are often neglected and are at risk of abuse. Single parents without family support are placed under much stress by the effects of poverty and the changing behaviour patterns of learners in the townships.

The CSG was seen by some principals as the catalyst for many young girls to have children. This is a widely held anecdotal view that seems to pervade the educational and social services sectors. Van der Berg (2008) categorically refutes this view by indicating that fertility rates have actually declined rapidly since the introduction of the CSG.
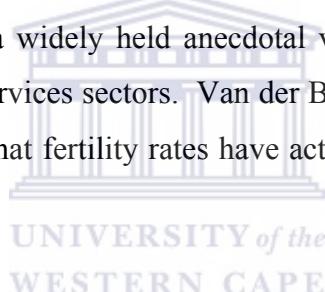
Principals also alluded to the link between poverty and HIV and AIDS. Unprotected sex was the vehicle for increasing HIV infection rates and very high fertility rates in poor communities. The impoverished communities face these risks as they have very few alternatives for entertainment.

5.5.3   Supporting those who are poor

Learners ask for material support in the forms of, for example, food, clothes, money, that will to help them and their families. They want these provisions to take home, where the greatest need exists. This has been recognised by all respondents. Whilst the school receives food for distribution to poor learners at school, this is inadequate to address the needs of all poor learners. Thus the

school has to devise other means to try to help the poor families at home. This is the challenge facing principals who feel they have to respond to this crisis.

There are principals who declare that the challenges of providing support to learners outside school hours are not within the scope of their duties, and there may be support for this standpoint from other principals; however, the fact that this impacts on the core functions of teaching and facilitating learning, does make it the school's responsibility. There appears to be a train of thought that the state needs to provide personnel on a full-time basis at schools to deal with these issues. This is a luxury that can only materialize in the future and current realities demand action from the school now.

Parent illiteracy and inertia in specific government departments demand that parents be assisted with applications for identity documents, birth certificates and grants. Can a school assist in finding parents jobs? This is a distant field of endeavour from a school's core business. No, if we are looking to employ all the unemployed parents in the school. Yes, if we are searching for every possible opportunity to find employment to uplift the standard of living of even one family. It calls for resolute resourcefulness, and being astutely proactive. It is possible to set up an employment advice bureau on the school premises that is administered by volunteers. Is there a way for the school to mediate other useful skills to the community?

Principals and teachers are very much within their rights to be concerned about who will actually administer school employment bureaus or who will mediate entrepreneurial skills to parents or about when all these new "unconventional" roles of the school should be undertaken. Principals and teachers see the teaching and facilitating role of the school as paramount. Personnel and time constraints are realities that constrain us to inaction. A commitment to action, based on the conviction that such action is going to benefit some of the poor, is a strong motivation even under difficult conditions, and often leads to success.

A few parents and teachers suggested that the school engage in fundraising activities, whose proceeds should be used to support indigent families. There are two issues that have to be borne in mind concerning this strategy: firstly, fundraising activities within the school, place undue burden on poor learners and their parents because learners feel compelled to contribute otherwise they are likely to face emotional abuse from immature colleagues. Secondly, the concept of making cash transfers to poor homes is favoured, but women should be targeted because they are the major caregivers and they spend their money in the best interests of their children (Lund, 2008:51-54). Creative consideration of the first issue is likely to yield greater benefit in the implementation of the latter course of action.

The dearth of skills amongst job seekers and the very high unemployment rates place a responsibility on all schools, including primary schools, to develop skills among learners. For primary schools, this will be a challenge as the main focus is on improving literacy and numeracy skills so that the other general and specific work-related skills can be adequately taught at the post-primary institutions. The challenge is twofold: firstly, because current literacy and numeracy levels in primary schools in poor townships are very low and secondly, trying to develop skills for careers can only be at the general level because learners are still too young to have decided on specific careers.

The teacher focus group interview revealed an aspect of teaching that is seldom spoken about by teachers, namely marginalization of poor learners and favouritism involving more affluent learners. Normally teachers tend to be accused by parents of these insensitive practices; however, in this instance teachers seemed to agree that marginalization of poor learners is actually initiated sometimes by us as teachers. Harvey (1980:279-323) confirms that teachers who teach in low income disadvantaged schools tended to criticize learners more, were more directive and tended to be more interested in control than their counterparts in high income schools. This attitude of teachers in disadvantaged schools, according to Harvey (1980:279), prepared poor learners for failure.

The practice of marginalising poor learners has far reaching consequences for poor learners as it initiates feelings of rejection, a poor self-image and a lack of self-confidence. Giving poor learners respect, fair treatment and the opportunity to be useful in class will engender acceptance, integration and feelings of self-worth. Therefore the positive and supportive attitude of teachers contributes significantly to the "normal" development of poor learners who face abnormal and impoverished circumstances.

There is merit in motivating parents to consider foster parenting. The reasons are twofold: firstly, the obvious benefit to a destitute orphan or vulnerable child (OVC), who will receive parental support and love. Secondly, if the foster parent is also living at the margins in terms of unemployment or illness in the family, the foster care grant (FCG) will provide relief for the entire family and the OVC. This assumes that motives and morality are of the highest order. There have been cases of abuse and neglect of children by foster parents who abuse the system for their own selfish ends.

There is an erroneous perception even amongst educated persons that the solution to unemployment and concomitant poverty is engagement in the informal sector, especially the starting up of small businesses. The fallacious belief is that the informal sector is large enough to accommodate all entrants. The reality is that the majority of entrants enter at the lowest end where costs are high, competition fierce and margins (profits) are very low. There are numerous vendors in the townships who sell meat or fruit on roadside stands, who are under serious pressure to survive. The constant threat of crime and violence further exacerbates the conditions under which they trade. Security and training are critical for sustainable poverty alleviation.

5.6 HIV AND AIDS AND THE SCHOOL'S ROLE

5.6.1 Knowledge of HIV and AIDS

Of the four research groups consulted, parents, learners, teachers and principals, only parents were not probed directly on their knowledge of HIV and AIDS. The reason for this was that the influence of the principal is directed at the learners through the teachers. As the principal, I need to be more aware of the capacity that exists among teachers and learners than parents. Learners' knowledge and attitudes on HIV and AIDS were more encouraging than the knowledge and attitudes of a minority of teachers. Learners' display of knowledge on the nature of the disease, symptoms, disclosure, precautions, sex, treatment, attitudes and advocacy indicates that teachers have been teaching learners the basics. Some teachers' knowledge of HIV is of concern when considering that they are the agents who should develop learners' knowledge, attitude, skills and values.

A further concern was the absence of any indication from teachers of their knowledge that HIV and AIDS in South Africa had a gendered bias. According to Unterhalter (2003:14), African teenage girls were more susceptible to HIV because they were having or coerced to have sex with older men. Teachers also failed to recognise the role of sexual violence in the transmission of HIV. Unterhalter (2003:15) refers to a Rape Crisis report of 2001 that reveals that a rape was happening every 23 seconds in the country. Teacher knowledge of these dimensions of HIV and AIDS and sexual violence is vital for learners.

Whilst the technical details of causes, transmission, treatment and prevention were overlooked by many teachers (approximately 50%, in the response to the questionnaire), all teachers have shown that they have a wealth of experience concerning the social implications of HIV and AIDS. Their frustration and despair at the rate of new infections, teenage pregnancies and unprotected sex negate their apparent ignorance of the technical details of HIV and AIDS. Most teachers are sufficiently alert and emotionally conscious of HIV and AIDS.

Teachers are knowledgeable of how HIV and AIDS and poverty are impacting on each other. They have seen how HIV and AIDS contribute to deepening poverty and how poverty is stimulating new infections through high risk behaviours. These experiences are invaluable in the teaching and learning of the HIV related curriculum.

The concept of being innocently infected or not being responsible for being infected was poignantly raised. These are instances when a married spouse or a partner in a long term relationship is infected innocently by the other spouse or partner being unfaithful. This is a tragic and complicated situation that has serious implications for the family relationships, children and for care and support of either spouses or partners. This manner of transmission is also associated with the other tragic consequence of unprotected sex: AIDS Orphans. These children face the double-barrelled misery of being infected as well as being orphans. School leaders must develop a special responsibility towards orphans.

The Department of Education and the government have not endeared themselves to those infected by HIV and AIDS. Policies are vague and monitoring is inadequate resulting in ineffective service to those in need, particularly children. Government's response is not well integrated; public information is insufficient thus giving institutions like schools an added responsibility to shoulder.

Teachers debated whether the increase in the rate of new infections was caused by a poor attitude or ignorance. Ignorance was eventually ruled out because it assumes that people are unaware of better alternatives. A poor attitude, however, goes beyond knowledge and rests in the individuals' evaluation of risk; perception of the potential to be infected; denial and level of responsibility. There are still young people who don't believe in the existence of the HI virus. The school again is charged with the responsibility of developing the correct attitude towards HIV.

The sphere of influence of the principal was wider than that of teachers and therefore they were consulted on their opinions, knowledge and experiences on

the way HIV and AIDS were affecting the community. Principals were concerned at the unobtrusive manner in which HIV and AIDS were affecting teaching and learning. The critical issue was non-disclosure by parents concerning either their own status or the status of their children.

Whilst discrimination and stigma were contributing factors, social structure, poor parent-child communication and cultural barriers were fuelling infection rates in the area. Inter-generational knowledge transfer, a powerful system of capacitating the younger generation has been severely curtailed mainly because of the sensitivity around sexually transmitted diseases, but also because HIV and AIDS constitute a new disease of which little was known in South Africa prior to 1994.

Whilst HIV and AIDS remain largely invisible in schools the social 'havoc' they are wreaking in the community is highlighted daily. The loss of family and community leaders, the instantaneous plunge into poverty by many families and the destabilisation of the lives of many young children are circumstances difficult to bear. Within this context, there are always a few people who will resort to unsavoury means to enrich themselves. Orphans bear the brunt of being exploited by would-be foster parents who unscrupulously extort government grants for them and even take their inheritances. Learner attendance and learner achievement are drastically affected. Does the school have any role to play in these circumstances?

The poor attendances at school-sponsored parent HIV and AIDS campaigns point to an overdose of information that seems to be de-motivating the community, especially the young adults. There seems to be a negative and fatalistic attitude that is consuming the community. As schools reflect community beliefs and cultures, it then becomes vital for schools to be sensitive and alert to changing these attitudes.

The attitudes of the parents and community may clash with progressive attitudes prevailing in the schools or may be consolidated by attitudes held by school leaders. The distribution of condoms in a primary school may be regarded as a

sensitive issue depending on the prevailing attitudes in the community and the school. Does a principal go ahead and distribute condoms at primary schools knowing that parents will object and accuse the school of encouraging learners to experiment with sex or does the principal refuse distribution knowing that many senior learners are sexually active and are putting themselves at risk by engaging in unprotected sex? Each option is loaded with moral dilemmas that can only be resolved through proactive consultative decision making based on mutual respect and trust between the school and the parent community.

Learner feelings mirror the way the community feels about HIV and AIDS, but learners appear to be more sympathetic and emotional. Teacher or parent imparted attitudes and values appear to have taken root because learners are very accommodating of those infected by HIV and AIDS. Learners displayed a very positive disposition towards sufferers. It is unclear whether learners have internalised teaching clichés or whether they will become intolerant and selfish in the future. These critical attitudinal gains are laudable as they promise a future where discrimination and stigma can be drastically reduced. Sufferers could therefore focus on staying healthy and following their treatment.

5.6.2 Providing support to those affected and infected with HIV and AIDS

Diverse groups usually respond to the same phenomenon according to the way the phenomenon relates to them. HIV and AIDS have affected each of the research groups in different ways. Some learners have experienced the effects first hand; others from a distance and still others have had no contact with the disease. Teachers and parents are about the most experienced with respect to HIV and AIDS. Consequently, emphases vary between groups, thus enriching the schools' potential to deal with the crisis.

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5.6.2.1 Scope of responses

Learners' response reveals an immature though informed point of view that can be direct and callous ("chase them away from school") at times. Parents tend to overrate the schools' potential to be of assistance to them ("give us proper homes"). Teachers and principals provide solution-based comments that tend to underrate their own potential to be more dynamic. Teachers may appear to down-play their own potential because they see their curriculum roles as separate from their "HIV and AIDS roles".

The simple and direct requests for treatment, care and support, education and advocacy and prevention from learners are responses that focus on the clinical issues. Learners see HIV and AIDS making an impact on their world and the only way they can react is to what they see. The impression that I get from their responses is that they are saying: "adults, there is this thing called HIV and AIDS and we don't know too much about it, please can you make it go away, it is hurting us".

5.6.2.2 Teaching methods

Learners have answered as they have been taught; very "factually". There is a tendency among most teachers to teach Life Orientation and Life Skills by using the transmission method of teaching that focuses on the transmission of facts and information only (Booth, 2005: 250-251). It is easier to teach; learners are not given the opportunity to "… interact with their learning of life skills such as assertiveness, decision making and communication skills" (Booth, 2005:250). The information giving method of teaching suits the agenda of those who believe that learning through experience and other interactive methods encourage learners to experiment. However, is it the right approach when no learner includes any ideas about discrimination, stigma or empathy when referring to HIV and AIDS sufferers?

The question was asked by a teacher: *"How do we change the attitude of people so that they don't only know but also implement the strategies that will prevent them from getting infected?"*

If we are going to continue teaching Life Orientation or Life Skills as we have been doing then learners will have all the right answers to tests and questionnaires, but new HIV infection rates will not fall and the scarce resources directed to the HIV and AIDS effort will be wasted.

Clearly, schools have to re-look at the methods used in teaching Life Orientation and Life Skills. The African Development Forum (2000:5) corroborates this assertion of mine when they aver that education programmes must incorporate aspects of sexuality and youth culture that are of vital importance to young people. Carr-Hill, Katabaro, Katahoire, and Oulai (2002:102) maintain that participatory learning and teaching techniques that involve discussion, communication and action are rewarding ways in which to approach HIV and AIDS education.

5.6.2.3 Communication
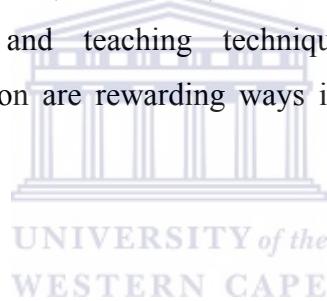
A parent's concern about the lack of communication is expressed as follows:

> *We don't talk about our problems; the support group could help in this regard. Speak about it, people listen, not everyone is shy to talk. Communicate with affected households. How can we fight this together?*

Every community believes that an inability to communicate about HIV and AIDS is peculiar only to their own group; however, as with many other similar assumptions, poor communication among families and homogeneous groups is common to all communities. The challenge is to foster open communication particularly in the context of poverty and HIV and AIDS, where the issues are deeply personal. A fear of ridicule, mockery and insensitivity usually militates against open communication.

As previously alluded to, a few parents seemed to have very simplistic approach to the work of schools. They expected schools to conduct home visits to monitor patient treatment and they expected schools to test learners for HIV. Current legislation precludes schools from even administering pain tablets to learners. Consequently testing learners for HIV with or without parent approval would violate learners' and parents' rights. Parents must be informed of their own rights and responsibilities as well as the legal scope of the schools' functions.

5.6.2.4 Confidentiality

A few parents were sensitive to the immature status of school-going children particularly in respect of the confidential nature of information concerning the HIV status of learners. Most young learners have not yet fully developed the value of appreciating the privacy of another learner's status. A breach of confidentiality would undermine the process of support afforded to infected learners. An unfortunate assumption of this observation by parents was that it also pointed an accusing finger at the principal and the staff. Ineffective operational procedures can lead to the violation of the privacy rights of infected learners. The school needs to have a well-constructed regimen in order to facilitate disclosure.

5.6.2.5 Support groups

Teachers, parents and principals have placed great emphasis on the value of support groups initiated by the school as a structure to assist in the care and support of those infected and affected by HIV and AIDS in the school community. A feature of this importance placed on support groups by all of the adult research groups was that no clear direction was given as to the composition of the support groups. Parents felt it was the schools' responsibility whilst teachers felt that learners and parents should be trained for the purpose.

A few principals believed that it was the responsibility of the Department of Education to provide permanently employed specialists at each school to assist in the care and support of HIV and AIDS-affected people in a school community. This transfer of responsibility from party to party can be very paralyzing to a school's effort in providing care and support. It is evident that all adult parties are in agreement as to what should be done; however, who should do it is still unclear.

As stated in the previous paragraph, all adult research groups were very aware of the kind of support a well-organised support group could render. This reveals that they are in touch with the needs of their own constituency as well as the needs of the entire school community. This specific knowledge, that will inform skills, attitudes and values, has to be used creatively for the support of the community. This gives a school leader an indication of some of the possible components of a support group initiated by a school.

5.6.2.6 Education and advocacy

The school's position in the so called "knowledge industry" places a great responsibility on it to extend the education and advocacy on HIV and AIDS that should have started in the home. All participants recognise this unique feature of the school's role. However when a grade 4 learner says "… *teach us not to sleep around" or a parent says "… make an event on the field and have awareness programmes for parents"*, the magnitude of a school's role is brought into sharp focus.

An HIV and AIDS advertisement seen on a mini bus taxi is the following: "The future ain't what it used to be", gives weight to the assertion that all institutions, especially schools, must re-look at their roles and re-position themselves to meet the challenge that HIV and AIDS present. The Life Orientation and the Life Skills Curriculum (NCS, 2006) explicates the scope of HIV and AIDS education that must be mediated to learners of all ages. The needs of learners, parents and the

community, as revealed by the results of this research, will provide the specific context that must be incorporated into teaching.

In terms of advocacy valuable practical procedures and ideas have emanated from all research groups; however, issues pertaining to human resources and time will impact on the implementation of these laudable initiatives. Many of the suggestions can be implemented by current staff members, but this places an excessive burden on a few willing staff members who have the will and the heart to render additional service which is beyond the call of normal duty and therefore attracts no remuneration. In highly resourced schools that have the funds to employ additional staff (teaching as well as non-teaching staff), these initiatives may be within the job description of specially hired personnel or current staff members who may receive additional remuneration.

The schools in disadvantaged areas like mine are encountering the twin problems of rising HIV infection rates and increasing poverty that drastically reduces parents' ability to pay for specialised support services and therefore consigns the provision of these services to the goodwill of teachers already straining from the challenges of teaching in the townships.

All principals have taken issue at the reluctance of teaching staff to spend more than the required 7 hours at school. This has placed major constraints on the school's ability to reach out to the community. "Incentives" for teachers were considered as a possible stimulant for after-school service.

Most of the principals also saw the role of the principal in terms of initiating and supporting education and advocacy of HIV and AIDS issues. Whilst the process was relatively unhindered within the confines of the school (amongst learners and teachers) it was more challenging when extending it to the parent community. An issue was the possible negative reception from the community, where the principal's genuine efforts may be misconstrued as "meddling" in a domain out of the principal's official jurisdiction.

From the parents' response and from the experience gained in working in the area, the community appears generally to welcome any support that it can get. The status of principals first engenders co-operation and may later attract hostility depending on the perceived motives of the school and the principal. Further, the facilitative role of the parent members of the SGB is most helpful in communicating the noble intentions of the school.

Parents and learners have largely ignored the health of the teachers as a critical factor in the education of their children. Ignorance of the current state of health of teachers may be a cause of this omission. In 2005 Rehle, Shisana, Glencross and Colvin (2005:8) found that 12.79% of teachers in the country were HIV positive, of whom 22% (nearly 10000) needed immediate anti-retroviral treatment. This indicates that the crisis in education is not fully understood by all facets of society. Principals have alluded to the health of teachers but this was not developed from the prevention, care and support dimensions.

Teachers themselves have, to a large extent, also neglected this important issue; however, two teachers cursorily noted that it was important to be well informed about the pandemic and to know one's HIV status. Being well informed is essential for both the teacher's health and for the health and welfare of the learner. Knowing one's HIV status facilitates early intervention and treatment, a process that also benefits learners.

5.6.2.7 Extracurricular activities

As expected, all research groups saw the value of extracurricular activities such as sport and cultural activities. Learners saw the value of extracurricular activities in the simple enjoyment they provided. The adults viewed them as an important preventative strategy that could limit the spread of HIV. Extracurricular activities, particularly after school between 14:00 and 17:00, were crucial to engage learners and steer them away from potential abuse, sexual experimentation and crime. Parents' enthusiasm was not met with the same intensity from teachers, not

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because teachers did not see the potential of extracurricular activities, but because of the factors highlighted in the previous sub-section.

The political role of principals, as identified by Cuban (1988) in Supovitz and Poglinco (2001:3), which involves facilitation and negotiation and building relationships and partnerships will be invaluable in these circumstances to assist schools acquire facilities, equipment and human resources for the provision of more and better quality of extra-curricular activities.

5.6.2.8 Policy

The DoE and the WCED demand that all schools have an HIV and AIDS policy that gives direction to the HIV and AIDS effort in the school and its community. This is a valuable expectation of schools because a well-designed policy is an efficient blueprint for action. A policy also permits action to be carried out according to the laws that govern it. HIV and AIDS, by virtue of their status as a "non-disclosable" disease, attract legal precepts. In other words, the law protects the privacy rights of those infected by HIV and AIDS.

Therefore, every party in the school has rights and responsibilities that must be recognised in a school's HIV and AIDS policy. Issues of confidentiality, access to information, custody, legal status and responsibilities have to be given due regard in any school's HIV and AIDS policy. School principals must also be aware that having good policies does not always guarantee good practice. Good policies must have built-in safeguards to ensure implementation, monitoring, evaluation and review.

5.6.2.9 Voluntarism

Principals and teachers have cited the virtues of developing a sense of voluntarism among learners. Learners who have the interest and the ability need to be identified and given specific training so that they may be able to render service to

households that are struggling under the effects of HIV and AIDS. Learners can provide valuable support services to individuals and households. A voluntary corps of learners will need adults who are suitably motivated, committed and knowledgeable to train and lead learners.

Adult supervisors of learner volunteers have to be very sensitive to the capabilities of learners and they must be aware that any over-exposure to conditions beyond their capacities will be damaging to learners and the future existence of this voluntary corps. Teacher voluntarism will be more effective in households where patients are in the later stages of the disease. This calls for special qualities that will empower other members of the affected family to be capable of providing support for the care and treatment of the affected.

5.6.2.10 Grants and other forms of financial support

Learners, parents and teachers were united in their call for the school to assist in the application for either CSG or the Foster Care Grant (FCG). Great importance was placed on the school's role to facilitate this process. This emphasis seems to indicate that the systems employed by the Department of Social Services are not efficient enough to ensure optimum coverage of those who need it. In addition, there was a strong request for the school to intervene in the application for birth certificates for learners and identity documents for parents. These documents are vital in the application for grants.

Parents have experienced and teachers have witnessed the "trauma" of parents consistently failing to obtain these documents from the Department of Home Affairs due to the lack of supporting documents. Parental carelessness fuelled by illiteracy was also at the root of this problem. The changing structure of the family also impacts on this situation. Unmarried parents, single parenthood, grandparents headed households and migrant learners are issues that are generating problems for the welfare of the young learner.

Thus it is not unexpected that teachers and parents have been so vocal about the school's role in the process. Principals need to establish stronger links with the Department of Social Services and the Department of Home Affairs not only to facilitate the process of acquiring documents and grants but also for monitoring the uses of CSG and FCG, particularly where fraud and abuse may be present.

The plight of neglected children, whose condition could be drastically improved overnight through diligent co-operation of the various parties, is deeply frustrating to teachers. How can the caring school principal focus proactively to strengthen support to poor learners and those infected and affected by HIV and AIDS?

5.6.2.11 Facilitating disclosure amongst teachers and parents

It has been a universal lament by most of the adult respondents that people generally are very resistant to voluntarily disclosing either their state of poverty or their HIV status. This disposition of teachers and parents is not unexpected; however, principals are concerned that without disclosure it would be impossible to render targeted support. Generalised support could be offered based on assumptions, but this could have negative consequences if errors of judgement are made. Parents are more cooperative in disclosing their circumstances than teachers. Parents' need for support could be the main stimulant for disclosure.

Teachers tended to delay disclosure until their health and their treatment regimens began to adversely affect their work schedules. This was normally at the more advanced stages of the disease when symptoms were visible and teachers tended to seek sick leave. Principals often do not have the opportunity to seek counselling for the teacher. The administrative procedures of identifying suitable substitutes, submission of leave documents and orientating new staff often overtakes the more supportive role that the principal needs to play.

Principals have also learnt that some teachers, whether by choice or circumstance, occasionally abuse the system to derive the greatest advantage. Sometimes

teachers may use their HIV status to buffer them against the consequences of inefficiency or anti-social habits. Principals must be aware of the trends and practices that some teachers use to escape responsibility and manipulate the situation for their own advantage. Whilst this may sound insensitive, principals often find themselves in delicate situations where they have to act in ways that must be sensitive to the needs of the infected teacher as well as the educational needs of learners.

Disclosure is a necessary initial step that must be undertaken by affected and infected persons. In the case of poverty, disclosure is more readily forthcoming as the consequences are emotionally lighter to endure than those of HIV and AIDS. Disclosures of most negative conditions or afflictions are generally accompanied by risk; however, principals need to convince parents, learners and teachers of the potential benefits of disclosure. Disclosure is an empowering exercise requiring self-confidence, self-belief and honesty because it is so powerful that it can reinforce all these qualities when it is reciprocated by empathy, information, material and moral support.

5.6.2.12 Using spirituality in the struggle against HIV and AIDS

It is remarkable to note that only one respondent (parent) chose to make spirituality a cornerstone to his plan to improve services to those infected and affected by HIV and AIDS. Prayers, church services and cultural spiritual practices are very popular and widely observed by all sections of the community. Spirituality is not restricted to any economic class. Hence the omission by all but one respondent raises the inevitable question – why?

One possible response is that respondents may have thought that it is 'un-academic' to posit spirituality as a likely solution to social and health problems. There is the perception that spirituality is in the domain of mystery and the supernatural and therefore is unscientific. Notwithstanding this belief, daily billions of people most of them poor and sick, pray for relief and salvation. How

does a school leader respond to a call by a parent to work with the churches and encourage learners to attend church services?

The National Policy on Religion in Education (DoE, 2003) requires that schools do not teach religious education but focus on religion education. This involves the study of all the main religions practiced in the country so that learners have an appreciation of the general teachings, customs and festivals of each of these religions. Religious Education (the teaching of a specific religion for the purpose of ensuring learners adhere to that religion) according to the policy must be provided by the parents and the religious community to which the family belongs. This policy also maintains that schools must ensure that all religions are represented when schools have functions where religious leaders are invited.

In some circles this policy may be interpreted as the Government forcibly ensuring that the school should not be an institution where religion is observed. The aim of the policy, however, is to ensure that no single religion is given the opportunity to have hegemonic influence in the school environment. This objective of the state is interpreted as the state presiding over the forced retreat of organised religion from the schools. Consequently, it is construed that schools as organs of the state must be "sterilized" of all religious influences and practices. This need not be the case especially in schools that are religiously homogeneous.

Maharaj, Habib, Chetty, Favis, Khan, Sithole and Sookrajh (2008:79-114) detail the extent to which the religious community of the country contributes to poverty alleviation and development. They not only illustrate the kind of resources available within the community, but they also indicate the community's disposition towards supporting deserving causes. According to them giving is a phenomenon that is highly prevalent in poor communities as well. This confirms the beliefs of the parent and a few teachers that principals can leverage this support by interacting closely with the religious community.

Parents also saw the synergy between the church and the school because both institutions are expected to reinforce the same values. In affluent and religiously heterogeneous communities, schools may struggle to achieve this; however, in poor homogeneous communities like mine, schools are able to establish partnerships with the religious community so that mutually beneficial outcomes are achieved. Once the school has built a co-operative relationship with its religious community, it should be able to successfully negotiate favourable supportive outcomes for its school community.

5.6.2.13 Hope as a tool in the struggle against HIV and AIDS

Teachers were the only research group directly questioned about whether there was hope in the fight against HIV and AIDS. The teachers' response in the questionnaire appears to contradict the pessimistic and negative mood that was generated in the teacher focus group interview. The overwhelming majority of respondents to the questionnaire were extremely hopeful citing education, a positive attitude and the advancements in medical science as the catalysts for hope.

Hope engenders action thereby fuelling the mechanisms for action. If teachers have no hope, they are likely to infect learners with the same attitude which could destroy the preventative effort as learners may see no purpose in learning preventative skills. The participants in the focus group interview appeared to be negative and despondent as a result of their despair and disappointment at the irresponsible attitude towards unprotected sex that they perceived from young people.

Another possibility for the difference in enthusiasm of teachers as revealed by the two research instruments was that in the questionnaire, teachers wrote from their "heads". In other words, teachers responded from an intellectual standpoint because they had the time to think. In the focus group interview they responded from the "heart"; thus implying a more emotional response that generated a

negative mood. It also appears that listening to some verbal negativity can sometimes create a consensus of negativity.

Freire's (1998) in Williams et al (1999), injunction of the need for hope "no matter what the obstacles may be" should give principals strength to motivate teachers. Freirean pedagogy, according to Garcia and Pruyn (2001: 80-81), seeks the development within teachers and learners of attitudes and capacities to see themselves capable of taking action in their world with the intention to change it.

Hope has to be a cornerstone of all effort towards HIV and AIDS. Firstly, as shown in the foregoing, the need is for hope to inspire teachers and learners that HIV and AIDS can be prevented by seriously heeding the preventative teachings. Secondly, the need is for hope in the efficacy of a normal education, which is basic literacy, numeracy and exposure to a learning culture, as espoused by Coombe and Kelly (2001), in giving learners protection against HIV and AIDS.

5.7 RESEARCH AS AN ESSENTIAL AID TO SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Most principals were not certain of the extent to which learners, parents and teachers were infected and affected in their schools. They regretted not having the relevant information at hand especially when they believed that it was essential for decision making and action. This vacuum was understandable given the contents of an earlier section on disclosure. Principals are also aware that they will be better informed and equipped to perform their supportive functions if they have reliable information at their disposal. School-wide data gathering has to be undertaken and updated every year. The exact details of the nature of the data to be collected from learners and parents are discussed in the next chapter.

5.8 CONCLUSION: THE ROLE OF PRINCIPALS

Whilst learners were not asked directly about what they thought the role of the principal was, parents and teachers were requested to give their opinions on the

principal's work. Indeed, when any respondent suggested that the school undertake any activity or consideration, it was implicitly accepted that the principal would be the initial director of such act or consideration. It is not unexpected that each research group suggested the role of the principal from a standpoint that benefits that particular group's interests.

Learners concentrated on the satisfaction of their physical needs. They expected protection from teacher abuse, security from the threat of violence and crime and the provision of food and clothing. Learners also needed the school to help their parents to become better parents. Parents also followed the same trend as learners; however, they also included the delivery of the curriculum and extracurricular activities. As previously highlighted parents revealed their powerlessness by not calling for drastic improvement in the quality of teaching and learning. Parents did recognise the political role of principals when they encouraged principals to build relationships and partnerships with NGOs and the Government to bring goods and services to the school.

Teachers needed to be supported and developed so that they would be able to execute their work more efficiently. Whilst teachers are in closer proximity to learners they understandably required assistance in aspects such as discipline, counselling, nutrition and learners with special needs. The support function of principals as emphasised by all groups points again to the reliance placed on the principal to create an environment conducive for quality teaching and learning.

The instructional role of the principal was alluded to when teachers expected principals to facilitate teaching and learning, and monitor, supervise and support the teaching process. The Mckinsey Report (Barber and Mourshed, 2007:31) concurred with the above stated view of teachers. The report placed high value on the instructional role of principals who must spend the majority of their time coaching and mentoring their teachers. The political and management role of the principal was consolidated when parents and teachers required principals to be in

the forefront of creating mechanisms and structures in the school and the community to mitigate the impact of poverty and HIV and AIDS.

From the foregoing analyses it is evident that all the above roles of the principal can be crystallised into the three dominant leadership roles as identified by Cuban (1988) in Supovitz and Poglinco (2001:3):

- Managerial role as an administrative chief
- Political role as negotiator and facilitator, and
- Instructional role

In the following chapter these analyses are integrated with the theory from the literature to construct an integrated strategy on the leadership roles of principals in disadvantaged areas affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS.

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CHAPTER SIX

A PRACTICAL INTEGRATED STRATEGY FOR

PRINCIPALS

6.1   INTRODUCTION

The literature study in Chapter Two was my response to the first subsidiary research question (refer to Chapter One, paragraph 1.5.2a), namely: what are the characteristics of meaningful school leadership, what exists in the literature that would be useful to principals to deliver good quality education. This process produced a best practice guide that principals could utilise in their practice. The second subsidiary research question (refer to Chapter One, paragraph 1.5.2b) endeavoured to determine the perspectives of one school community (parents, learners and teachers) on what needs to be done by principals in schools affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS. The findings in Chapter Four and the analyses in the previous chapter (Chapter Five) aimed to contextualise the perspectives of the school community.

The final subsidiary research question (refer to Chapter One, paragraph 1.5.2c) required the synthesis of these two sets of findings (Chapter Two and Chapter Five) to produce a viable set of practices for principals that may be used in similar conditions of poverty and HIV and AIDS. Thus, in pursuance of the final subsidiary research question I posit a practical integrated strategy for principals. This strategy integrates the good practice derived from the literature with the perspectives of the research groups. This is a dynamic strategy that exhibits characteristics that give hope and have a potential for success in targeting education delivery, poverty and HIV and AIDS.

In the first section the relationship deduced from the literature in Chapter Two (see paragraphs 2.6 to 2.8) is restated, thereafter the mission of the principal is

outlined and the assumptions of the strategy are clarified. In the next section the input of principals is discussed in terms of their instructional and their political roles that are aimed at improving the quality of teaching and learning as well as directly impacting on poverty and HIV and AIDS. In the penultimate section the consequences of principals' input into the system are analysed and predicted. The chapter is concluded by considering the consequences of an inadequate response from principals.

6.2   A STRATEGY FOR PRINCIPALS IN THE CONTEXT OF POVERTY AND HIV AND AIDS

6.2.1   The relationship between education, poverty and HIV and AIDS

In the concluding paragraphs of Chapter Two (see paragraphs 2.6 - 2.8), I deduced the following two relationships from the literature. Firstly: Poverty and HIV and AIDS reinforce each other positively or negatively. They have a direct relationship. In other words, if poverty worsens, it is very likely to worsen or increase the rate of new HIV infections. In addition, an increase in poverty will worsen the condition of those infected and affected by HIV and AIDS. Conversely, if the level of poverty drops or poverty decreases, then there is a strong likelihood that the conditions of those infected and affected by HIV and AIDS will improve and the rate of new infections may decrease given the conditions discussed in Chapter Two (see paragraphs 2.6 - 2.8).

Secondly, Coombe and Kelly (2001:9) showed that education seemed to have the same effect on HIV and AIDS as it had on poverty. In other words, improved education has the capacity to positively influence poverty (Wedgewood, 2007; King et al, 2007; and McGrath and Akoojee, 2007) and HIV and AIDS; however, poverty and HIV and AIDS have a negative influence on education (World Bank, 2002:11-25; Verner, 2004; and Ndingaye, 2005). The school principals whom I consulted also testified to this negative influence on education. Hence, we can aver that poverty and HIV and AIDS have an indirect relationship with education.

From the foregoing, the following relationship was diagrammatically constructed to give meaning to the influence of poverty, education and HIV and AIDS on one another. It must be noted that this diagrammatic representation is a simplified representation of complex relationships that are influenced by the social, economic and political conditions that are prevalent. In other words a simple diagram does not imply simplistic relationships.

Figure 6.1: Relationship between education, HIV and AIDS and poverty

(Same as Figure 2.8
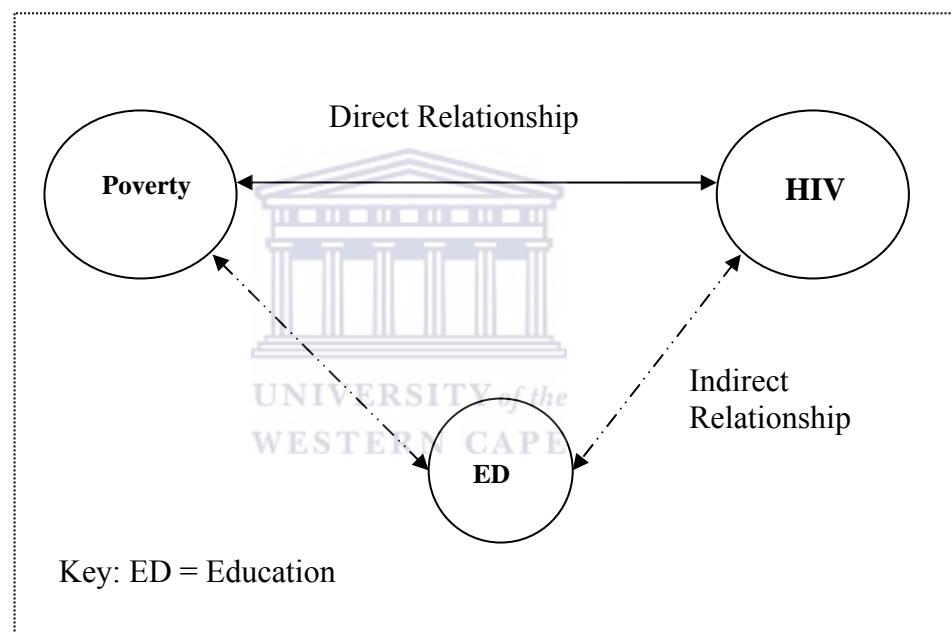
Figure 6.2 Improving the quality of teaching and learning (QTL) from QTLo to QTL 1
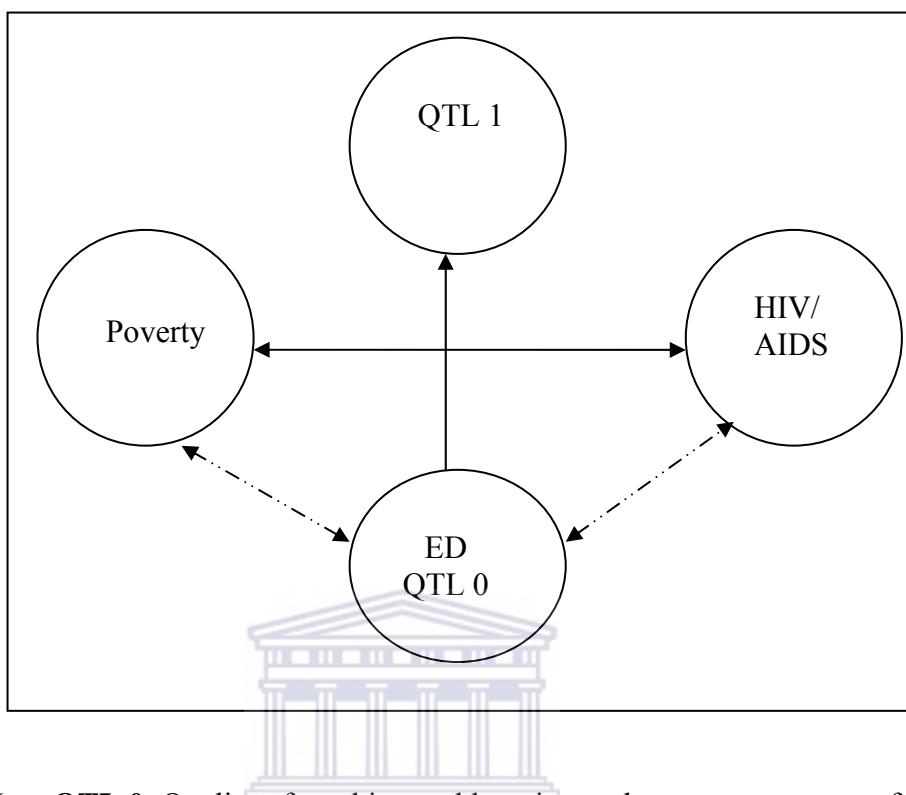
Key: **QTL 0**: Quality of teaching and learning at the commencement of the strategy

QTL 1: Quality of teaching and learning after the principal's intervention

Fig 6.2 has been derived from Fig 6.1, which considers the previously explained relationship between education, poverty and HIV and AIDS. Education has been disaggregated to be represented by the quality of teaching and learning, which is the core activity of the school and therefore the focus of any school principal's role. From the findings in Chapter Five, I have ascertained that the supportive, developmental and service oriented functions of a school and, consequently, of the principal, are complementary to the core activity of teaching and learning.

In disadvantaged areas affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS, we assume that the level of the quality of teaching and learning at the commencement of the

implementation of this strategy is at QTL 0 where '0' in QTL 0 is arbitrarily chosen. For schools in these areas, the proxy for the level of the quality of teaching and learning can be taken as the results obtained by the school in the WCED's systemic evaluation in grades 3 and 6. For schools in the disadvantaged areas these results are very low, indicating the poor achievement of learners in literacy and numeracy.

The school principal, being the chief accounting officer, is charged with the responsibility of improving the quality of teaching and learning. The expectation is that principals must use all their leadership skills and available resources to improve the quality of teaching and learning from QTL 0 to QTL 1 where QTL 1 represents the improved quality of teaching and learning after a specified intervention. The '1' in QTL 1 is arbitrarily chosen to represent the improved level of the quality of teaching and learning.

Schools in disadvantaged areas don't only have low quality of teaching and learning as their major threat. As has been clarified earlier, the low levels of the quality of teaching and learning are the result of the influence of various factors, most notably poverty and HIV and AIDS.

Consequently the school and the principal are confronted by the debilitating effects of poverty and HIV and AIDS as reflected in the poor quality of teaching and learning and of course, principals also have to deal with the direct consequences of poverty and HIV and AIDS on learners, parents and teachers. The principal has to respond to these multiplied effects of poverty and HIV and AIDS. The principals' response must be located firmly in their leadership capability. In other words, the principals have to courageously lead their communities out of the throes of deprivation and morbidity to the promise of hope and a better quality of life.

The key assumptions in this strategy are firstly, that the level of growth of poverty must be held constant, in other words, the strategy does not provide for the school

system to be subjected to shocks such as natural disasters, political turmoil, civil war or the collapse of law and order. Secondly, HIV and AIDS infection rates are in the same growth trajectory as they are currently. Thirdly, state funding for poor schools remains the same or is not reduced. Fourthly, the instruments to measure the quality of teaching and learning are kept the same. The consequences of some of these variables changing for the worse are explored later.

6.2.2   The input of principals into the school system described above

Fig 6.3 Principals' instructional input into the school system
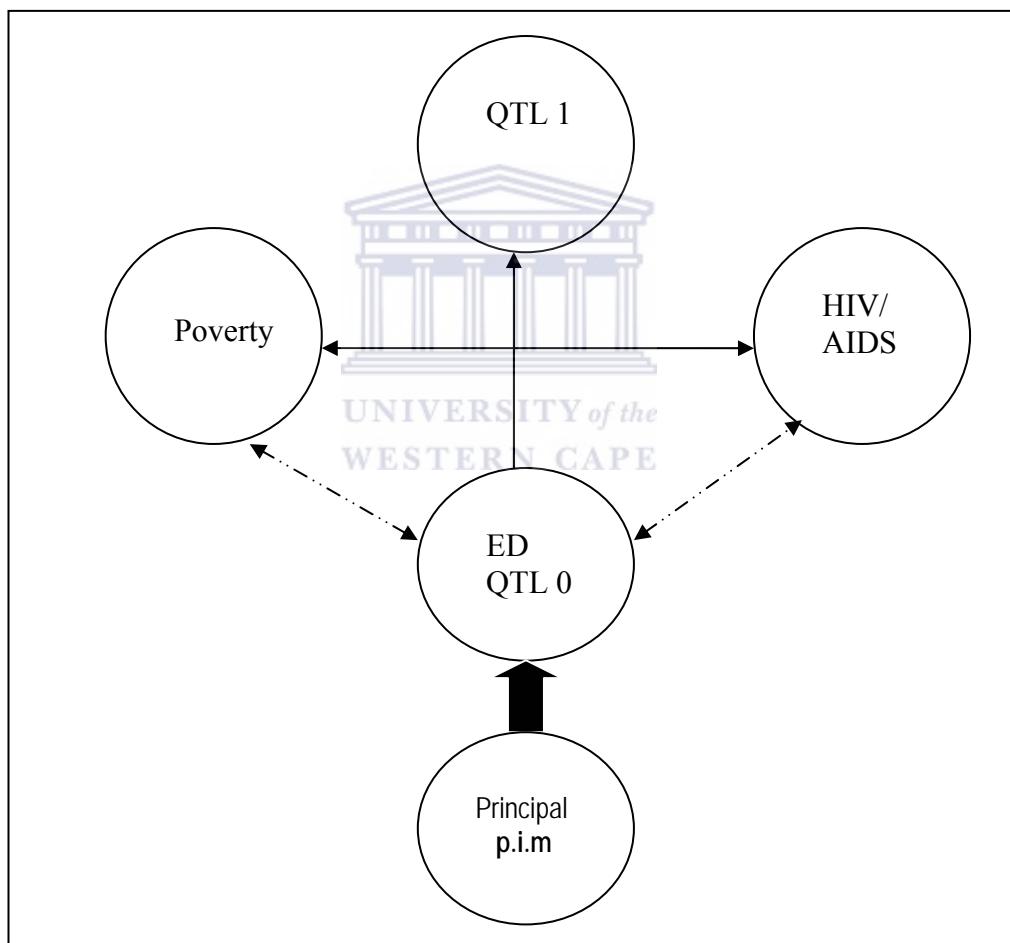
Key: **p**   refers to the **political role** of the principal

        i   refers to the **instructional** role of the principal

       m   refers to the **management** role of the principal

Fig 6.3 illustrates the position of the principal and the target area of his/her influence. As Maxwell (2004:20) emphatically states: "…*the true measure of leadership is influence – nothing more, nothing less*". Principals exert their influence first and foremost, on the quality of teaching and learning. This is referred to as their instructional role (**i**). Secondly principals also have to exert their influence in the supportive, developmental and service oriented roles of the school. As previously mentioned in Chapter Five, these roles of the school principal are in support of the school's core activity, namely teaching and facilitating learning. The support, developmental and service oriented roles of the principals dovetail into Cuban's (1988) in Supovitz and Poglinco (2001:3) political (**p**) and managerial (**m**) roles. Consequently, principals are expected to play all three roles as posited by Cuban (1998).

In pursuit of improving the quality of teaching and learning from QTL 0 to QTL 1, principals must play all three roles, namely the political, instructional and management roles subsequently referred to as **p, i, m**. In their desire to affect poverty and HIV and AIDS their political (p) role and management (m) role should be dominant even though they will still be expected to play instructional (i) roles to a lesser extent. In this study, I have concentrated on the instructional and political roles of the principal as I believe that knowledge of the crucial role of management in execution, planning, organizing and deploying is readily available for practitioners. Cuban (1988) in Supovitz and Poglinco (2001:3) avers that school leaders have given precedence to their management and political roles over their instructional roles. Consequently, for this strategy I am pre-occupied with the instructional and political roles of principals.

6.2.2.1 The principal as an instructional leader

The literature is rich with various interpretations of instructional leadership. It is a highly contested arena because some researchers seem to equate the actual instructional role of the principal with the style in which principals can execute their instructional role. In this strategy I regard the term 'instructional leadership'

as the role played by all principals in maintaining and improving teaching and learning. This interpretation of the term is neutral and is unaffected by any other negative interpretations that may be attributed to it. For the purposes of this study I have regarded transactional, transformational, distributed and moral leadership as styles in which principals can perform their three-dimensional roles. Further, I maintain that every school principal has to perform their instructional role using whatever style best suits their personality and the situation they find themselves. Leadership styles evolve on the basis of the knowledge, skill, attitudes and values of those who lead and those who are led.

The following synthesis of the instructional role of the principal has been crystallized from the studies of Supovitz and Poglinco (2001); Fidler (1997); Krug (1992); Sparks (2002); NAESP (2001); Kruger (2003); Lashway (2002); Murphy and Halinger (1984); Parker and Day (1997); Blasé and Blasé (1999); Waters et al (2004); and the experiences of others and myself.

For an informed understanding of instructional leadership we need to examine it using two lenses. Firstly, the lens that illuminates the actual functions that a principal has to perform and, secondly, through the process by which these functions have to be performed. These are discussed hereunder.

a) Functions

Five broad functions have been derived from the studies mentioned earlier. These are:

1. Defining and communicating a clear mission, goals and objectives

The principal and staff must set a clear mission, goals and objectives to achieve effective teaching and learning. Principals must use their vast knowledge and experience to encourage staff to strive for the highest standards, and the most realistic and attainable objectives. In some poor schools, staff may be so

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overwhelmed by their circumstances that they risk setting low targets because they may feel that their context militates against excellence. Principals must guard against pessimism and hopelessness.

The mission, goals and objectives give direction and clarify the reason for the school's existence, otherwise fragmentation and incoherence may set in, resulting in poor learner achievement and poor teacher performance. Mission, goals and objectives also serve as a benchmark by which the school can assess the efficiency of its programmes, teachers and other staff.

2. Co-ordinate the curriculum

Principals have to provide the teachers with all the requisite information to enable teachers to plan their work effectively. The NCS stipulates the Critical and Development Outcomes, the Learning Area Outcomes, the Assessment Standards and the time that must be made available for each Learning Area. Principals must not only make this information available, but they have to actively support the development of the curriculum through their expertise, ability to interpret policy documents and by making resources available. Whilst the actual co-ordination of the curriculum may be delegated to an SMT member, the principal has to closely monitor the work of this official. It is vital that the principal has the knowledge and the skill to provide model lessons either formally or informally so as to provide curriculum leadership and thereby inspire confidence among staff.

3. Supervise and evaluate instruction

The principal is the chief accounting officer in the school and therefore has the responsibility of ensuring that the state legislated standards are established, maintained and improved over time. Principals have to ensure that teachers receive generous doses of guidance and support in order for them to deliver the curriculum effectively. The emphasis has to be on staff development rather than performance measurement. The instructional leader must be prospective (focused

on what can be) rather than retrospective (focused on what was) (Krug, 1992:433).

It is imperative for principals to visit classrooms daily and through informal "walk throughs" (Blasé and Blasé 1999) provide support and guidance to teachers and learners. The current teacher performance measurement (PM) system is a component of the IQMS that requires teachers to be evaluated annually for developmental, quality and remunerative purposes. Principals have to oversee this process that really has potential to develop and nurture quality among teachers; however, the procedures, records and the evaluation process do impact on the credibility of the process. Principals must utilize its positive potentialities – identification of teacher needs, and remediation – to raise the levels of instruction in their schools.

Principals must ensure that the staff development team (SDT) is given sufficient administrative support so that they remain committed and motivated to develop effective school improvement plans (SIP) that actually address staff needs. Quite often the members of the SDT are so overwhelmed by the paper trail that they give scant attention to the support and development component of the IQMS.

4. Monitor learner progress

Learner assessment provides information or data about learner progress. Current legislation requires principals to have an advanced understanding of assessment. This is a challenge to all principals because assessment requirements are consistently being changed to accommodate new thought on the subject. Outcomes-based assessment (OBA) is a serious concern in most schools; however, in poor schools it is consistently the most poorly performed activity in the teaching and learning process. Principals have the responsibility to skill themselves thoroughly so that they can guide their teachers. Furthermore principals must solicit assistance from their districts offices, NGOs and tertiary institutions to skill their teachers in this facet of educational endeavour. New

thinking and consistent changes to expectations from teachers in respect of OBA have resulted in confusion which has been exploited by many teachers to reveal the parlous state of assessment at many schools.

Principals need to also monitor and evaluate learner progress through the analysis and interpretation of data obtained from the assessment process. Quantitative and qualitative data analysis should be undertaken so that the results can be used to generate programmes of support for teachers and learners. Assessment data should be used in making decisions: for example staff development must be aligned with learner learning needs; and multiple sources of data must be used as diagnostic tools to assess, identify and apply instructional improvement.

Principals must insist that all class assessments are analysed and remedial measures are properly administered. Feedback and remediation are critical facets of the assessment process that consolidates learning. The results of the WCED's systemic and diagnostic evaluations are given in great depth for the principals to analyse, plan and implement remedial measures. Quarterly results should be analysed per Learning Area and results discussed at staff, phase and grade meetings for remediation. Analysed data should be presented to parents so that they are aware of where and why improvement is needed. Van der Berg and Louw (2007), in their recent study of grade 6 learners' results aver that the monitoring of learner progress by principals is one of three efficacious processes that will improve learning outcomes even in poor schools.

5. Promoting instructional climate

i) Protect instructional time

Researchers are united in advising principals to protect instructional time. Instructional time is eroded by many disruptions to the school day. Proper planning, scheduling and timetabling ensure commitment to instructional time. In poor schools, the reluctance of teachers to serve beyond the seven hours prescribed by the WCED puts pressure on instruction. Teachers tend to squeeze

out teaching time by requesting that co-curricular and extracurricular activities should be done during teaching time. Principals find themselves blackmailed into agreeing to use teaching time. Committed principals must resist the pressure by working collaboratively with other principals from the area. Principals must involve themselves in regional sport and cultural co-coordinating committees to give guidance on the creative use of time to protect instructional time. Principals must be mindful that whilst winning sports and cultural competitions is good for the image of the school it only facilitates learning for a very small minority of learners.

b) Promoting professional growth

NAESP (2001:6) requires that principals lead schools in a way that places learner and adult learning at the centre of the school's mission. Further, principals need to create a culture of continuous learning for adults tied to learner's learning and other school goals. Teachers at my school and also teachers in other studies (Blasé and Blasé, 1999, and Waters et al., 2004) placed a high value on the promotion of professional growth. This could be done by undertaking the following activities: the study of teaching and learning, supporting collaborative efforts among teachers, developing coaching relationships among teachers, encouraging and supporting redesign of programmes, applying the principles of adult learning, encouraging growth and development of effective staff development and implementing action-research to inform instructional decision making.

Professional growth and development is supposed to be arranged as a planned programme of activities that have been derived from the performance measurement process in the IQMS. As previously mentioned, it is a crucial process that often gets relegated to become an ad hoc function that is done just to show that support and development are taking place within the school. The common understanding among many researchers (Sparks, 2002; Blasé and Blasé, 1999; NAESP, 2001; Kruger, 2003; Supovitz and Poglinco, 2001) is that if

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principals intend improving learner attainment then their focus must be on teacher learning. In the context of repeated changes in the curriculum (C2005; RNCS; NCS) and required changes in teaching methods as a result of Outcome-based Education (OBE) and the minimal training that was provided to teachers, the potency of an effective school staff development programme cannot be overstated. Principals have to find creative means to leverage the school budget to tie staff professional development to teacher's personal development.

Staff professional development is often a very frustrating programme to initiate and manage especially when budgets are non-existent, teacher attitudes, interests and commitment are not adequate and district support is minimal. Principals have to seriously explore how incentives can be made available to teachers to lure them back to learning.

iii) Providing incentives for learning

Whilst the principals need to grapple with the problem of finding incentives for teacher learning they also have to provide incentives for learners. The provision of weekly or monthly and annual rewards for progress and achievements can enhance learners' performance. The National Teaching Awards are meant to motivate teachers to strive for excellence in their teaching. Excellence in teaching can be attained through dedication, commitment and the willingness to learn. Later, in this strategy I examine some of the ways in which principals can use incentives to motivate teachers.

The promotion of an instructional climate involves creating a positive school climate in which high quality teaching and learning can take place. Learners and teachers need to be well supported.

b) Process

The second lens through which instructional leadership can be viewed is through an understanding of the process by which school leaders can carry out the afore-mentioned functions. Two distinct processes have been identified by Kruger (2003:207-209). Firstly, there are the bureaucratic and structural aspects which directly influence teachers and instruction: In this process all the formal activities pertaining to instructional policies (aims, subject/Learning Area policies, subject meetings, resources, differentiation, assessment and discipline) and planning documents are developed, maintained and implemented. The delegation of management personnel to supervise and support teachers and the provision of resources for the delivery of high quality teaching and learning are also included in this process.

The second process involves the informal methods through which instructional leadership is provided. In this process principals empower and support teachers by respecting them, by being willing to train and support them. The other informal way that instructional leadership is carried out is through the personal example of the principal. As instructional leaders, principals need to be role models in all dimensions of their interactions with teachers.

These two processes can be closely linked to the management and political roles that the principal has to play within his/her instructional role. Resources, human and physical (including finance), have to be managed according to regulations specified by the WCED and according to management precepts that will optimize their utility. The school plant (land, buildings, equipment, and facilities), books and all other movable and immovable assets have to be utilized and managed in support of high quality teaching and learning.

Human resources, teachers and non-teachers, have to be managed in terms of legislation and regulation; however the political role of the principals becomes crucial when they have to facilitate, build relationships and negotiate with staff

and others to raise staff performance to provide high quality teaching and learning. Many principals experience difficulty in this aspect.

The political role of principals is discussed in the next section.

6.2.2.2 The political role of the school principals

Principals have to make use of all their leadership potential to execute their instructional role. All the various functions discussed in the previous section involve operating through people to achieve the goal of improving the quality of teaching and learning. The principals' capacity to influence those they lead is crucial to this purpose. Thus the principals' inspiration, power to facilitate, negotiation skills and their potential to build relationships will determine the efficacy of their instructional and management roles.

a) Principals' political role within their instructional role

In poor schools affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS, the principal has few or no resources that can be used as incentives to raise teacher performance. In advantaged schools, funds are available for additional remuneration for teachers for: reducing the hours a teacher can teach; reducing the number of learners a teacher needs to service; providing rewards to teachers; and appreciating the work done by teachers in terms of pastoral care, sport and other extracurricular activities.

In poor schools, the only resource principals have is their own resourcefulness, leadership abilities and commitment. Principals have the unenviable challenge of motivating and inspiring teachers who are demotivated and demoralized by their overwhelming circumstances. Principals have to use all their political leadership powers to negotiate with parents, SGBs, NGOs, business, districts, head office and service providers to obtain resources for the school and teachers so that the quality of teaching and learning is improved.

The relationship that the school develops with the community is also crucial to the improvement of learner achievement. Woolley et al (2008: 11-12) found that programmes to increase social capital in the lives of learners contribute to an improvement in learner performance in mathematics and literacy. They suggest that activities like mentoring, tutoring by adults from the community and generally involving adults in clean ups and community activities like planting flowers in common areas convey to learners that they and the school are important. Principals, therefore have to sharpen their relationship building skills to access this critical community resource.

Within the school, principals have to consider their leadership styles. Here I am referring to the use of transactional, transformational and distributed leadership styles. Singh and Lokotsch (2005:280-281) describe in their transformational leadership model (see Chapter Two, Fig 2.5) the transformation process that a leader must actively undergo. The leader must transcend from the bureaucratic or transactional phase to the political or transformational phase.

The transformational phase involves movement from negative influence to positive influence; closed discussions to open discussions, power to one to power to all; hierarchical rule to consensus; individual responsibility to shared responsibility and from inequality to equality. These characteristics of transformational leadership imply a significant degree of growth within the principal, where the principal moves from a personal position of power to a point where she or he leads by sharing responsibility with other stakeholders in the school.

The transformational process culminates, through growth of both the leader and the led, in a leadership relationship that is described as "collegial" by Singh and Lokotsch (2005:280-281). This highly evolved transformed leadership gives prominence to respect and value; a shared vision; co-ordination and planning and recognition of expertise. This collegial state of transformational leadership must engender morality, equality and trust.

When morality, equality and trust have been established school leaders will automatically distribute leadership because there is a surplus of capacity within the school. This surplus of capacity must be utilized because its combined value is multiplicative rather than additive (Spillane et al, 2004:16). In other words the leadership potential of a team is much more than the sum of the leadership potential of each of the members within a particular leadership team. Further, context or situation affects and is affected by school leadership practice. Thus leadership activity is "stretched over" various facets of the school's context which includes tools, language, organisational structure, staff size, stability, environmental complexity, race, class and gender.

Thus distributed school leadership becomes desirable because it maximizes the leadership capacity so as to influence and affect the contextual factors found in the school environment. The synergy created by a team of leaders over different contexts that their experience and talents permits, is distinctly more favourable when compared with a single leader struggling to affect issues and context in which she or he has little expertise.

In schools distributive leadership practices can be implemented in legal structures, namely SMT or in informal leadership groups like Professional Learning Teams (PLT), to derive the greatest leadership effects over a maximum number of contexts. Whilst the distributed leadership style is recommended in structures like SMTs and PLTs, cognisance must be taken of the following factors that affect distributed leadership. Firstly, there must be the correct attitude and the willingness to participate must be evident and, secondly, due attention must be given to the social dynamics of distributed leadership.

In summary, I am advocating that principals execute the political roles by implementing transformational and distributed styles of school leadership. In addition to obtaining better quality and quantity of leadership, one is also developing leadership capacity so as to prepare proactively for succession. Very

often succession is unplanned for and in this way a leader protects the leadership gain that has been accumulated over time.

b) The political role of school principals when addressing poverty

As pointed out earlier, the principals' immediate target of influence is on teaching and learning, which is the core business of the school. Every action or effort is directed towards improving the quality of teaching and learning. Consequently, principals use their three roles to exert the most meaningful influence. To improve the quality of teaching it is expected that the principals' instructional role will be dominant over their political and management roles.

In view of the significant influence that poverty has on the quality of teaching and learning, principals have to make a concerted attempt to target poverty directly. This is not to undermine the influence of improving the quality of teaching and learning; however a proactive principal has to try to "make things happen" and not "wait for things to happen". The reason for this is that the principal is now aware of the positive way in which decreased poverty can influence the quality of teaching and learning. Consequently, the principals' direct influence on poverty will also feature the three roles of principals but the principals' political role will dominate their management and instructional roles.

Before examining their political role in addressing poverty, I briefly look at principals' management and instructional roles when focusing on poverty. The management role depends on the availability of material, physical and human resources for the alleviation of poverty. These resources have to be managed in terms of well-established rules, regulations and principles of justice, ethics and morality. Instructional leadership in respect of poverty can be constrained by the principal's own limitations in knowledge, attitude and values. However, the principal can engage different groups through workshops and information sessions as they have the skills and experience to do so.

The political role of principals focuses on the creation of good working relationships, facilitation and negotiating. How and what can be done by principals in poor schools affected by poverty? Poverty stricken environments are characterized by a continued striving by those in poverty to overcome their poverty. Living at the margins attracts people and activities that generate fear and anxiety amongst those people who want to live and work in peace. Learners from those poor areas therefore see their school as a place of safety; a sanctuary where everything should be clean, attractive and safe. A school environment that replicates their home environment will seriously undermine the effort to improve the quality of teaching and learning.

Principals have the responsibility of providing an optimum learning environment that inspires and motivates learners and teachers to do their best in the face of difficult conditions. This demands special skills, knowledge and values of principals. Teachers, particularly, have to be inspired and motivated by the attitude and inner strength of the principal. The diligent example of the principal and the perceptions of the teachers about the principal's commitment, willingness to sacrifice and sincerity can ignite a passion amongst teachers that will create the inspirational atmosphere and the physical as well as mental environment that will give learners the appropriate signals.

The challenge for principals is how to sustain these initial feelings of hope and commitment and dedication. Principals have to build relationships amongst all staff. These relationships have to be built on truth, fair play and a sincere commitment to the common good. Principals have to convince everyone that they are working for the benefit of the learners, the staff and the community. A spirit of service has to prevail. The principal must create a sense of confidence amongst staff of his or her commitment to their growth. This sense of confidence does not develop of its own accord nor does it materialise over night. The principal has to actively target sincere confidence building. This does not imply that principals must bend the rules to develop confidence; in fact, consistent judicious application

of rules and regulations in a framework of empathy is what most teachers appreciate.

In an environment of poverty teachers have to deal with hungry children that cannot concentrate; children who consistently do not even attempt their work due to unfavourable home conditions; learners who are often sick; and who often misbehave because they cannot cope. It is only natural that teachers themselves struggle to cope with these pressures. Teachers are overwhelmed by the large class sizes and the heavy workload and very often crack under the pressure if they sincerely try to make the effort.

Of course teachers develop coping strategies which inevitably short-change learners more and more as the level of teacher commitment decreases. How can the proactive principal sustain the gains achieved by her or his commitment, dedication and confidence? In difficult circumstances intrinsic motivation has a limited shelf life. Extrinsic motivation in the form of incentives has to supplement the waning intrinsic motivation.

In poor schools, obtaining funds for incentives for teachers and learners is a major challenge. However, the entire concept of rewards and recognition has to be properly developed. Firstly, teachers need to be made aware that rewards and incentives can originate from the principals themselves or from the school. Secondly, each type of incentive has to have known criteria. In other words, all staff, teaching or non-teaching, must be brought into the process of developing criteria.

Inclusivity and legitimacy are important because recipients want to receive rewards that compensate outstanding meaningful effort. Any semblance of tokenism or favouritism would undermine the process. Principals must be aware of some teachers who will vociferously oppose any system of rewards because they are sceptical of the application of the criteria. This is normally a smoke screen to perpetuate unsatisfactory service levels. The principals' reputation of

being trustworthy and the confidence created by their interaction with staff will be vital in developing confidence in the process.

Rewards can range from a box of chocolates to prizes like dinner vouchers, movie tickets, a weekend away, attendance at conferences, or cash prizes. These incentives are so vital because they are given in the interest of improved teaching. Hence SGBs should actively budget for them annually. Principals can lobby their service providers to contribute towards a fund for this purpose. Some principals may argue that funds raised in these ways would be more effectively used in providing infrastructure, resources and equipment for teaching and learning. The counterargument is that the infrastructure, resources and equipment will not benefit anyone if there are no teachers willing to put them into effective use.

A final word on this matter of incentives: I agree that teaching as a vocation is laden with the doctrines of morality. It presupposes that teachers do their jobs because they have a "moral calling ". The unequal circumstances that poverty creates and exacerbates, increase the burden on teachers in poor schools. Thus it is vital for teachers in poor areas to be rewarded in the same way as teachers in affluent areas are compensated for additional duties they perform. I believe I have adequately addressed the matter concerning teacher motivation, which is a significant prerequisite for many of the other recommendations within this strategy.

In the previous paragraphs I have highlighted the value of motivation and an appropriate attitude of all teachers. This implies that the recommendations that follow will all assume that teacher motivation, attitude and commitment are all at appropriate and expected levels. This further implies that teachers will consistently support and execute all school initiatives to provide the best for their learners. They will create environments that will be most efficacious to learning.

The learning environment has to be effectively maintained. Cleanliness, maintenance of sanitary systems and the rest of the physical plant must be

regularly maintained to prevent unaffordable repair costs if minor repairs are ignored. These are management functions but they fall within the political role of a principal because principals, due to the lack of funds, have to proactively engage and negotiate with the officials of the Department of Education, NGOs, possible donors/well-wishers and service providers. The norms and standards (NS) allocation of the WCED has to be creatively managed and "structured" to cover day to day maintenance and the result of poor workmanship during apartheid era construction.

The obvious effects of poverty are the lack of basic needs, illness, neglect, orphan-hood, violence and insecurity. The principal needs to capacitate teachers to be able to detect the signs of these effects. The detection process must also be humane, gentle and supportive to the learner. Principals must solicit training for teachers so that they are not destructive and counter-productive to the effort of supporting learners and families affected by poverty. Early detection of problems assists in finding simple solutions that prevent major time-consuming and expensive interventions.

Learner development is obstructed by poverty through emotional, social and physical factors. Principals need to identify these and other circumstances that exacerbate poverty. Principals have to become alert to discrimination, inequality and inferiority complexes that develop among learners. These feelings, if not arrested at an early stage, sow the seeds for learner isolation, poor self-image and the erosion of dignity. Such feelings are the foundation for the development of negative behaviour and habits. Principal must be vigilant to deal swiftly with any teacher-sponsored discrimination, marginalization or wilful neglect.

Hunger, though partially addressed through feeding schemes, is more debilitating in the home environment. The available resources must be efficiently distributed to needy learners. Principals must ensure that a welfare committee is created to: identify learners in need; distribute available resources efficiently; and solicit additional resources. The provision of food parcels to those seriously affected will

serve to address their immediate needs even though this is not the ideal intervention. Principals have to develop relationships with the Department of Social Services, NGOs and local businesses which will be able to provide interim relief to starving families.

Principals must identify orphans early so that special attention is given to them. Orphans and vulnerable children (OVC) must be individually counselled, mentored and supported by staff members who have been specially selected on the basis of their compassion, love and willingness to sacrifice their time. These teachers are the pillars of the community and they stand out by virtue of their spirit of service. The political role of principals is enhanced by their ability to closely observe, identify, motivate and mentor teachers who have the heart for selfless service.

The gathering of valid and reliable information about learners is critical to the poverty alleviation effort at schools. This facilitates more accurate targeting. Accurate learner details must be collected at the entry point during registration. Very often this process is neglected and learner information is inaccurate or incomplete.
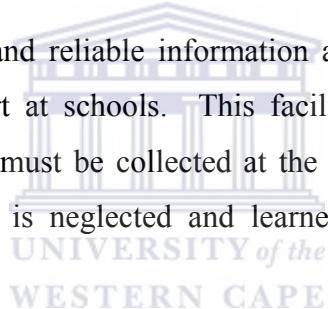
The following details have to be captured for CEMIS purposes and for the schools information: Correct name and surname, date of birth, identity number, name of parents, name of parent who has custody of the learner in the case of divorced and single parents, name of legal guardian or foster parent, residential and postal address of the parent, all contact telephone numbers of legal guardian or parents, learner health conditions, parent/guardian employment status, learner's grant details and orphan status (mother, father or both deceased). This information must be regularly updated at the beginning of the year or when circumstances change. If properly captured and stored, the information augmented with teacher acquired personal details provides rich data for principals to plan and implement interventions.

Even though the collection of the above mentioned data is a routine administrative function in a school, it is a valuable function which informs decision making, facilitation and relationship building. Having the data at hand, firstly gives an accurate picture of the extent of poverty in the school. Secondly, it engenders in the minds of potential donors and NGOs an admiration for the principal's accuracy and commitment to alleviating the problems associated with poverty. These potential benefactors are then attracted by the principal's deep sense of awareness and determination to make a tangible difference.

In as much as the school can try to obtain food parcels for indigent families, principals must guard against creating a culture of dependency among families. Lund (2008) categorically rejects the provision of food parcels as the only means to address poverty. Employment creation is a more sustainable enterprise that will not only improve food security but will also give dignity to poor people who otherwise would languish in despair.

Principals need to use existing welfare structures to create a Parent Employment Agency that can be run fulltime at school by parents. This employment agency can register with businesses in and around the area, for which the employment centre can serve as a labour broker. When businesses need a particular skill they can request the school's employment centre to recruit poor parents who have the necessary skills for the job. This simple but effective approach to job finding will reduce the cost of finding employment and will contribute to community building. This employment centre could facilitate general and specific training by involving big businesses as part of their social upliftment commitment.

It must be borne in mind that volunteer parents may not have the requisite skills to run the employment agency. School staff input will be vital at the early stages. This centre can be the hub of the school's parent education and skills development initiative and Information and Support Centre (ISC) for HIV and AIDS. More will be said about ISC later in the recommendations for HIV and AIDS.

The Parent Employment Agency should run regular sessions where the Department of Social Services and the Department of Home Affairs conduct awareness programmes and take applications for identity documents, birth certificates and grants. School infrastructure can be used to process applications. A further dimension in the work of the Employment Agency involves advocacy on social, financial and health issues. The destruction of the family unit, single parenthood and the issue of absent fathers are some social advocacy matters that can be illuminated by experts. The state structures must be lobbied to provide expert facilitators who will capacitate parents.

The Departments of Social Services, Health, Trade and Industry, Labour and Finance have the resources and structures to deliver potent community support that could develop parents so that they may have the skills, knowledge and attitudes to credibly influence poverty alleviation. The principal has to establish partnerships to solicit this support. Most organisations, private or state funded, are very alert to the credibility, integrity and far sightedness of the leadership of organisations they support. Astute proactive principals convey a degree of confidence that will induce other organisations to support them. Hence, principals can obtain resources, both human and material, to improve parental literacy, parental entrepreneurship and community development.

The above indirect support from government is inadequate. Many principals are of the view that government has to play a more direct role in alleviating poverty in our schools. Whilst we make this call, we must be able to tell government what exact form of support is needed. Firstly, government must ensure that all poor learners are fed in poor schools. Secondly, basic writing provisions must be supplied. Thirdly, transport for learners travelling from far must be provided. Lastly, schools must be properly resourced in terms of human and physical resources. The creation of principal forums at circuit, district and provincial levels is a welcome initiative that principals must use strategically to inform government.

The above stated request to government has far-reaching effects as it focuses on the government's economic, social and educational policies. Principals need to make their constituencies aware of the following: The fact that previously advantaged schools are able to collect substantial school fees from parents ensures that they will always be better resourced. The state needs to source additional funding to address the resource needs of poor schools. Funds are needed for re-training staff; repairing and maintaining badly neglected schools; providing material resources on a par with advantaged schools; upgrading staff salaries; capacitating parents and SGBs; and providing specialised support services for learners in need. Principals need to capacitate parents to raise these vital issues with their civic structures, political representatives and ultimately the government.

Another very great concern is the government's ill conceived strategy to devolve certain governance functions to school-governing bodies. The South African Schools Act (Department of Education, 1996) assumes that parents in poor areas have sufficient capacity to govern schools as do their counterparts in advantaged schools. The lack of capacity among poor parents places an undue burden on principals in poor schools, who by virtue of their own training and previous experience, are also unable to cope with demands of resource management. The combined effects of these two circumstances are the inefficient use of resources in schools, wastage, neglect of maintenance, inadequate curriculum support, poor workmanship and poor commitment from staff in response to the poor teaching and learning environment.

How do the proactive principals in poor schools respond to the above? Principals have to learn new skills. Principals cannot wait to receive the required support from the state. They have to first ensure that they make the required submissions to the Department of Education in respect of their needs. Thereafter, principals can only be successful commensurate with their resourcefulness and their ability to build relationships, alliances and partnerships.

Principals have to knock on doors, use their "contacts", use the internet to advertise their school's needs and explore all other avenues to access support. Principals must attempt to up-skill themselves, through taking short courses involving resource management, computer skills, and project and programme management and improving their studies in leadership. Forming alliances with principals from advantaged schools will be most beneficial from a material and skills perspective.

Whilst it is the responsibility of government to provide all the requirements for ensuring quality teaching and learning, principals cannot wait and expect resources to materialise. Principals have to "get their hands dirty". They have to challenge government through their own efforts. Government has recognised the plight of poor schools and has commenced with the process of providing resource to poor and underperforming schools through various project based programmes like the Quality Improvement, Development, Support and Upliftment Programme (QIDS UP) and School Improvement Programme. Even in these programmes, principals need to have their "ear to the ground" so that they can tap into these resources because, invariably, the resources are limited and criteria for allocation almost always look at the school's proven ability to efficiently utilize existing resources.

Poverty is a deeply debilitating condition that is not just about hunger and material deprivation. Poverty affects the depth of an individual's family's and community's soul. In South Africa poverty was entrenched by the apartheid policies of the previous governments. Poverty has a very distinct racial profile that affects African people more than any other race. Inequality within families and communities affects school-going children emotionally. Principals have to be extremely vigilant that the school, by virtue of its policies and staff, because of their emerging "middle class-ness", do not perpetuate inequality, inferiority and discrimination. Principals must institute procedures that protect poor learners from such emotional danger.

The principal must devise special monitoring tools to guarantee learners' emotional wellbeing and development. Procedures may include monthly reports on all learners who are at risk. These include poor learners, sick learners, learners at risk of not progressing and learners with other barriers to learning. Principals should know these learners personally. The principal could meet these learners regularly to follow up on teacher's support.

Specialized support is available from districts in respect of learners with social problems. Too often teachers tend to overlook their responsibility to refer these learners for support. Principals must follow up teachers and learners by ensuring that proper records are created, maintained and updated. Staff must be motivated to understand the importance of not allowing learners who have social barriers to learning to "drop out" from the educational system. Vigilant observation, referral for support and accurate recording are invaluable in ensuring that learners get the support they deserve and avoid becoming engulfed in the poverty induced criminal domain.

In concluding this subsection I want to emphasise that the principal and the school can choose to be proactive and thereby positively affect the plight of many learners in a few significant ways or they may assert that poverty is not their business because they do not have the skills or that it is the state's responsibility. If we believe in the spirit of Ubuntu, if we see that our development and happiness are related to and dependent on the happiness and development of the poor, then we have no other choice but to surmount the numerous obstacles and break down the self-erected walls of exclusion and develop the inner strength of individual learners, their parents and the community.

We, as principals, must make our communities realise that their poverty was not of their own doing. It is a consequence of socio-political interference that undermined the normal development of people. The struggle today is not for political liberation but for freedom from poverty and illness. In the next section I

make recommendations on the political role of principals when addressing HIV and AIDS.

c) The political role of school principals when addressing HIV and AIDS

As in the case of poverty there are managerial and instructional roles that principals have to execute in order to play their political roles in addressing HIV and AIDS. Many of these managerial and instructional roles correspond to the managerial and instructional roles associated with poverty. These will not be repeated in this discussion; however management and instructional roles specific to HIV and AIDS are embedded in these recommendations that follow.

We recall from Figure 6.3 in paragraph 6.2.2.1 that principals exert their main influence on the quality of teaching and learning but they also have to exert a direct influence on poverty and HIV and AIDS so as to facilitate greater efficacy of their influence on the quality of teaching and learning. The alleviation of poverty in the school has a limited curriculum bias because most of the poverty alleviation efforts involve bringing goods and services to the school. Principals' HIV and AIDS efforts have a significant curriculum component that gives greater prominence to principals' instructional roles.

The feminisation of the HIV and AIDS pandemic (Prince, et al 2005:2 and Kelly, 2002b:7-8) due to biological and socio-cultural factors places a major responsibility on principals to structure the HIV and AIDS response accordingly. As Kelly (2002b:8) contends, the culpability of men in spreading the disease is routed "… in the false images of masculinity and what it means to be a man." Hence principals must plan and implement the response to HIV and AIDS taking due cognisance of gender mainstreaming as explicated in Chapter Two, paragraph 2.6.

i)   Curriculum and instructional role

An embedded HIV and AIDS curriculum within all Learning Areas as demanded by the NCS assists to consolidate the specific HIV and AIDS curriculum in the Life Orientation and Life Skills Learning Areas. This warrants careful monitoring and evaluation of the HIV and AIDS curriculum by principals. Furthermore, the principal has to treat the HIV and AIDS curriculum in the same way as the rest of the school curriculum as clarified in paragraph 6.2.2.1.

It is vital for the HIV and AIDS effort in the schools, that principals must have appropriately trained and committed teachers who should have knowledge and the correct attitudes to influence learners positively in the struggle against HIV and AIDS. Principals must use teachers' experiences on the social implications of HIV and AIDS to enable teachers to become more knowledgeable about the technical details of causes, transmission, treatment and prevention. Appropriately targeted learning sessions facilitated by outside providers will be beneficial for teachers.
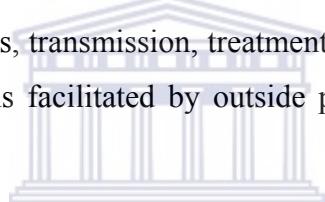
HIV and AIDS education for teachers has two outcomes. Firstly, it provides the necessary skills, knowledge, attitudes and values so that they will provide quality HIV and AIDS learning and teaching experiences for learners. Secondly, teachers will be able to acquire skills, knowledge, attitude and values for their own upliftment so that they could change their own behaviour if it needs to be changed. Statistics show that 12,79% of South African teachers are currently infected with HIV (Rehle et al, 2005:8). Preserving the teaching work force has to be a strategic endeavour as it has the power to undermine all other gains made in the HIV and AIDS effort.

Principals have the responsibility to interrogate the methods teachers use in their teaching, particularly the HIV and AIDS curriculum. The nature of the context in the HIV and AIDS curriculum forces teachers to teach the curriculum from a factual perspective. Learners are taught to regurgitate facts; implying that the

knowledge of facts will guarantee a change in attitudes and thereby result in the altering of behaviour. Principals have to guard against the assumption that knowledge will automatically affect attitudes and result in behaviour modification. To develop attitudes, learners have to be exposed to the reality and the consequences that follow. The use of case studies, visual (pictures, videos), oral material and interactive techniques will enhance teaching with the specific purpose to develop and change attitudes to affect behaviour.

Experiential teaching calls for innovative teaching methods for learners to interact with dilemmas, consequences and outcomes. Debating the consequences of unprotected sex, for instance, has far more potential to enable learners to develop a positive attitude towards abstaining from sex or the use of condoms than just telling learners about the dangers of unprotected sex. Principals in poor schools have to judiciously allocate funds for the purchase of teaching materials that enhance experiential learning.

Principals must utilise the numerous opportunities that are given by NGOs to enhance learning though drama, song and dance. Grant and Sleether (1986: 150) maintain that bridges need to be built between learners' cultural knowledge and what they are taught at school. Consequently it may be efficacious to investigate learners' sub-cultures and target them as vehicles to facilitate learning that may enhance behaviour modification. These sub-cultures may include fashion, sport, language, celebrities, television programmes and the internet.

ii)   AIDS orphans

The plight of AIDS orphans must be made one of the key foci of principals. If the number of AIDS orphans is low, as they currently are in my school, principals can give their personal attention to these learners by meeting regularly with them and ascertaining their needs. The principal can move resources quickly to assist these learners to cope with their challenges. In other words principals have the executive power to swiftly assist a learner by providing a material need if it is

urgently required by the learner. Proactive principals must ensure that they have the necessary budgetary and legal authority to act.

The gathering and maintenance of accurate records will facilitate effective support to orphans (see paragraph 6.2.2.2b). Accurate information facilitates more accurate targeting of affected learners. Principals must conscientise teachers to be alert to the behaviour of orphans. Teachers must be capacitated to observe learners so that they will be able to detect signs of abuse, neglect and illness. Since orphans are vulnerable to the predatory attacks of unscrupulous persons intending to gain from orphans' suffering, principals have the moral duty to be knowledgeable about all details of the custodians of the orphans. Sometimes principals are the only reliable support to orphans; thus great care must be taken in the management of the welfare of orphans.

iii)   Communication

The critical role of communication in the entire HIV and AIDS effort cannot be overstated. Firstly, the school has to ensure that it communicates to parents and learners the scope of the school's activities towards the HIV and AIDS effort. The realistic possibilities of a school's effort, well communicated, enable all constituencies to be cognisant of the school's capabilities and limitations. Hence, parents or learners will not expect the school to provide houses for them.

Secondly, schools must conduct regular parent education sessions to capacitate parents on HIV and AIDS matters. Many schools have tried this unsuccessfully, but the failure is due in part to prevailing attitudes that parents have, namely that HIV does not exist or HIV will not affect the family. Principals must engage members from the community who may be living with HIV or who may have family members suffering from AIDS. These persons should be "positive deviants" who use their first hand experience to emotionally motivate people on issues affecting HIV. HIV is an unorthodox virus, thus attempting to overcome its effects calls for unorthodox methods.

The issue of distributing condoms to primary school learners, though controversial, must be soberly discussed with parents to arrive at acceptable procedures that facilitate understanding and growth. Parent education has to be seen as a process that endeavours to integrate cultural practices with the dictates of science and technology in a seamless manner that seeks to avoid conflict but promote growth and understanding.

Thirdly, the school must play a meaningful role in facilitating inter-generational knowledge transfer, a timeless natural process that has been obstructed by the utterly private invasion of the HI virus. Whilst HIV and AIDS are deeply personal issues that prevent free communication between parent and child, principals can advise parents to focus on storytelling, health matters, sports and culture as subjects that can develop communication between parent and child. Principals can organise functions on the school premises where mothers/fathers and their child are given opportunities to re-ignite the fire of cultural knowledge that has served communities through time. This process has to be nurtured as it needs facilitation and training because parents have "unlearned" the ability to communicate with their children.

iv) Affecting attitudes within the community

The HI virus is relatively new to both parents and learners. Thus communities are hamstrung because of the lack of information by senior members of the family. This lack of information serves to inhibit parental involvement and also stimulates the implementation of unscientific, superstitious and crude practices that have retarded progress in the struggle against HIV and AIDS. Principals, by virtue of their position, are well placed to provide leadership in this area because, generally, the community has faith in the wisdom of principals. Consequently, the principals must skill themselves to be able to provide the wise counsel that is expected. Thus, the principal has the potential to affect community attitudes positively.

v)   Extracurricular activities

Sport and cultural activities offered by the school have the potential to affect learners in two creative ways. Firstly, these activities if offered after school will ensure that young vulnerable children are protected during the crucial period between school and the arrival of parents after work. This interval of about four hours is the time when unsupervised young children are vulnerable to abuse, teenagers are tempted to experiment with sex and when other learners are coerced into alcohol and drug abuse.

Principals in poor schools must consider viable options to keep learners gainfully occupied, within the safe environment of the school, for as long as is possible. This will require the principals' negotiating skills to arrive at an incentivised dispensation with staff, NGOs and parents. Parents have to be conscientised about the high priority they should place on their children's safety. Principals must convince them to make a sacrifice financially or they need to give of their time. Teachers too, must be motivated intrinsically and extrinsically about the moral value of their after-school contribution. NGOs and commercial service providers may be engaged to assist teachers in the planning and organization of after school activities.

The second way in which extracurricular activities benefit learners is by teaching them new skills and unearthing their talents. With the advent of democracy in our country, poor learners with special skills and talent have the opportunity to fulfil their potential at the highest level. The school and the community benefit from the creation of the local icons, which give impoverished communities respect and serve as role models to young children.

A further benefit of sport and cultural activities is that they develop in everyone (young and old) an appreciation for recreational activities that they will nurture for the rest of the lives. Consequently communities ravaged by the effects of HIV and AIDS are given alternative stimuli and sources of encouragement and focus.

Thus, the tenacious persistence of principals in motivating staff, facilitating service providers and building meaningful relations with donors and well-wishers will be rewarded in the long term.

vi)   Support groups

The formation of support groups is a strategic intervention because it has the potential to consolidate all other interventions in the HIV and AIDS effort. Principals must ensure that careful consideration is given to the composition and functions of these support groups. Principals should invite experts from the Department of Health and the Department of Social Services to train prospective members of the support group. The school community must be consulted to identify volunteers from all sectors of the community. This includes teachers, parents, and learners, influential members of the community, health workers, and psychologists. This support group should liaise with the EST (Education Support Team) and other staff members. It is vital that community structures are invited to participate in the support group so that access to the community is possible when required.
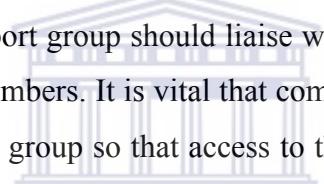
It is vital for the sustainability of a support group that the appropriate leadership is identified and nurtured. Principals should identify personnel who have the time, knowledge and intense passion to serve those infected and affected by HIV and AIDS in a voluntary capacity. Working in such groups calls for selfless service, tolerance and a very generous spirit. The principal has to work with these members to establish their focus of attention or terms of reference. Every member must know the scope of the support group's activities. Depending on the available capacity, the support group should commence conservatively with a few basic activities.

Initially the support group should focus on providing support to affected learners as identified by class teachers. These learners would have been identified by teachers according to agreed procedures that emphasise the learners' privacy.

Support at the early stages of a support group's history should focus on providing basic needs, health services and counselling. Principals have to ensure that they provide the basic infrastructure for the provision of these goods and services. Creative fundraising will facilitate success in the provision of materials.

All volunteers must be trained to ensure that a good quality of service is provided. After a reasonable period of sustained high quality service that has been acknowledged by the community, the support group should cautiously venture into the community to provide assistance. This involves providing food for the poor sufferers, caring for the sick, running errands and providing physical support.

It must be emphasised that principals must solicit training for the appropriately selected personnel. Learners should be trained to provide support by running errands, reading to sufferers and providing opportunities for playing games and entertainment. Learners should not be given tasks that will traumatise them. They must be gradually groomed and mentored. The adult volunteers must be highly skilled individuals who will provide physical, social, and psychological and health related services.

The principal must use all means to enhance the counselling skills of the volunteers. Every opportunity for training must be exploited so that volunteers could graduate to become qualified and experienced counsellors. It is at this phase that the school can create a special space where the support group will be the staff of the ISC that can be located on the school plant. The concept of ISC is akin to the schools as nodes of care (SNOC) concept as envisaged by the WCED's Social Transformation Programme (Lewis, 2008:101). School support group members can be capacitated by the training provided by the SNOC initiative.

The support group would have accumulated sufficient social capital within the community that it would be well respected, trusted and equally well supported. The ISC would then have legitimacy and the community would have the confidence to utilize its services. The ISC can then become a significant point of

support where the community will be able to receive counselling, reliable information, material and physical support. Principals could amalgamate all community support services offered by the school under one roof. In other words, the members of the support group could also provide information on employment as contemplated in the previous section on poverty.

A significant progression in the role of support groups and the ISC will be their capacity to facilitate disclosure. This is an important service whereby trained and experienced members of the school support group will be able to confidently invite those infected by HIV to disclose their status so that they may be able to access the best medical, emotional and social support available as early as possible. In all circumstances the principal must be proactive by creating an environment conducive to disclosure. Appropriate support structures, regular workshops and training will be effective and may help to remove myths, hearsay and fallacies.

The seamless capacity to access the social grants offered by the state was a high priority of all groups in this study. Principals could effectively use the ISC and its trained volunteers to provide information sessions for the community regarding the application for identity documents and social grants. Volunteers can also assist the community to complete forms and submit applications with the relevant documents.

From the foregoing it is evident that the formation of support groups, nurturing them to develop into counsellors and caregivers and graduating them to become the staff of highly efficient Information and Support Centres (ISC) at school calls for significant skill on the part of the principals to nurture, develop relationships, mentor and facilitate. These are skills that are honed through the exercise of servant leadership. The willingness to serve and the desire to capacitate are key characteristics that principals must exhibit.

vii)   Education and advocacy

The principal has to give direction in the school's role in the process of education and advocacy of HIV and AIDS issues at different levels. This can be done through the school's HIV and AIDS committee or the ISC. Firstly, at school, learners of all ages have to be conscientised about the HI virus in accordance with their age and levels of maturity. Parents must be counselled that teachers will treat HIV advocacy with sensitivity and that children's rights will not be violated. Whilst professional dramatic performances by NGOs are entertaining and can assist learners to develop the correct attitudes, giving learners the opportunity to participate will definitely enhance learning. Secondly, as previously mentioned, advocacy and education of parents on HIV, health, safety and poverty alleviation must be undertaken so that children's learning can be consolidated at home.

Lastly, education and advocacy among the staff has to be regularly undertaken so that staff health and their own skills, knowledge and attitudes and values are developed. The campaign to conscientise staff must be a purposeful activity that is planned, implemented, monitored and evaluated for its efficacy. Staff are the key transformative agents, hence their physical health and their knowledge is vital. School principals need to place staff health high on their list of priorities. Exposure to regular wellness programmes, workshops on preventative health and health checks on school premises will assist teachers to keep track of their health. District HIV and AIDS coordinators are very helpful when assistance is requested of them. Principals must use these officials to access counsellors and facilitators for workshops.

Further, principals could engage their service providers (book suppliers, etc) to fund the provision of health packs that may contain information and health products. This serves as an incentive for staff to take their health seriously. All these activities can be organised by the staff of the school's ISC. Similar activities could be arranged for learners and parents; however due to the larger

scale, the school must enlist the support of the local clinic, private medical practitioners and medical suppliers.

Education and advocacy programmes must aim to inform, educate and develop healthy attitudes to health, education and work, as well as community upliftment. Attention must be given to develop tolerance and acceptance of other people's conditions. Social stigma is as debilitating as the physical effects of HIV and AIDS, thus principals, as the agent of schools, have the added responsibility to shape the attitude of the school community.

viii)   Research

Earlier in the recommendations on poverty, I referred to the importance of gathering accurate data about learners. To facilitate support for learners infected and affected by HIV and AIDS, principals need to implement those recommendations as well. Data captured for the WCED's CEMIS purposes should be updated at the beginning of the year and all relevant information like grant recipients, orphans and employment status of parents should be downloaded and made accessible to all who need it. It must be appreciated that it is not possible to ask learners or parents directly whether they are infected or affected by HIV and AIDS. However, it is possible to closely observe learners in terms of their attire, lunch boxes, amount of lunch money they bring as well as their behaviour. Further, a teacher can obtain very accurate information by engaging in casual conversation with learners concerning conditions at home. Consequently a proactive principal can obtain rich data from teachers.

Apart from the official data from CEMIS and the data gathered from teachers, principals can obtain the provincial and national poverty ranking of the school from the Research Directorate of the WCED. This is given as a quintile in which the school is located. The schools in the first quintile are the very poor schools whilst those in the fifth quintile are said to be most affluent. The synthesis of

these data can provide a very useful profile of the community that will allow the school to make informed decisions.

Focused research should be done by the school annually to obtain learner, parent and teacher perspectives on all the important activities of the school. The intention should be to collect data that evaluate the work of the school. The next form of research that must be undertaken by principals and indeed all teachers has to be research that sheds new light on the curriculum for the purposes of improving teaching and learning.

ix)   **Spirituality and hope**

In the previous chapter I referred to legislation on religion in school and the potential for schools to establish close working relationships with religious institutions. The state needs to re-look at its policy on religion in schools. There are schools where the overwhelming majority of learners are of the same faith, thus making it very convenient to integrate religious education into the school curriculum without risking abuse of the rights of learners from minority religions.

In poor communities that are besieged with the challenges of unemployment, alcohol abuse, parental neglect and illiteracy, schools have to give attention to the potential of religious education to assist in the rehabilitation of the community. Religious education is conducted with the purpose of raising spirituality. Spiritually uplifted persons generally tend to live ethically and morally. In addition faith communities play a significant role in providing moral and material support to indigent families.

Religion education serves the purpose of making learners aware of the customs, traditions and culture embedded in different religions to facilitate tolerance in a multi-religious country. The principal must educate the school community about the applicable policies and work with the community to develop internal school

policies that will develop the community and facilitate learning and support for learners.

The synergy established between the school and religious institutions provides a stable platform for learners to develop their spirituality. Spirituality is the cornerstone for the development of strength, courage and hope. In the struggle against HIV and AIDS hope is a critical factor because it promises a better life. Principals are the flag bearers of hope. Their own enthusiasm and hope are visible in the way they conduct their duties. Staff and learners draw from this reservoir of hope that is found in the principal. This gives all the followers the courage to resist negativity and to find solutions to the challenge presented by HIV and AIDS.

x)   Family educational culture

Leithwood and Jantzi's (1999:701) emphasis on family educational culture above socio-economic status (SES) provides a more comprehensive influence on learner engagement at schools. They found that family educational culture was a variable that could be alterable, unlike SES, thus providing leaders with a powerful lever to influence learner engagement and ultimately, learner attainment. This implies that the principal can engage parents fruitfully by initiating parenting skills and HIV education programmes that capacitate them in improving communication and support to their children. This will prove to be invaluable in the struggle against HIV and AIDS.

In the next section I focus briefly on issues of values, morality and spirituality in school leadership as I believe that these are central to the successful execution of all three of the roles of principals.

d) Values, morality and spirituality in leadership

In order to execute their three roles successfully principals have to develop themselves in human, moral and spiritual terms. Bolman and Deal (1994:95) after consulting business and educational leaders, posit that the human, moral and spiritual dimensions of leadership are ignored, particularly in the training of leaders. A leadership training course focuses mainly on the management and administration dimensions of leadership, implying that these are the only aspects of leadership that are important. The reason for this is that these aspects are easier to teach than the personal, moral and spiritual development of leaders. Consequently, leaders have the duty to develop themselves and the more challenging responsibility to develop their staff.

It is important to note that developing one's human, moral and spiritual components of leadership does not commence from a vacuum because everyone has been cultured with values and ethics by their families and spiritual institutions. The universal values of kindness, respect, honesty, love, compassion, patience, loyalty, truth, peace, courage etc. are found deep within the consciousness of all people. Religion and spirituality are supposed to bring out these values for the harmonious functioning of society. Principals, therefore have the responsibility to be role models to their staff by living out these values in every act and decision. This calls for deep knowledge of oneself. This involves knowledge of one's strengths and limitations and how to compensate for these limitations. Moral strength, courage and integrity are critical to one's personal development.

How can these dimensions of leadership be imparted to others? Bolman and Deal (1994:87-95) identify four ways that can be adopted for this purpose. Firstly, leadership is learned mainly from experience. Whilst an education is important for the technical details, experience through exposure to the daily routine within schools has great value because there is value from positive and negative experiences. Secondly, reflection and dialogue with others are also necessary in

developing the moral and spiritual components of leadership. Thirdly, leadership can be learned by identifying and emulating exemplary leaders. Whilst the moral, ethical and spiritual behaviour of many public leaders is highly questionable in this age, it is wise to be selective about the values one can learn from the acts and decisions of all leaders. Lastly, leadership can be taught, but with a definite purpose to get prospective leaders to know themselves, their inner feelings, strengths and limitations (Bolman and Deal, 1994:92). Growth in leadership involves an increasing awareness of one's values which permeate thought and action.

In summary the political roles of principals enable them to apply their technical skills in a profound manner that facilitates co-operation and trust. Most leadership activities have a political component that requires the building of relationships, partnerships, facilitation and negotiation. For the purposes of an integrated strategy for school principals in the context of HIV and AIDS and poverty, I emphasised the three roles of principals (**political role, instructional role and the management role**) for the improvement of the quality of teaching and learning as well as the political role when directly addressing poverty and HIV and AIDS. The intention is to affect the quality of teaching and learning, poverty and HIV and AIDS so that each of them acts on each other to facilitate greater educational gain for learners.

All three roles of the principal have to be executed with the appropriate values, temperament and spirituality. One cannot perform these duties towards poor learners or learners affected by HIV and AIDS without the necessary spirit of compassion, kindness, service and devotion to all beings. These duties are profoundly spiritual because the fruits of these duties do not directly benefit the individual principal. The efforts of the principal benefit the learners, community and indeed the rest of the country

6.2.3 The effect of principals' input into the school system

Fig. 6.4 The effect of principals' instructional input into the school system
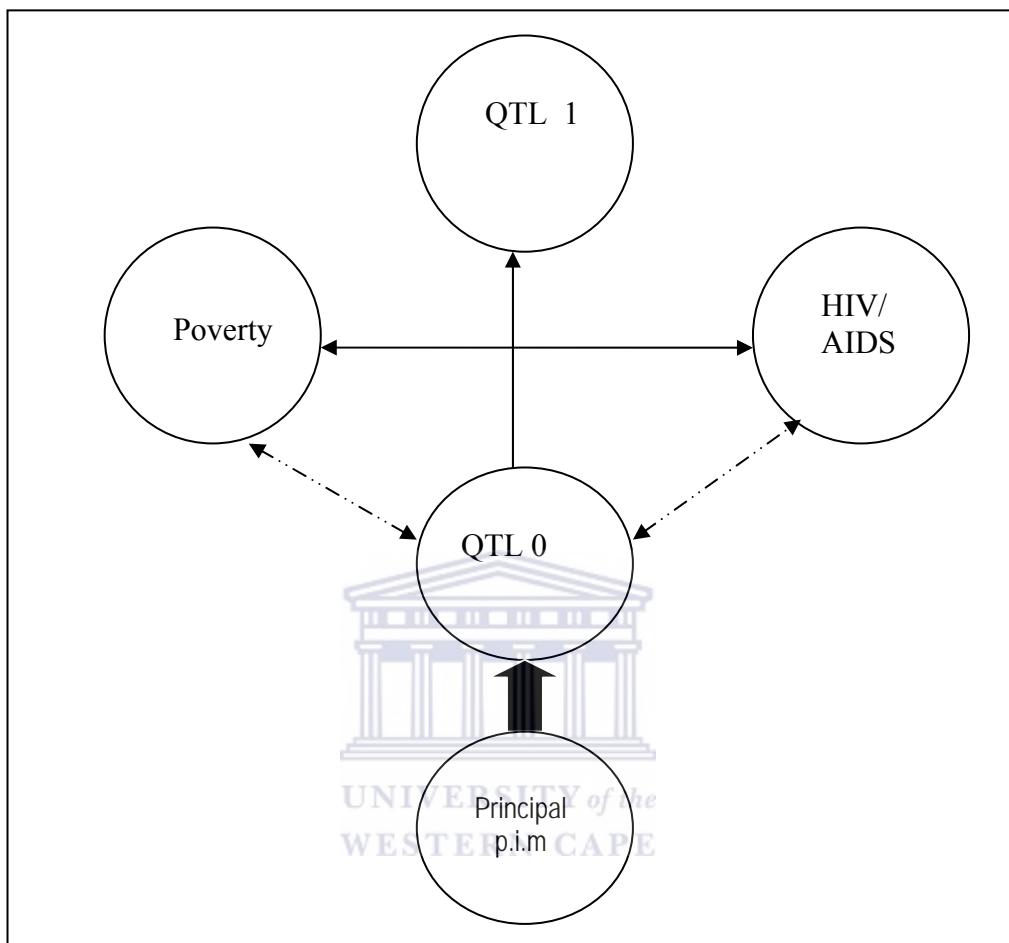
Key: **QTL 0**: Quality of teaching and learning at the commencement of the strategy

QTL 1: Quality of teaching and learning after the principal's instructional input

p   refers to the **political role** of the principal

i   refers to the **instructional** role of the principal

m   refers to the **management** role of the principal

Referring to Figure 6.4 we note that the quality of teaching and learning QTL 0 has risen to QTL 1 as a result of the direct influence of the principal on the quality of teaching and learning. In this input principals' instructional roles dominate their

political and management roles. The implication is that principals have played their instructional roles to such an extent that teachers have assimilated their support, supervision and staff development and have improved the standard of their teaching and assessment. This improvement in performance and standards contributes to improved learner attainments. Thus the measured quality of teaching and learning would have improved from QTL 0 to QTL 1.

Fig 6.5 The effect of principals' combined input into the school system
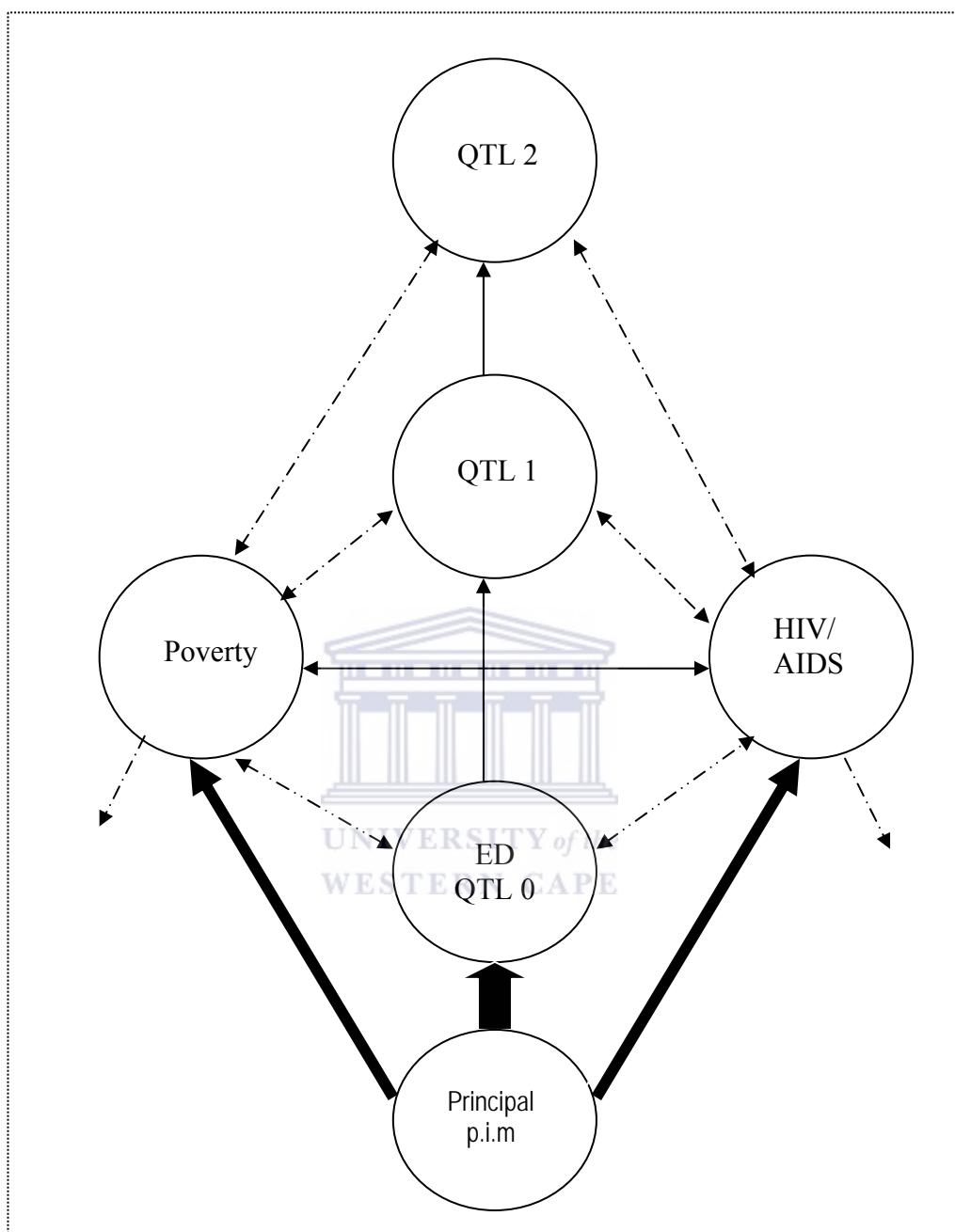
Key: **QTL 0**: The quality of teaching and learning at the commencement of the strategy

QTL 1: The quality of teaching and learning after the principal's instructional input

QTL 2: The quality of teaching and learning after the principal's combined input

p	refers to the **political role** of the principal
i	refers to the **instructional** role of the principal
m	refers to the **management** role of the principal

In Figure 6.5 we observe the consequence of the principals' direct influence on poverty and HIV and AIDS. In this input the principals' political role dominates their management and instructional roles. The implication is that principals have used their political roles to facilitate a better learning environment for learners affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS in the school and learners' homes. Learners have been given the support to cope with their personal challenges so that the effect of poverty and HIV and AIDS has been minimized. Over time their support will manifest in the weakening of the impact of poverty and HIV and AIDS on education. Consequently learners now have more resources and support to enable them to improve their educational attainment. This results in the improvement in the measured quality of teaching and learning from QTL 1 to QTL 2, a much more desired level of learner attainment.

6.3   CONCLUSION
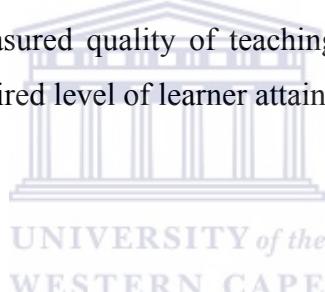
It must be emphasised that if the principal and staff's response to the low quality of teaching and learning, increasing impact of poverty and rising rates of HIV infection is inadequate, the reverse scenario is also possible as illustrated in Figure 6.6.

Fig. 6.6 Inadequate response/input of principals into the school system
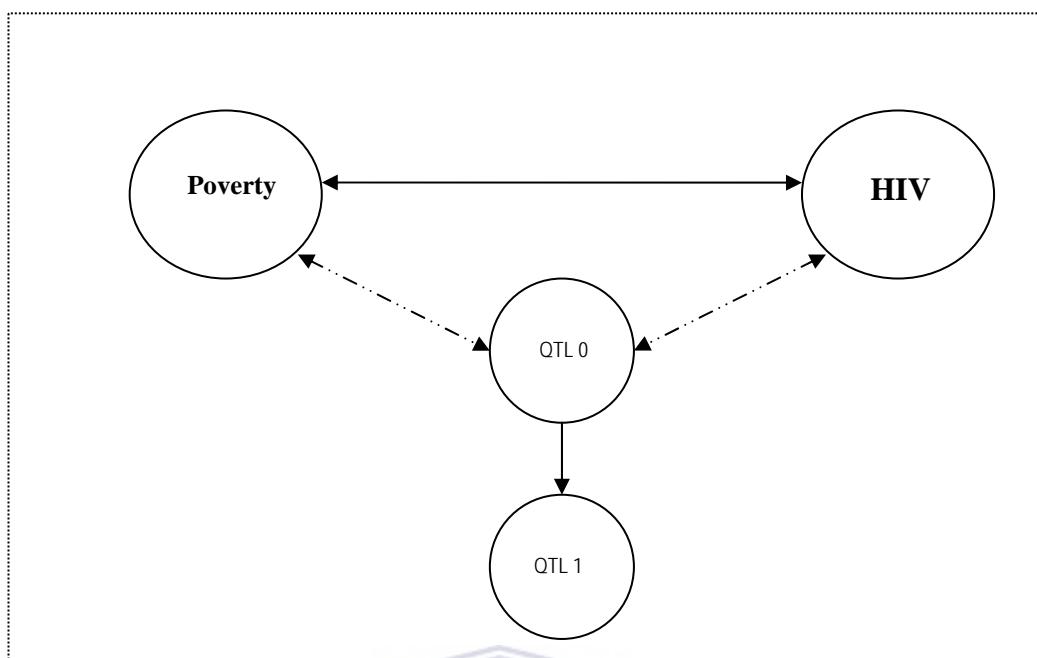
Key: **QTL 0**: The quality of teaching and learning at some reference point

QTL 1: The quality of teaching and learning at another reference point after little or inadequate input from principal and staff

Increasing poverty, rising HIV infection rates and an inadequate input from principals and staff will overwhelm all participants in the system. The increased poverty and the greater morbidity due to HIV will increase the burden on parents, learners and teachers. This will result in very little teaching and learning taking place. Limited resources will be stretched and school systems and procedures will collapse. Schools will become derelict buildings characterised by dysfunctionality, gangsterism, substance abuse and corruption.

The quality of teaching and learning will plunge to unacceptable levels that will warrant serious consideration on the viability of keeping the school open and the further employment of all staff on the school plant. This consideration must be tempered with responsibility as schools cannot be allowed to degenerate to such proportions so as to force closure of a school at the first consideration. School

managers from district offices have the moral and legal duty to ensure that schools are consistently monitored, diagnosed and adequately supported. It is the responsibility of the principal to be fully aware of the consequences of the threat of poverty, HIV and AIDS and the failure to respond to the low quality of teaching and learning.

A principal requisite for the successful implementation of the foregoing strategy is flexibility. Kelly (2000b: 102) exhorts everyone in the education system to re-look at existing methods, procedures and regulations to generate a flexibility that will strengthen the effort against poverty and HIV and AIDS. Flexibility also demands a continuous assessment of the severity of the conditions (poverty and HIV and AIDS) that affect schooling so that appropriate measures may be implemented.

It is imperative to emphasise that while this strategy for principals is posited in language that focuses on the principals' roles, it does not prescribe that principals play their roles as the heroic individualistic leader. The strategy advocates a leadership style that includes transformational, distributed and moral leadership based on the capacity of the leader and the led (See paragraph 6.2.2.1).

In the final chapter that follows, the main conclusions are drawn and recommendations are made for various role players in the education system.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1   INTRODUCTION

The main research question focuses on what school leaders, particularly primary school principals, can do to affect the quality of education whilst attempting to limit the impact of poverty and HIV and AIDS. Three processes had to be executed to arrive at a reasonable response to this question. Firstly, literature was studied and a guide to good practice for school principals was developed. Secondly, research was done in one school community affected by poverty to obtain their perspectives on what principals can do to limit the impact of HIV and AIDS. Lastly, the guide to good practice from the literature and the perspectives of the school community were integrated to produce a strategy that could guide principals in their quest to limit the impact of HIV and AIDS in their poverty affected communities.

In the next section the main conclusions from the literature and the perspectives of the school community are summarised. The conclusions that relate to the role of school leaders have been integrated to produce the strategy that was posited in the previous chapter. Furthermore, some of these conclusions are the rationale for the recommendations made in paragraph 7.3. In the subsequent section the limitations of the study are discussed. This is followed by recommendations for further research. The study is rounded off with a few concluding comments.

7.2   CONCLUSIONS

7.2.1   Main conclusions from the literature

7.2.1.1 The critical paradigm

In this study the critical / emancipatory tradition requires a critique and diagnosis of the issues around poverty and HIV and AIDS and education. It further elicits

from the school community a set of viable alternatives that are integrated with good practice from the extant literature. The action or transformative stage of critical / emancipatory social theory does not fall within the ambit of this study because it warrants implementation of the viable alternatives. Implementation and evaluation must be undertaken otherwise the critical paradigm relegates itself to empty rhetoric.

7.2.1.2 School leadership

School leadership theories are based on general leadership thinking that focuses on setting directions or goals and then influencing others towards the goal or direction. The school leader, according to Cuban (1988) in Supovitz and Poglinco (2001:3), played three dominant roles. These are the managerial role, the instructional role and the political role. Many factors contribute to the squeezing out of the instructional role by the managerial and political roles. A critical interpretation from the literature is the mainstreaming of instructional leadership in accordance with Cuban's (1988) in Supovitz and Poglinco (2001:3) dominant roles. Other forms of leadership (transformational, transactional, distributed and moral leadership) have been categorised into the political dimension of the school leader's role. This classification of the roles of the principal provides the framework for the integrated strategy that was posited in the previous chapter.

7.2.1.3 The relationships amongst poverty, education and HIV and AIDS

Poverty and HIV and AIDS are two of the determining factors that impact on education in this study. The literature indicates that poverty and HIV and AIDS have similar effects on education. Increasing levels of poverty and rising rates of HIV and AIDS work individually and in tandem to reduce both the demand for education as well as the supply of education. Hunger and the inability to obtain the necessities for school force learners to abandon school in the same way that morbidity of parents and siblings and of individual learners themselves affects learner attendance at schools. Teacher illness and the education system's inability

to cope with rising levels of HIV also restrict the quantity and quality of education that can be provided.

When poverty levels decrease and when the rate of new HIV infections drops, then there is hope for better educational attainment because these variables (level of poverty and rate of new HIV infections) contribute to a better environment for education to flourish. Consequently increasing levels of poverty and increasing rates of HIV have a negative influence on education whilst decreasing levels have the potential to improve the quality of education. HIV and poverty have a reinforcing influence on each other. Thus to reduce the rate of new HIV infections many aid agencies advocate poverty alleviation strategies

High quality and improved access to education has been found to have efficacious effects on poverty and HIV and AIDS. Therefore the strategy posited in the previous chapter is based on the foregoing logic, namely, that the school principals can improve the quality of teaching and learning directly through their instructional role and that the quality of teaching and learning can be further enhanced when principals directly attack poverty and HIV and AIDS through their political and managerial roles.

7.2.2 Summary of conclusions from school community

7.2.2.1 Core functions

The state, the community, teachers and learners all have their own understanding of what the core function of a school should be. Each group's understanding is coloured by their needs and by their experiences. A common understanding of the core functions of a school ensures a congruence that engenders support for the core function from all constituencies. Such a common understanding was not fully discernable from the responses of the research groups. Teaching and facilitating learning is the core activity of a school; however the supportive, developmental and service oriented functions of a school are performed to enhance the core activity. The value of literacy and numeracy as a means out of poverty and the

effects of HIV and AIDS was not fully appreciated by parents and teachers. It is incumbent on the principal to take cognisance of these deficiencies and then devise and execute a plan of advocacy and action.

7.2.2.2 Learner needs

The learners placed a high value on the physical environment of the school. They saw it as a sanctuary that must be free of the negative effects of township life. Poverty, crime, violence and poor sanitation were high on the list of learners' concerns. Besides the direct impact of poverty that served to constrain learner development, the indirect influence of poverty was equally debilitating as learners have to deal with emotional insecurity, poor quality education, inadequate resources, and feelings of inequality and inferiority. The language of learning and teaching, English, was a critical setback to learners. Consequently their proficiency in mathematics and their ability to think critically was inadequately developed. Principals must examine school policies and procedures to reflect on practice so that learner needs as identified in this study are given priority.

7.2.2.3 The effects of poverty

Learners have requested the provision of basic needs as well as protection from violence and abuse. They feel that they must be given love, care and support. Education is viewed as a necessity for an improved standard of living. Therefore there is a call by learners and parents for government to provide financial assistance to needy learners

The family unit is under attack from poverty and other social forces. Learners are particularly concerned about the unemployment of their parents, the absence of fathers and the need for schools to assist parents to play their parenting roles more meaningfully.

Teachers are very concerned about the lack of food security and its effects on learning. While the effort to provide food to learners at school is welcomed the situation in learners' homes is contributing to poor learner educational attainment and criminality. Parent unemployment contributes to the poor quality of education available to learners as schools are unable to leverage additional funds for learning in the same way affluent schools can.

7.2.2.4 Supporting the poor

There is justified concern by teachers and in particular, principals, about whether it is the school's role to support the poor. In poor schools that are under-resourced and where communities are impoverished, school personnel question the expectation that they must provide such support given the constraints. Whilst the debate rages on, the problem created by poverty in school intensifies and proactive principals and their staffs are compelled to act.

7.2.2.5 Knowledge of HIV and AIDS

Whilst it is expected that teachers should be fully conversant with most of the information concerning HIV and AIDS, principals must be careful not to make this assumption since teachers who teach HIV education were far more knowledgeable than those who did not teach it. Most teachers were very experienced on the social implications of HIV and AIDS. Learners appear to know the important details because they are taught HIV Education in the Life Orientation and Life Skills lessons.

The knowledge versus behaviour debate perplexed most adult participants since there was no understanding that behaviour is not determined by knowledge alone. Factors such as emotional maturity and level of consciousness contribute to an internalisation of knowledge and changes in attitude that result in behaviour modification. The journey from knowledge internalisation to change in attitude is the critical intervention point for all HIV and AIDS-related teaching.

7.2.2.6 Schools' response to HIV and AIDS

The research groups have suggested various forms of school interventions that point to the possibilities that could be explored by school principals. The dilemma posited in paragraph 7.2.2.4 above is still applicable and principals need to navigate the same waters to arrive at an appropriate plan of action. Some issues that must be factored into any school response are teaching methods, communication, confidentiality, support groups, education and advocacy, extra-curricular activities, policy, voluntarism, grants, disclosure, spirituality and hope as a tool in the struggle against HIV and AIDS. The strategy suggested in the previous chapter illuminates a possible alternative.

7.2.2.7 Research

The lack of information amongst principals concerning the extent of poverty and the effect of HIV and AIDS seriously undermines their efforts to render meaningful support to learners and the community. The absence of statistics and other relevant information prevents informed decision making and action. Resource provision is constrained. Principals have the responsibility to commission the necessary research to obtain all relevant data that will facilitate meaningful support to learners.

7.3   RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations are made from the conclusions and findings that are derived from the research (See paragraphs 7.3.1, 7.3.5 and 7.3.6). Other recommendations are made from my own experience and knowledge because I believe that these recommendations shall enhance and facilitate the implementation of those recommendations derived from the research (See paragraphs 7.3.2, 7.3.3 and 7.3.4).

7.3.1   Recommendations for principal practitioners

This study has been undertaken to provide principals with a guide to the roles that they can play in under-resourced high poverty areas affected by HIV and AIDS. In the integrated strategy suggested in the previous chapter, I have made recommendations for principals based on the findings, analyses and conclusions provided in Chapters Four and Five. The purpose is to give principals a viable set of alternatives that is based on the experiences and knowledge of parents, teachers and learners supplemented by the expertise derived from the literature, other principals and me.

7.3.2   Recommendations for policy makers (Western Cape Education Department and Department of Education)

In view of the strategy posited in the previous chapter policy makers must respond positively by engaging principals in the policy-making process. Principals by virtue of their responsibilities and experience have a wealth of knowledge that policy makers can use to develop policy that is supportive of the roles of principals. In this context the new initiative from the WCED regarding the formation of circuit, district and provincial principal forums is most welcome.

Policy makers need to re-look at the bureaucratic requirement that principals need to still teach formal lessons at school. This constrains both the quantity and quality of teaching that learners receive due to interruptions arising out of the principal's managerial duties. In poor schools, that are usually understaffed, principals have to be available for parents, service providers, NGOs and education and other government departmental officials.

Policy makers must give attention to the political and instructional roles of principals. The heavy managerial burden on principals, especially in poor schools, results in the neglect of their instructional roles. Policy makers have to give special consideration to the dynamics in poor schools where parent participation is

constrained by socio-economic and educational factors. In providing support to poor learners who are affected by HIV and AIDS, principals are limited by resource allocations and expertise. The problem of unfunded mandates has placed heavy burdens on poor schools and principals. For example, funding HIV and AIDS requirements as specified by WCED policy, presents a major challenge to principals.

The physical state of the school plant plays a very significant role in the development of learners. Most learners have referred to this important influence in their school lives. There is a general degradation of the school plant in poor areas from both a safety perspective and from the point of view of cleanliness. Policy makers have used School Based Management as a panacea for autonomy and transformation. In poor schools this has not worked because schools are subjected to neglect because principals did not possess the required administrative capacity or technical know-how to project-manage their requirements.

In this scenario policy makers must firstly capacitate principals in managing facilities and secondly they need to reinstate the Maintenance Directorate that was rationalised in the late nineties. This Maintenance Directorate used to undertake regular inspections of schools and scheduled them for repair and renovation according to their needs. In addition schools were regularly maintained after a specific period of time. This ensured that schools were not neglected and conformed to safety and health standards. Principals urgently need support in this dimension of their work.

Policy makers must give attention to the criteria used for the selection of principals. Current criteria specify the minimum qualifications and the minimum experience that are desirable; however an aptitude test and an emotional quotient test will prove to be more cost effective in the long run as less will be spent later either to rehabilitate, capacitate or terminate principals who really did not possess the requisite skills, attitudes and psychological disposition for the post. The qualifications requirements for principals must be reconsidered to include a

special leadership course that all candidates must complete. This course should consist of a theoretical component and a practical mentored component to enable candidates to demonstrate the requisite competency. Quite often it is erroneously assumed that candidates succeeding in the theoretical dimension of a course will automatically apply their learning to their practice.

Policy makers and universities must collaborate to develop a compulsory Master's course in school leadership that must provide a sophisticated understanding of school leadership and its related disciplines. The ACE School Leadership course may temporarily fill the vacuum; however, for long term quality and for re-establishing the academic dimension of the principalship a Master's degree may be appropriate.

7.3.3 Recommendations for circuit team managers

The isolation of principals is an issue that is generating much tension and anxiety amongst principals. Principals in poor schools generally encounter the same challenges. Circuit Team managers must provide opportunities for principals to meet regularly in small groups to share their challenges and experiences in a non-threatening and informal environment that will develop confidence and the sharing of best practice.

Staff development initiatives for principals usually focus on their managerial and instructional roles. Managers must also develop principals' political skills that include negotiation, facilitation and relationship building. The emotional development of principals has to be fast tracked since the political role assumes a high level of emotional maturity. Virtues like honesty, trust, sincerity, patience, determination, politeness, dedication and humility are essential for negotiation, facilitation and relationship building.

Whilst it is important to micromanage certain struggling principals, circuit managers will be more effective if they team up principals with complementary

skills to support one another in a 'buddy' system that will serve to develop all within the learning relationship. This will also give managers the opportunity to provide quality support even to those who are not under-performing.

Circuit team managers must be proactive in their support to schools. The strategy suggested in the previous chapter is a reasonable reference point for implementation, evaluation and redesign. Specific training workshops on the strategy may assist to provide principals with a roadmap for implementation.

7.3.4   Recommendations for tertiary institutions and principal trainers

Tertiary institutions and trainers should heed the recommendations made for practitioners and policy makers. The emotional development of principals has to be given urgent attention. Often an inability to separate oneself from the office of the principalship results in taking ownership of trivialities that get amplified into major crises in schools. Personal agendas and over-inflated egos can be destructive for schools. Trainers need to find ways of assisting principals to get to know their own strengths and weaknesses, to establish and extend their levels of tolerance and to give focus to their servant function.

The inclusion, amongst other things, of budgeting, cash flow management, facilities management, HIV and AIDS leadership, facilitation skills, negotiation skills, relation-building skills, personal development and leadership in a special leadership course will enhance the multi-faceted leadership potential of principals from poor schools.

7.3.5   Recommendations for teachers

A corps of dedicated and passionate teachers is a prerequisite for principals to make any inroads into the challenges of providing high quality education in an environment affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS. A principal cannot effect the envisaged changes without the whole-hearted support and cooperation of the

teaching staff. Once teachers are satisfied that the motives of principals are noble and genuine they should work sincerely with principals to achieve those noble objectives.

All teachers have to fully understand the core activity in a school. They need to know that every other activity has to be in support of the core activity of teaching and facilitating learning. Universal love and compassion have to be the key elements that underpin their service because one cannot aim to sincerely contribute to the development of another individual without having a deep sense of universal purpose and moral obligation.

7.3.6   Recommendations for parents

The support of parents in poor communities can be an inspiration for principals. Genuine hard work and dedication towards the welfare and education of their children will be reciprocated by sincere service from principals and their staffs. Generally most parents in poor areas are very appreciative of the work done by principals and their staff. This appreciation has to be transformed into cooperation.

Parents in poor areas do not play as meaningful a role as their more affluent counterparts. Many principals are struggling from having to perform their leadership and management roles as well as the governance roles of SGBs. This undue burden on principals prevents them from adequately discharging their instructional roles. Parents must be willing to learn new skills, behave ethically, meet their obligations to the best of their abilities and provide their known skills to the school to compensate for shortcomings arising from their financial or educational circumstances.

7.4   LIMITATIONS OF STUDY

The authenticity of this study is dependent on the integrity of three processes explained in the introduction to this chapter. The first being the detailed literature

review that sought to establish a best practice guide. Whilst I believe that I have consulted an adequate quantity of literature on school leadership, there is the possibility that I may have omitted to consult certain important literature on the topic. However, I am convinced that such omission has not been so significant as to render my findings in the literature study unscientific. In the second process, I undertook research within my own school. As stated in Chapter Three, the sample of parents and staff interviewed may be regarded as inadequate to make generalisations that could be applicable in all schools. This is indeed a limitation of the study and the main findings. However, conclusions obtained from this study may serve as a pointer to the trends that may exist in other similarly located schools. Consequently, the findings may serve the purpose of alerting one to the possibilities that exist and the options that may be chosen for meaningful outcomes.

In the third process dealing with the findings from the literature study, the best practice guide was integrated with the perspectives obtained from the research participants. This process presented a major challenge as there was a dearth of information connecting the experiences of parents, learners and staff at my school to the extant literature. Consequently the integrated strategy that I have presented in the previous chapter may be deemed to have limited theoretical grounding. Notwithstanding these limitations it is clear that, if the school principals do not respond adequately to the potential danger of poverty and HIV and AIDS, schooling will indeed collapse resulting in the failure of education which is the only hope we currently have to reduce the rate of new HIV infections.

7.5   RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The integrated strategy that has been posited is based on research undertaken at one school. The next step that must be followed is the implementation of the strategy within the school or other schools in the same area. This assumes an action research methodology that should be followed by an evaluation of the implemented strategy annually over a period of three to five years. Action research involves repeated cycles of planning, acting and observing and then

reflecting. Subsequent cycles may involve replanning. Such additional study will serve to modify the strategy and eliminate unworkable and unrealistic procedures that may constrain the effectiveness of the strategy.

It is clear from the recommendations made in paragraph 7.3 that the integrated strategy needs the input of all participants in the schooling system. Consequently, further research investigating the influence of the input of the other participants would enhance the support given to schools in poor areas affected by HIV and AIDS.

7.6   CONCLUDING COMMENTS

The main purpose of this study was to establish, through study of the literature and research amongst learners, parents and teachers, the leadership roles of primary school principals in disadvantaged areas affected by HIV and AIDS. The integrated strategy is a practical guide to principals embarking on a journey to provide support to poor learners and their families who are affected by HIV and AIDS. Principals depend on the support and cooperation of many participants in the school system, thereby confirming the three special roles of principals, namely, the instructional, the managerial and the political roles of principals.

Finally, school leadership, in particular, the role of the school principal, has the potential to generate improvement in the lives of poor learners affected by HIV and AIDS. This improvement is dependent on the vision, compassion and values school principals bring to their schools and their ability to influence other participants in their environment.

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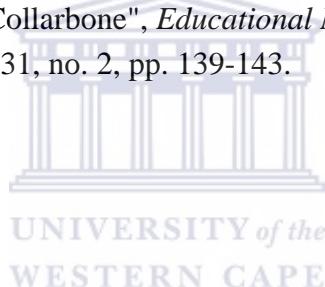
APPENDIX A
Interview Schedule for Parents

Code Name: _____ Age: _____

Date: _____

Employment Status:_____ Gender: _____

1. What are your expectations from our school when you enrol your child at our school?
   Zintoni olindele ukuzifumana esikolweni sethu xa ubhalisa umntwana wakho apha?
   _____

2. Give examples of what you think are the main functions of our school.
   Nika imizekelo yemisebenzi engundoqo yeskolo sethu?
   _____

3. Give examples of the main functions that you think that our school has done well in or where you were happy with the school's performance.
   Nika imizekelo yemisebenzi engundoqo apho isikolo sethu siye senza kakuhle okanye apho waziva wonwabile ngumsebenzi wesikolo sethu?

   _____

4. Give examples of the main functions that you think that our school has not done well in or where you were unhappy with the school's performance.
   Nika imizekelo yemisebenzi engundoqo apho isikolo sethu sigenzanga kakuhle okanye nawe waziva ungonwabanga ngumsebenzi wesikolo sethu?_____

5. How can our school improve in the performance of our main functions?
   Give examples of where we can improve.
   Singaziphucula njani isikolo sethu kumsebenzi ongundoqo. Nika Imizekelo._____

6. What can I as a principal do to improve?
   Yintoni enokwenziwa yinqununu yesikolo ukuzama ukuphucula?
   _____

7. What difficulties do you experience in sending your child to school?
   Zeziphi iingxaki ozifumanayo xa uthumela umntwana esikolweni?
   _____

8. Did you know that the school does the following:
    A) Provides breakfast and lunch for very needy learners?
    B) Provides a hot meal 5 days a week for 360 learners?
    C) Obtains clothing, shoes etc from other schools and distributes them to our needy learners?

    Do you find that this is helpful to you and your child? How? What more can the school do?

Ubusazi ukuba esi isikolo senza ezizi zinto zilandelayo?
    A) Sinikisa ngesdlo sakusasa nesasemini kubantwana abasweleyo
    B) Sinikisa ngokutya zontlanu iintsuku zeveki kubantwana abayi 360
    C) Sifumana iimpahla, izihlangu, njalo-njalo kwezinye izikolo sinike abantwana abasweleyo

Ingaba oku ukufumanisa kuluncedo kuwe nakumntwana? Njani? Yintoni enye esinokuyenza ngaphezu koku?

_____

9. Our school has a Health and HIV/AIDS Committee that helps learners and parents by:
    a) Visiting affected families
    b) Advising them how to get help
    c) Advising the learners how to cope with problems associated with HIV/AIDS
    d) Providing support for learners, food, clothing, counselling

What more can the school do?

Isikolo sethu sinekomiti yezempilo ne HIV/AIDS ethi incede abantwana nabazali ngokuthi:
    a) Ihambele amakhaya achaphazelekileyo
    b) Icebise ngeendlela abanokufumana ngayo uncedo
    c) Icebise abantwana ngeendlela abanokuthi bamelane ngazo neengxaki ezinxulumene ne HIV/AIDS
    d) Ngokunika inkxaso kubantwana ngokutya, iimpahla neengcebiso.

Yintoni enye esinokuyenza isikolo ngaphezu koku?

_____

10. Tell me what I as the Principal can do to improve our service to the Community in respect of poverty and HIV/AIDS?

Xelela mna njegenqununu yesikolo yintoni endinokuwenza ukuphucula uncedo oluya ekuhlaleni kwicala lendlala ne HIV/AIDS?

_____

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APPENDIX B

Teacher Focus Group Interview Protocol

1. The following are some suggested core functions of a school:
   Teach the children to read, write and calculate according to their age cohort.
   Provide a safe, healthy and nurturing environment for learners to grow.
   Identify and support learners with special needs.
   Provide opportunities for holistic development of learners, ie: emotional, physical, social, mental and cultural.
   Prepare learners for the world: family, work, civic.

   Are there any more you can think of?

2. Let us consider these core functions and examine how we, as a school, are faring in the performance of these functions.

3. Why is it important for us as educators to know our core functions?

4. How do we go about conscientising all involved in our school about our core functions?
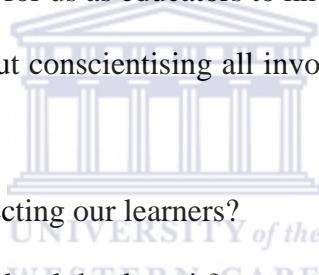
5. How is poverty affecting our learners?

6. What can we as a school do about it?

7. Briefly share your knowledge/experience/views on HIV and AIDS.

8. What relationship, if any, exists between us doing our core functions properly and us providing support to our learners and the Community in respect of HIV and AIDS?

9. How can we provide support to those (Learners, Educators and Parents/Community) affected by HIV and AIDS?

APPENDIX C

Teachers' Questionnaire

Research into the leadership role of school principals in economically disadvantaged areas affected by HIV and AIDS

Please complete the following details. Your name is **not** required

A. Gender: _____   B. Age: _____

1. What are our school's core functions? _____

2. Comment on our meaningfulness/effectiveness as a school in the performance of our core functions? _____

3. What do you think that I or any other Principal can do to improve our service in respect of our core functions? _____

4. How well is our school performing in our responsibility to assist the community to cope with poverty? Please motivate your answer
_____

5. What do you think that I or any other Principal can do to improve our service in respect of our role to assist the community to cope with poverty?_____

6. What are HIV and AIDS? Respond in terms of your understanding of the causes, methods of transmission, treatment and prevention._____

7. Comment on our meaningfulness/effectiveness as a school in executing our responsibility to assist the community to cope with HIV and AIDS?
_____

8. What do you think that I or any other Principal can do to improve our service in respect of our role to assist the community to cope with HIV and AIDS?
_____

9. Do you feel that there is hope in the fight against HIV and AIDS? _____ Please explain these feelings._____

10. What can Educators do to improve our service in respect of:
10.1 our core functions?_____

10.2 in respect of our role to assist the community to cope with poverty?

_____

10.3 In respect of our role to assist the community to cope with HIV and AIDS?

_____

Thank you for your kind cooperation. Your thoughts, ideas and opinions will play a critical role in the development of an effective strategy to deal with poverty and HIV and AIDS in our school and Community. If you have any further suggestions or ideas, please indicate them below.

Thank you most sincerely.

APPENDIX D

Principals' Focus Group Interview Protocol

1. What, in your opinion, are the core functions of any primary school?
   _____

2. How do we go about conscientising all involved in our school about our core functions?
   _____

3. Share your opinions/experiences/knowledge on the way HIV and AIDS are affecting our Community.

   _____

4. How is poverty affecting your school?
   _____

5. What can be done about it?
   _____

6. What link, if any, exists between the successful execution of a school's core functions and the provision of support to learners affected by poverty and HIV and AIDS?
   _____

7. What is our role, as principals, in the struggle against HIV and AIDS?
   _____
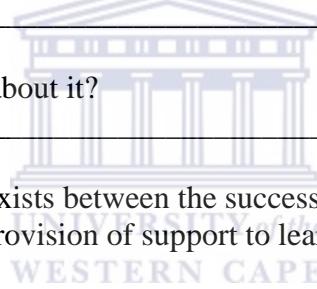
Specialised Learner Questionnaire

DAY 1

Question 1.

Draw a picture of our school as is. Show the POSITIVES/GOOD and NEGATIVES/BAD
and explain in words in space shown below

Zoba umfanekiso wesiskolo sethu ngobunjalo baso. Bonisa izinto ezintle nezingantlanga. Uchaze
Ngamagama kwesisithuba singezantsi

Positives/Ezintle   Negatives/Ezingantlanga

Question 2

Draw a picture of what your ideal school should be and explain in words in the space below

Zoba umfanekiso wesikolo osingwenelayo. Uchaze Ngamagama kwesisithuba singezantsi.
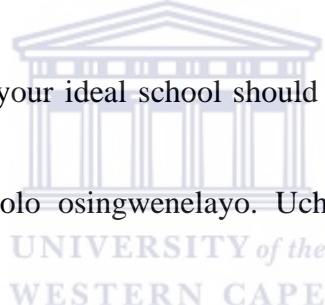
DAY 2

Question 3

Draw a picture showing the problems in your life now. Explain in words in the space below.

Zoba umfanekiso obonisa ingxaki ebomini bakho. Uchaze Ngamagama kwesisithuba singezantsi

Question 4

Draw a picture showing what the school should be doing to help you. Explain in words in the space below.

Zoba umfanekiso obonisa ukuba isikolo singenza ntoni ekuninceda.. . Uchaze Ngamagama kwesisithuba singezantsi.

DAY 3

Question 5

Draw a picture showing how our school has helped the poor learners in our school. Explain in words in the space below.

Zoba umfanekiso obonisa ukuba isikolo sethu sibanceda njani abantwana abahluphekayo. Uchaze Ngamagama kwesisithuba singezantsi.

Question 6

Draw a picture to show what more can be done by the school. Explain in words in the space below.

Zoba umfanekiso obonisa ukuba zintoni ngaphezulu ezingenziwa isikolo. Uchaze Ngamagama kwesisithuba singezantsi.

DAY 4

Question 7

Draw a picture that shows what HIV and AIDS mean to you. Explain in words in the space below.

Zoba umfanekiso obonisa ukuba ingculaza ichaza intoni kuwe. . Uchaze Ngamagama kwesisithuba singezantsi.

Question 8

What does our school do to help those affected by HIV and AIDS? Explain in words in the space below.

Isikolo sethu singabanceda njani ababosulelekileyo yingculaza. Uchaze Ngamagama kwesisithuba singezantsi.

Learner Responses To Questionnaire

GRADE 5

DAY 3   Question 5. Draw a picture showing how our school has helped the poor learners in our school. Explain in words in the space below.

Zoba umfanekiso obonisa ukuba isikolo sethu sibanceda njani abantwana abahluphekayo. Uchaze Ngamagama kwesisithuba singezantsi.

Oomama abaphekayo banika abantwana ukutya

Abantwana benikwe ntsonka

Abantwana banikwe Desidlo sakubasa

Question 7 Draw a picture that shows what HIV and AIDS means to you. Explain in words in the space below.

Zoba umfanekiso obonisa ukuba ingculaza intoni kuwe. Uchaza Ngamagama kweisisihuba singezantsi

We must eat healthy f...
- Protect yourself
  using ... cond...

...who have HIV
(UKONYANYA!!
- Do not inject your
  self with the
  needle that was
  used ...

GRADE 7

DAY 4   Question 7   Draw a picture that shows what HIV and AIDS means to you. Explain in words in the space below.

Zoba umfanekiso obonisa ukuba ingculaza ichaza intoni kuwe. Uchaze Ngamagama kwesisithuba singezantsi
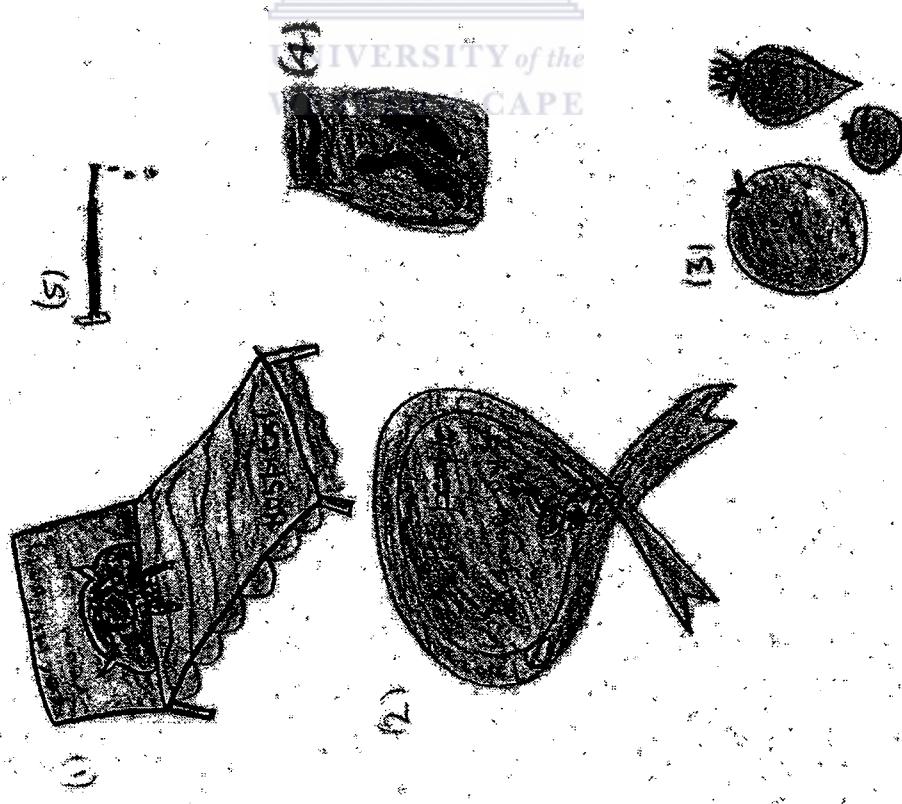
(1) People get sick Because of HIV and AIDS.

(2) HIV and AIDS kills people over thousand.

(3) It means people must eat healthy food.

(4) I means to me its a bacterian and assise inside your body. that is

(5) Dont use the same needle.

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Wes-Kaap Onderwysdepartement

Western Cape Education Department

ISebe leMfundo leNtshona Koloni

Verwysing Reference ISalathiso	20061121-0072

Mr Vithagan Rajagopaul
8 Ganges Close
GATESVILLE
7764

Dear Mr V. Rajagopaul

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: THE LEADERSHIP ROLE OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN ECONOMICALLY DISADVANTAGED AREAS.

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Educators' programmes are not to be interrupted.
5. The Study is to be conducted from **22nd January 2007 to 21st September 2007**.
6. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December 2007).
7. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr R. Cornelissen at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number.
8. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the Principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
9. Your research will be limited to the following schools: **Kukhanyile Primary, Eluxolweni Primary, Yomelela Primary, Soyisile Primary, Lwandle Primary, Chumisa Primary and Sosebenza Primary**.
10. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Education Research.
11. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:
    The Director: Education Research
    Western Cape Education Department
    Private Bag X9114
    CAPE TOWN
    8000

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.

Signed: Ronald S. Cornelissen
for: **HEAD: EDUCATION**
DATE: **21st November 2006**

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